







285
132



THE
COTTAGE
CYCLOPEDIA



OF
HISTORY AND
BIOGRAPHY.

THE
COTTAGE CYCLOPEDIA
OF
HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

A COPIOUS DICTIONARY

OF
MEMORABLE PERSONS, EVENTS, PLACES, AND THINGS,

WITH
NOTICES OF THE PRESENT STATE OF THE PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES AND
NATIONS OF THE KNOWN WORLD,

AND A
CHRONOLOGICAL VIEW OF AMERICAN HISTORY.

BY ED. M. PIERCE.

Hartford:
A. S. HALE AND COMPANY,
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P R E F A C E .

EVERY reader of a book, a magazine, or a newspaper, is sometimes at loss for a date or fact, and meets with frequent references to historical and biographical subjects which he knows nothing about, or obscurely remembers, or only partially understands. If he has at hand a volume which will readily answer any inquiries that arise in his mind, he will turn to it, and thus remove his ignorance, or clear away the doubt and obscurity that rest upon his understanding. If he has no such work at easy command, he will in most cases let the matter pass, and the need for knowledge goes unsatisfied.

Such extensive works as the *Encyclopædia Britannica* and the *American Cyclopædia* are costly, and are therefore in the hands of comparatively few persons; besides, they are too cumbrous for easy and frequent reference. The value of a volume like *THE COTTAGE CYCLOPEDIA OF HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY*, to lie familiarly upon the table or the shelf, ready at call to answer the thousand questions that arise, is too plain to require discussion. It will prove a great convenience even to those who possess ample libraries, and whose minds are stored with historical data. But it is more especially designed for family use, and for the young.

THE COTTAGE CYCLOPEDIA is intended to supply to every general reader such a book of reference as that of which the need has been shown. It is particularly commended to the attention of parents: let them place

it within the reach of their children, and inculcate the habit of consulting it as a dictionary of history and biography, whenever curiosity, doubt, or want of information may suggest. There will be thus laid up a store of precise practical knowledge, incalculable in value.

It is not, however, as a mere book of reference, that this volume is offered to the public. The materials are, it is true, gathered to a great extent from books familiar to the public. The Compiler, however, has culled many traits, anecdotes, and adventures, from less common sources; and interspersing these and other illustrative sketches throughout the pages, he has sought to enliven the work, and thus render it amusing, attractive, and readable. Many of the articles are more extensive than in the voluminous encyclopedias. Interesting topics not found in those are also introduced. The history of our own country will be found fully treated of, under different heads; and at the close of the volume a Chronological View of American History is appended. The present condition of the various countries of the earth is sketched in connection with their history. The lives of eminent political characters in all ages, as well as the lives of those whose greatness in science or literature made their names enduring, are given, some of them at considerable length, and with many characteristic anecdotes. Extended sketches will be found of several royal families; as the houses of Hanover, Plantagenet, Romanoff, Stuart, Tudor, &c. Such topics as Oracles, Druids, El Dorado, Knighthood, Chivalry, Fairies, the Argonauts, the Man in the Iron Mask, Don Carlos, the Gulf Stream, Jesuits, &c., &c., which are frequently alluded to in literature, are treated of with particularity.

The dates of important inventions, discoveries, and improvements in the arts and sciences, and remarkable and interesting facts generally, will be found appropriately arranged. Among such topics may be mentioned the following:—Abdications; Alliances; Amazons; Ambassadors; the Armada; Bachelors; Banks; order of the Bath; Bells; Bible; the vicar of Bray; the Cinque Ports; Coin; the Continental Congress; Conspiracies and Insurrections; the English Constitution; the Constitution of the United States; Councils of the Church; Declaration of Independence, with those passages in the original draught which were

omitted or changed by Congress; Discoveries in modern times, Dress; Earthquakes; order of the Garter; Labor; Libraries; Luxury; Lynch Law; Marriage; Massacres; Metals; Naval Battles; North-west Passage; Painting; Plague; Planets; Poet Laureate; Popes; Printing; Time; Wandering Jew; Wonders of the World.

The great battles of the world, ancient and modern, by land and by sea,—Thermopylæ, Marathon, Cannæ, Pharsalia, Blenheim, Austerlitz, Marengo, Waterloo, Bunker Hill, Saratoga, Yorktown, New Orleans, Buena Vista, Cerro Gordo, Chapultepec, Alma, Inkermann, Balaklava, &c.; Salamis, Actium, Aboukir, Trafalgar, Erie, Champlain, &c.,—are duly chronicled.

The work is liberally illustrated with wood-cuts, of a superior execution; the most of them designed by Baker & Andrew. A list of them is given on another page.

The COTTAGE CYCLOPEDIA is arranged with a view to compress a great amount of matter into a small compass, that the bulk of the volume may not render it inconvenient, and that its expense may not hinder its general circulation. In preparing so extensive a publication for the press, the Compiler can not hope that he has wholly escaped error or that omissions may not be noticed; but he trusts that the volume may be found sufficiently accurate and complete to fulfill the proper design of such a work, and that it may prove a valuable accession to the means of diffusing useful knowledge.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

Residence of Adams Family, Quincy, Mass.	Iowa.
Great Chestnut-tree of Mount Ætna.	Jackson at the Hermitage.
Alabama.	Monticello.
Alcibiades.	Temple of Jupiter Olympius at Athens.
Cleopatra's Needle, at Alexandria.	Kentucky.
The Court of Lions, Alhambra.	Louisiana.
Mont Blanc.	Montpelier, Madison's Residence.
Mount Ararat.	Maine.
Arkansas.	Maryland.
The Hill of the Areopagus.	Massachusetts.
Place where Gold was first discovered in Australia.	Michigan.
The Balloon.	Minnesota.
Reading the Bible to the People.	Mississippi.
Diamond Washing in Brazil.	Missouri.
The Britannia Tubular Bridge.	New Hampshire.
California.	New Jersey.
Peak of Teneriffe.	New York.
Charles the Twelfth.	North Carolina.
The Charter Oak.	Ohio.
Chinese Lady of Rank.	Pennsylvania.
Great Wall of China.	Temple of Isis at Pompeii.
Ashland.	Faust taking First Proof from Moveable Types.
De Witt Clinton.	Rhode Island.
Capitol at Washington.	The Colossus of Rhodes.
Connecticut.	The Coliseum.
Delaware.	St. Peter's.
Stonehenge.	South Carolina.
A Druid.	Story's House at Cambridge, Mass.
Earthquake at Lisbon.	Tennessee.
Colossi near Thebes.	Texas.
Florida.	Arch of Titus at Rome.
Cathedral of Notre Dame at Strasburg.	Plains of Troy.
Franklin's Grave at Philadelphia.	Henry the Eighth.
Fulton's First Steamboat.	Leaning Tower of Pisa.
Georgia.	Tyrolese Peasants.
Hamilton's Monument in Trinity Church- yard, New York.	Vermont.
The Hancock House in Boston.	Vesuvius.
Hieroglyphics.	Virginia.
Homer.	Mount Vernon.
Illinois.	Washington's Tomb.
Indiana.	Birthplace of Webster.
	Wisconsin.
	The Pyramids and Sphinx.



COTTAGE CYCLOPEDIA

OF

HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

A.

AARON, the brother and associate of Moses, and the first high-priest of the Jews, born about B.C. 1574, and died B.C. 1451.

ABAUZIT, FIRMIN, a Protestant author of celebrity and learning, born in Languedoc, 1679, and died in 1767, having long filled the office of public librarian at Geneva. His knowledge was great, and embraced the whole circle of the sciences. He enjoyed the friendship of Sir Isaac Newton.

ABBAS, SHAH, the Great, ascended the throne of Persia in 1589, and distinguished himself in arms, by his victories over the Ottomans, and by wresting Ormus from the Portuguese in 1622, aided, however, by the British. During his reign, Ispahan became the capital of Persia. His death took place in 1629.

ABBASSIDES. The caliphs who, during the eighth and ninth centuries, made Bagdad their capital, are distinguished in history as the Abbassides. Their sway extended over Persia, Arabia, and Syria. Al-Mansur, in 762, built Bagdad, and raised the Saracenic empire to its highest point of splendor and fame. Al-Modi, to whom the empire was transmitted, did not let its reputation wane, and, under Haroun al Raschid, the dignity of the caliphate was preserved and adorned. After Haroun, reigned Al-Amin and Al-Mamun. Under Al-Motasser the governors of several provinces asserted their independence, and Bagdad alone was governed by the caliph.

ABBEY, or monastery, is a house erected for the dwelling of men or women who have taken the monastic vow, which binds them

to relinquish all worldly interests, and devote themselves to the performance of religious duties, living in a state of celibacy. A monastery receives its title from that of the ecclesiastic governing it. An abbey is governed by an abbot or abbess; a priory, by a prior or prioress, &c. The term nunnery is applied to a religious house inhabited by women. The buildings inhabited by religious communities were originally of the plainest kind, but increased in extent and splendor with their revenues, until, from the humble dwellings of unpretending ecclesiastics, they became the abodes of luxury, brilliant with costly architectural decorations, and hiding, within their lofty walls, the revels of men whose piety was but a cloak for unlimited indulgence. The buildings constituting an abbey or monastery, consisted principally of churches, cloisters, refectories, chapters, parlors, dormitories, courts, gardens, &c. The choir and interior buildings of convents were fenced in by grates, and inaccessible to visitors. The church consisted of the choir, an altar, a nave, aisles, chapels, and a tower. The cloister comprehended the galleries or covered porticoes of a monastery, in which the monks took their exercise, and surrounded an open space, generally devoted to the cultivation of flowers, neatly distributed in parterres, interspersed with grass-plats, and refreshed by careful irrigation. The cloisters were sometimes adorned with valuable paintings, and were generally finished specimens of art. The refectory of an abbey was the hall in which the fathers ate. The refectory

furnished at first frugal fare, and the holy fathers did not tarry long in it; but with the declension of ecclesiastical simplicity, the character of their meals was changed, and they made the walls ring with the merriment of high living and rich wines. The refectory of the Abbey of St. Denis, at Paris, has been celebrated for its architectural beauty. The chapter was for the reception of assemblies to discuss the private affairs of the house. The chapter-houses were sometimes ornamented with splendid pictures. The parlor was a kind of cabinet, where visitors conversed with the monks or nuns through a grated window. Formerly, convents contained parlors, in which novices were allowed the privilege of conversing together, at hours of recreation, but even then they were overheard by their superiors, who were provided with places for eavesdropping. The dormitories were usually wings in the building, containing the cells of its inhabitants. Here the monks enjoyed their brief repose, from which they were awakened to acts of devotion, or to bend in solitude before the crucifix, with its accompanying mementos of mortality, and lose themselves in the reveries of religious enthusiasm. The gardens of monasteries generally exhibited neatness, and were not the least favorite appendage to the dwellings of the monks.

The monks, in the ages of general darkness (that is, from A.D. 600 to 1500), preserved in their monasteries many valuable volumes, and kept alive the spark of learning, which, but for their exertions, would have been extinguished. Religious houses were, for ages, the sole depositories of literature and science, and their inhabitants were actively employed in the duties of education. In England, one person or more in each convent was appointed to instruct pupils, and these were the children of those neighbors who chose to send them. They were instructed in grammar and church music, free of expense. In the nunneries, females were taught to read and work, and the daughters of noblemen and gentlemen, as well as of the poorer people, were indebted to the nuns for a large part of whatever knowledge they possessed. Many poor descendants of noble families looked to monasteries for refuge, and having taken the vow, made use of the influence of

friends to gain high ecclesiastical offices. Many of the monks were men driven to enter religious houses by the pangs of remorse, and who hoped to expiate a career of crimes by seclusion from the world, and the observance of the most austere rites of the church. These, as well as some who were unaffectedly pious, lived a blameless life; but there were others whose profligacy was unrepressed, because hidden by that veil of hypocrisy which they closely drew around them. Many monks were skillful painters, as the richly illuminated manuscripts of other days prove, and numerous were the legends of saints, gorgeously blazoned upon pages of vellum, that filled the shelves of the holy fathers. Living a life of undisturbed seclusion, those who possessed a literary turn, had ample time to indulge their propensity, though very few literary works of any merit issued from the monasteries.

The year 305 is that in which the earliest monasteries were established in Egypt, under the conduct of St. Anthony, and hence sprang shortly afterward, many others in various places. In 360, the earliest monastery in France, that of Saint Martin, at Poitiers, was established. In the beginning, monasteries were inhabited by laymen. For more than six centuries all the eastern monasteries were independent of each other, and governed by abbots who were answerable to their bishops only. The first monasteries, in times of trouble and darkness, preserved the spirit of religion, and were sanctuaries in which piety and learning sought refuge from the ignorance, irreligion, and persecutions of the world. A mild light, denied to the rest of mankind, was shed upon those who took upon themselves the fulfillment of monastic vows. The conduct of the monks was regulated by the plain commands of the Scriptures, and antiquity was followed in the celebration of religious ceremonies, and the practice of Christian virtues. The monks, as remarked above, were, for many centuries, the preservers of literature, many valuable works of the present day having been rescued from destruction by monastic libraries. But with the revival of letters, and the triumph of the Reformation, the usefulness of monastic establishments passed away.

Constantine IV. ordered a vast number of friars and nuns to appear at Ephesus, where

he bade them change their black habits for white, and to destroy their images. They remonstrated that because of their vows, to obey was impossible; whereupon their eyes were put out, they were banished, and their monasteries forfeited and sold for the uses of the state. The suppression of monastic houses has been frequent, even in Roman Catholic countries. All those in England were swept away by Henry VIII. Their revenues, treasures, and lands were either retained by the crown or bestowed upon favorite courtiers.

The diminution of the papal power, and the enlightened spirit of the age, in the eighteenth century, exerted a strong influence upon the public mind with regard to monasteries in Catholic countries, and they lost many of their privileges and much of the protection previously given them by law. Joseph II. of Austria, in 1781, abolished some orders of monasteries and limited the number of inmates in others. In France they were all abolished in 1790. During the reign of Napoleon, all the states incorporated with France, as well as other Catholic countries of Europe, abolished them, with the exception of Spain, Portugal, Naples, Austria, Poland, and Russia. Pope Pius VII. procured means for the maintenance of old, and the foundation of new ones in France, Bavaria, and Naples, while in Austria they became extinct.

ABBOT, GEORGE, born in 1562, and made Archbishop of Canterbury in 1610. He was a cloth-worker, and early remarkable for polemical skill. He strenuously opposed some measures of King James, thereby disproving the assertion that he owed his rise to acts more worthy of a courtier than an ecclesiastic. Having the misfortune to kill a gamekeeper of Lord Zouch, he ever afterward fasted upon Tuesday, the day on which the unhappy event took place. He was supplanted in favor at court by Laud, and died at the age of seventy-one in 1633.

ABBOT, CHARLES, Viscount Colchester, was speaker of the British House of Commons, from 1802 to 1817. He was born in 1757, and died in 1829.

ABDICATIONS OF MONARCHS: of Sylla as perpetual dictator of Rome, B.C. 79. Dioclesian, A.D. 304. Ceawlin, king of the

West Saxons, 593. Henry IV. of Germany, 1080. Stephen II. of Hungary, 1114. Albert of Saxony, 1142. Lestus V. of Poland, 1200. Uladislaus III. of Poland, 1206. John Baliol of Scotland, 1306. Otho of Hungary, 1309. Eric IX. of Denmark, 1439. Eric XIII. of Sweden, 1441. Amurath II., emperor of the Turks, 1447. Charles V. of Germany, and as Charles I. of Spain, 1556. Christina of Sweden, 1654. John Casimir of Poland, 1668. James II. of England (really dethroned), 1688. Frederick Augustus II. of Poland, 1704. Philip V. of Spain, 1724, January 15th, but resumed the scepter in about fourteen months afterward, on the death of his son Louis, in whose favor he had abdicated. Victor Amadeus of Sardinia, 1730. Charles of Naples, 1759. Stanislaus of Poland, 1795. Victor of Sardinia, June 4th, 1802. Francis II. resigns his title as Emperor of Germany, August 11th, 1804. Charles IV. of Spain, March 19th, 1808. Joseph Bonaparte from Naples to take the crown of Spain, June 1st, 1808; fled before the British from Madrid, July 29th, 1808. Gustavus Adolphus, IV. of Sweden, March 19th, 1809. Louis Bonaparte of Holland, July 1st, 1810. Jerome Bonaparte of Westphalia, Oct. 20th, 1813. Napoleon Bonaparte of France, April 5th, 1814. Emmanuel of Sardinia, March 13th, 1821. Pedro IV. of Portugal, May 2d, 1826. Charles X. of France, Aug. 2d, 1830. Pedro I. of Brazil, April 7th, 1831. Miguel of Portugal, May 26th, 1834. William I. of Holland, Oct. 8th, 1840. Christina of Spain (queen dowager and regent), Oct. 12th, 1840. Louis Philippe of France, Feb. 24th, 1848 (deposed immediately afterward). Louis Charles of Bavaria, March 21st, 1848. Ferdinand of Austria, Dec. 2d, 1848. Charles Albert of Sardinia, March 26th, 1849.

ABEL, son of Waldemar II. of Denmark, gained the scepter by assassinating his brother Eric in 1250. A revolt of the Frisons caused the loss of his life, in 1252. His appellation was certainly a misnomer.

ABELARD, PETER (properly ABAILARD, PIERRE), was born in 1079, of a noble family, at Palais, near Nantes in Brittany. The stirring incidents of his chequered life, and especially his passion for Heloise, with its melancholy fruits, have thrown a peculiar and

romantic charm around the name of Abelard. From his youth he devoted himself to study. Coming to Paris at the age of twenty, and having soon rivaled and eclipsed his tutor, Guillaume de Champeaux, he removed in two years from Paris to Melun, thence to Corbeil, and thence to Palais, his birthplace, teaching philosophy all the while with great success. The attractions of Paris soon drew him again to the metropolis, where he attacked the realism of his old master with such dialectic dexterity and vigor, that Champeaux's school was speedily extinguished. By and by his antagonist was made Bishop of Chalon-sur-Marne, and Abelard commenced to study theology under Anselm at Laon. Having, by his transcendent talent, made the seminary at Laon his envious enemy, he returned to Paris, and opened a school of divinity with unrivaled popularity. In that school were trained many men, from various countries, who afterward arrived at high ecclesiastical honors; one pope, nineteen cardinals, and above fifty bishops. In this zenith of his fame, when, according to his own confession, pride and luxury had misled him, he loved and seduced his pupil, Heloise, a young and fatherless lady, not twenty years of age, and a niece of Canon Fulbert, a Parisian ecclesiastic. Heloise was conveyed to Brittany, and bore a son in the house of Abelard's sister. The canon insisted upon a marriage, which accordingly took place; a union which Heloise openly denied, to her uncle's great vexation. Abelard placed her in the convent of Argenteuil; but her uncle took a terrible revenge for the abduction of his niece. Hired ruffians broke into Abelard's chamber, and inflicted on his person a disgraceful mutilation. Heloise became a nun, and Abelard retired as a monk into the abbey of St. Denis. At length he resumed his prelections, but had the misfortune of being suspected of heresy, and was condemned in 1121, by a council which met at Soissons. He retired to Troyes, and selected a retreat which his subdued and chastened spirit named the Paraclete, or Comforter; and in this convent Heloise was at length established as superior. But the unfortunate recluse provoked the ire of his neighbor, Bernard of Clairvaux, and again, for suspected heresy, did the council of Sens put its brand upon him. He appeal-

ed to Rome, but did not follow out his appeal. Worn out with fatigue, persecution, and infirmity, he at length took refuge in the priory of St. Marcel, where he died April 21st, 1142, at the age of sixty-three. His body, first interred at Cluni, was soon removed to the Paraclete; and twenty years afterward Heloise was buried beside him at her own request. Their ashes lay undisturbed for three hundred years; but in 1497 they were transferred to the church of the abbey; then in 1800 removed to the garden of the Musée Français, in Paris; and lastly, in 1817 they were deposited beneath a Gothic shrine in the cemetery of Pere la Chaise. The brilliant talents and oratory of Abelard are beyond dispute. As a subtle and accomplished dialectician he had no rival.

ABERCROMBIE, JOHN, M. D., a writer of some note in intellectual philosophy, born at Aberdeen, Scotland, Nov. 11th, 1781; attained high rank as a physician at Edinburgh; died Nov. 14th, 1844.

ABERCROMBIE, SIR RALPH, an eminent British general, was born in Scotland, in 1738. He entered the army at eighteen, and rose from cornet to general. He distinguished himself in the Duke of York's campaigns in Holland, from 1793 to 1795. He was then made commander-in-chief in the West Indies, and conquered several islands from the French. He commanded the expedition to re-conquer Egypt in 1801, and fell at the battle of Alexandria, March 21st. In this action, by whose decision Egypt was lost to France, Gen. Abercrombie displayed the chivalric valor of a knight of the olden time. Dismounted, and suffering from two mortal wounds, he disarmed his adversary, and gave the sword into the hands of Sir Sydney Smith. He survived about a week. His memory was honored by his countrymen, and a costly monument erected in St. Paul's, a public token of the respect of England for as brave and true a soldier as ever fought beneath her banner.

ABERNETHY, JOHN (1763-1831), was a native of the north of Ireland. He was a pupil of John Hunter, and became an eminent surgeon in London. He was as eccentric and brusque in his manners as he was skillful in his profession.

ABINGER (JAMES SCARLETT), Lord, an

eminent English barrister and judge, was born in Jamaica, about 1769, of an influential West Indian family. He studied at Cambridge and the Middle Temple, and was called to the bar in 1791. He was a successful lawyer; sat in parliament, at first acting with the Whigs; going over to the Tories, he was attorney-general under Canning, and afterward under Wellington. In 1834 he was made chief baron of the exchequer, and raised to the peerage by the title of Baron Abinger. He died April 7th, 1844, of paralysis, by which he was attacked while on the circuit.

ABOUKIR, the site of the ancient Canopus, is an Arabian village containing but about a hundred inhabitants. Its bay is spacious, and has, upon the western side, a castle of considerable strength. It is thirteen miles north-east of Alexandria, upon the coast of Egypt. Aboukir is rendered famous by the important naval battle fought here between the French and English fleets, the latter commanded by Admiral Nelson, on the 1st of August, 1798. Bonaparte's army was conveyed to Egypt by the French fleet, which sailed from the harbor of Toulon, on the 19th of May, 1798. As soon as intelligence of this reached the English fleet before Cadiz, Admiral St. Vincent despatched Rear-Admiral Nelson with fourteen ships of the line, to the Mediterranean, with orders to find and attack the French fleet. Nelson, burning for fame, and eager to meet the enemy, at length found them in the road of Aboukir. The signal for battle was immediately given. The French captains, who had been assembled on board the admiral's ship, hastened to their posts, and an English ship instantly commenced the attack. The French fleet was disposed in the form of a crescent, following the curve of the bay, and anchored as close as possible to an island on which was erected a powerful battery of cannon and mortars. Nelson ordered a part of his fleet to break through between the island and the French line of battle, and to coast along until they gained the enemy's rear, while the remainder of the English fleet approached the enemy's front, and anchored within pistol-shot. These orders were executed with skill and daring, and, at half past six in the evening, the battle began, just as the setting sun threw a fiery

hue upon the fearful scene. The fire of the English was well directed and deadly. At the end of one hour, five French ships were disabled and captured. Admiral Brueys was shot as he was directing the fight from his ship *l'Orient*. After the admiral was shot, Capt. Casabianca and crew, determined to maintain the honor of the flag-ship, fought her with great spirit. *L'Orient* blew up after having been fought for four hours. She was a superb vessel, a hundred-and-twenty gun ship, with a crew of a thousand men, out of whom but eighty or ninety were saved from destruction. The scene of the combat must have been awfully sublime, for the cannonading continued all night, and day dawned upon a scene of destruction and dismay. The French suffered severely. Only two of their ships of the line, and two frigates, got off clear. Nine ships of the line were taken, one blown up, and one frigate sunk. The French themselves set fire to and burned a ship of the line and a frigate. The success of the British was a severe blow to Bonaparte, as it cut off his communication with France, and inspired his enemies with fresh hope and resolution, giving spirit to the coalition formed against the power which had so suddenly attained a giant strength. The conflict is also sometimes called the battle of the Nile: it obtained the victorious admiral a peerage, by the title of Baron Nelson of the Nile. His exclamation upon going into the fight was, "Victory or Westminster Abbey!" Aboukir was also the point where Abercrombie's forces debarked, and it surrendered to him after an obstinate and sanguinary struggle with the French, March 8th, 1801.

ABRADATES, a king of Susa, of whom Xenophon relates that his wife, Panthea, having been taken prisoner by Cyrus, was well treated, in consequence of which her husband joined the troops of the conqueror, but was killed in the very first battle which he fought for him. His wife, in despair, killed herself upon his corpse. Both were honored and lamented by Cyrus.

ABRUZZO is divided into three provinces: Abruzzo Citra, and Abruzzo Ultra, I. and II.; so named from their relative position with regard to Naples. It is the northern extremity of the Neapolitan kingdom, and bounded on the north and west by the territories of the

church, and on the east by the Adriatic. Its population in 1845 was estimated at 825,940. The country is crossed in all directions by the lofty Apennines and their off-shoots. The spring rains and thaws often swell the streams to such an extent, that bridges are swept away, and all communication broken up. The inhabitants of the valleys, which are fertile, are generally shepherds, and fine herds feed upon the eminences and pasturage spots of the valleys. Abruzzo is a very important division of the Neapolitan states, of which it constitutes the chief defense on the land side. During the numerous invasions and civil wars of that kingdom it has often been the scene of protracted contests. The chief towns are, Chieti, population 15,000; Teramo, population 10,000; Aquila, population 14,000.

ABULFEDA, or Ishmael, prince of Hamah in Syria, an Arabian, famous for his historical and geographical writings, and surnamed the Pillar of Religion, and the Prince of Victory. He was a native of Damascus, and born A.D. 1273. Although inheriting the throne of Hamah from his uncle, he was debarred for a long time from the enjoyment of his rights, but when gained, the kingdom remained undisturbed under his sway, until the time of his death, which took place A.D. 1333.

ABYDOS, a city on the Asiatic side of the Dardanelles, of Milesian origin, famed for the bridge of boats constructed by order of Xerxes, and familiar to all readers as the residence of Hero, the mistress of Leander, who swam the Hellespont to meet her, until

"That night of stormy water,
When Love—who sent—forgot to save
The lone, the beautiful, the brave,
The only hope of Sestos' daughter."

Lord Byron, whose lines we quote, performed Leander's feat in company with Mr. Ekenhead, an Englishman. The turbulence of the currents renders the passage a critical undertaking. The inhabitants of Abydos gallantly defended their city against Philip of Macedon.

Another ABYDOS in Upper Egypt, was famed for the magnificence of the palace of Memnon and the temple of Osiris. Some splendid ruins, manifesting its former grandeur, are to be found in the village of El-Kherbeh.

ABYSSINIA is a large tract of elevated table-land in eastern Africa, the north-eastern edge of which is directed toward the Red Sea, and is from thirty to sixty miles from the coast. It lies between 8° 30' and 15° 40' N. lat., and between 35° and 42° E. long., and is drained by the principal branches of the Nile. The name is thought by most authors to be derived from the Arabic *Habesh*, which signifies a mixed people. The Portuguese gave this country the name of Prester or Presbyter John's empire, but it appears that there is no foundation for the supposition that any such person ever dwelt or was heard of in Abyssinia. The ancients, who were very little acquainted with the kingdom, represented its extent as far greater than the reality proved. Its three grand divisions are Tigre, Amhara, and Shoa and Efat. There is an ancient tradition that Abyssinia was the kingdom of Sheba or Seba, the visit of whose queen to Solomon is spoken of in the sacred writings, and that the Queen of Sheba had a son, of whom Solomon was the father. From this prince, whose name was Menileh, the sovereigns of Abyssinia claimed to be descended. The Jewish religion, some think, was prevalent in Abyssinia until nearly the middle of the fourth century, when missionaries from Alexandria converted the people to Christianity. Others conjecture that Abyssinia was the kingdom of that queen Candace, whose eunuch was baptized by Philip, and that Candace and her people embraced the same faith. In the fifteenth century the Portuguese assisted the Abyssinian monarch against his enemies and in return he adopted the Catholic religion. The Romish priests were finally expelled in 1632.

For more than a century this country has been in anarchy. There is a sovereign, but his authority is only nominal, and civil wars are frequent. The population is estimated at between three and four millions. The bulk of the people are of the Circassian race. There are many Mohammedans in the land, but the prevailing faith is Coptic Christianity. The head of the church, called *Abuna*, (meaning "our father"), receives his ordination from the Archbishop of Alexandria. Wheat and barley are grown; in some places Indian corn, and in others cotton. The country is poor in minerals. Iron-ore of good quality

is found. Rock salt is found abundantly in the eastern extremity of Tigre, and the common currency consists of pieces in the shape of a whetstone, weighing nineteen or twenty ounces. The manufactures are rude, but what progress in these the Abyssinians have made, is original, for they have had little intercourse with Europeans. They tan skins well, make rough iron implements, and weave coarse cotton cloth. Coarse black pottery is made in every part of the country. They have some traffic with the interior of Africa, in slaves, ivory, coffee, civet, gold, cloth, iron, and cattle.

Bruce gives a sorry picture of the people. The punishments in Abyssinia are severe, and frequently as well as unfeelingly inflicted. Death on the cross, hanging, stoning to death, flaying alive, and plucking out the eyes, stand foremost in the dark catalogue. The bodies of those who suffer death for treason, murder, and the commission of some other crimes, rarely receive the rites of sepulture. Pieces of dead carcasses are frequent in the streets of Gondar, and nightly attract numbers of wild beasts. The hyenas, whose craving for human flesh is well known, rush to their banquet as soon as night settles on the town, howling over the bones for which they have contended fiercely. The manners and customs of the Abyssinians prove the shocking cruelty and brutality of this people. Their festivities are disgraced by the most revolting practices. When the guests are assembled, the cooks cut steaks from the cattle at the door while they are yet alive, and roaring with agony. The guests wipe their fingers upon the cakes which they afterward eat. The people are illiterate and depraved, and their whole country exhibits the appearance of hopeless wretchedness and poverty.

ACARNANIA, a division of ancient Greece, now Il Carnia, or Il Despotato, Albania, was formerly called Curetis, a country of Epirus, separated from Ætolia by the Achelous, and long an independent state. After having been conquered by the Romans, it was permitted to retain its own laws until the destruction of Corinth by Mummius, when it was united to the province of Achaia.

ACHAIA was a narrow strip of the Peloponnesus, and stretching along the Bay of Corinth. The name is sometimes employed

by the early poets to distinguish all Greece. After Greece became a Roman province, Achaia included all the Grecian states but Macedonia and Thessaly. Eighty years after the Trojan war, the descendants of Achæus, who first dwelt in the country near Argos, being driven out by the Heraclidae, seized upon the twelve Ionian cities, and kept them. These were Pellene, Ægira, Æges, Bura, Tritæa, Ægion, Rhypæ, Olenos, Helice, Patræ, Dyme, and Pharæ. These twelve little states of Achaia were independent republics, and were combined in the famous confederacy known as the Achaian League, about B.C. 281. This was much like the federal union of our own states. Aratus and Philopœmen by their talents and bravery raised it to a high rank. It was conquered by the Romans 146 B.C.

ACHILLAS, a general of Ptolemy, and the murderer of Pompey the Great.

ACHILLES, as the poets tell us, was the son of Peleus, a Thessalian king, and Thetis, daughter of Nereus, grandson of Æacus. Thetis, in order to preserve her beautiful boy from the dangers of war, dipped him in the Styx (a river of hell), which rendered him invulnerable, with the exception of the heel by which she held him. Having been warned that if Achilles went to the Trojan war, he would meet death after a glorious career, while, in remaining at home, he would attain a good old age, Thetis disguised her boy in a female dress, and sent him, under the name of Pyrrha, to be educated at the court of Lycomedes, king of Scyros, who brought him up with his daughters. The Greeks were informed by the prophet Chalcas, that Troy could not be taken without the aid of Achilles, and accordingly, Ulysses, the most wily of the Greeks, went as a merchant to the court of Lycomedes. Here he was surrounded by the princesses, before whose eager eyes he spread out his sparkling store, taking care to mingle implements of war with feminine articles. While the daughters of the king seized upon the trinkets, Achilles possessed himself of the arms. The gleaming breastplate and the burnished spear ill matched the garb he wore, and the fiery young hero was soon induced to cast it off, and take part with the Greeks in their expedition. Phoenix and the Centaur Chiron had instructed him in mental

and bodily accomplishments, and the former accompanied him to Troy. Achilles is one of the bravest and most beautiful of the Homeric heroes, being the subject of some of the finest verses in the "Iliad." The following glowing description is from the nineteenth book of the immortal poem.

"In the midst was arm'd the godlike Achilles,
Grinding his teeth, and whose eyes
Roll'd glowing like a flash of fire, into whose
heart
Enter'd intolerable pain: raving against the
Trojans,
He donn'd the gifts divine which the artist Vulcan
had made for him.
First around his thighs he placed the cuirasses
Beautifully form'd, and fix'd with silver clasps,
Next the cuirass on his chest he placed,
Then around his shoulders he threw the baldric
of his sword studded with silver knobs
And brass; and then his shield, large and broad,
He took, whose refulgence spread far and wide
like that of the moon,
As when from the sea, there shines to mariners
a beam
Of flaming fire, which blazed aloft from the
mountains,
In a shepherd's solitude: them reluctant, the
tempests
Bear far away from their friends over the fishy
sea:
In like manner the gleam mounted heavenward
from Achilles' shield
Beautiful, Dædalæan. His mighty helmet up-
lifting
On his head he placed; like a star, shone
The horsehair-crested helmet: there waved
around him the hair
Of gold, with which in great abundance Vulcan
had surrounded the crest.
The godlike Achilles essayed himself in his
armor,
Whether it might fit him, and if his fair limbs
should move easily:
To him it was like wings, and buoyed up the
Shepherd of the people.
From the sheath his paternal spear he drew,
Ponderous, huge, strong: which none other of
the Greeks was able
To brandish, and which Achilles alone knew how
to rear,
—That ashen spear of Peleus which Chiron had
hewed for his father
From the summit of Pelion,—to be death to
heroes!"

Achilles proved himself no wavering or weak partisan. His presence was a host, but he also sailed with fifty ships well manned, and destroyed twelve island cities, and eleven on the main-land. Minerva and Juno aided him. Agamemnon, whom the Greeks had chosen their leader, having taken prisoner

Chryseis, daughter of Chryses, priest of Apollo, was forced to restore the maid to avert from the Greeks the plague which Apollo, moved by the prayers of his aged worshiper, sent upon them. Agamemnon offended Achilles by taking from him his beautiful captive, Briseis, daughter of Brises, and wife of Mines, king of Lyrnessus. Enraged at his loss, the formidable warrior retired from the field, permitting the Trojan Hector to carry terror and slaughter through the ranks of the Greeks. He, however, suffered his friend Patroclus to assume his arms, and take the field at the head of his own warriors; but this hero soon fell beneath the arm of Hector. Burning to revenge the death of his friend, Achilles determined again to confront the Trojans. His mother brought him the splendid arms which Vulcan had forged for him, so finely described above. Again he burned with a warrior's ardor, was reconciled to Agamemnon, and, refreshed by nectar and ambrosia sent by Minerva, plunged into the heat of battle.

Achilles speedily rolled back the tide of war. He pursued the retreating Trojans into the river Xanthus, which became choked with bodies, and crimson with carnage. The river-god, resenting this sanguinary pursuit as an insult, commanded Achilles to desist, and on the refusal of the impetuous warrior, overflowed his banks, and opposed him, assisted by the waters of Simois. The west and south winds, and the aid of Vulcan, sent by Juno, chastised the assumption of the river-god and reduced him to his original limits. Achilles was only prevented from taking the city by the interference of Apollo, the protector of the Trojans. Hector confronted and fought Achilles, by whom he was slain. His body, after being attached to the chariot of the victor, and dragged round the city, was ransomed by Priam, the venerable father of the slain warrior. Achilles, falling in love with Polyxena, daughter of Priam, purchased her hand by a promise to defend Troy; but while standing at the altar with her, an arrow from the bow of Paris pierced his heel and slew him. His body was a prize for which a fierce contest arose. The Greeks sacrificed his bride upon his tomb, according to his dying request, that he might enjoy her society in the Elysian fields, the paradise of the heathen.

Alexander the Great, who venerated and imitated Homeric heroes, visited the tomb of Achilles, and crowned it, saying, "Achilles was happy in having Patroclus for a friend, and Homer for a poet."

ACHMET I., sultan of the Turks, began to reign in 1603, and died in 1617. The tranquillity of this sovereign was disturbed by insurrections, and the intrigues of a pretender to his throne. ACHMET II. was sultan of the Turks from 1691 to 1695. ACHMET III., son of Mahomet IV., was raised to the throne of the Ottoman empire, in 1705, by the revolt of the Janizaries, who deposed his brother, Mustapha II. Achmet, although he apprehended and punished the leaders of the revolt, yet availed himself of the fruits of their crime. His reign, however, was by no means passed in tranquillity, and repeated changes of the viziers marked the insecurity felt by the monarch. Achmet placed his principal reliance on the power of gold, which he sometimes used for good ends. When Charles XII. had been defeated at Pultowa, he was hospitably received at the Turkish court, where his intrigues soon kindled the flame of war between Russia and Turkey; but Achmet III. was unable to compete with Peter the Great, and the military views of his vizier were by no means clear. When the fortunes of the czar were in the hands of the Turks on the borders of the Pruth, the Muscovite purchased of the vizier permission to retreat, but surrendered Azof to the Ottomans. Against the Venetians Achmet was more successful, wresting the Morea from their grasp in a single campaign. But the imperialists, under the able conduct of Prince Eugene of Savoy, trampled on the laurels of the Turks, and humbled the pride of their sultan. Achmet, by the loss of Peterwaradin, and the taking of Belgrade and Temeswar, was forced to sign the treaty of Passarowitz. In 1718, the sultan lost Temeswar, Orsova, Belgrade, Servia, and part of Wallachia; a loss which was compensated, in the ensuing year, by his Persian successes. A revolt of the Janizaries made Achmet sultan, and a similar rebellion hurled him from the throne in 1730. The celebrated Caliph Patrona headed this revolt. Achmet went in person to seek his nephew, Mahmoud I., and, saluting him as ruler, said, "Profit by my example.

Had I always adhered to my old policy of permitting my vizier but a short stay in office, I should have ended my reign as triumphantly as I commenced it. Farewell! May your career be happier than mine! I commend to your especial care my son." He then went into the obscurity of that prison from which he had drawn his nephew. He died of apoplexy, on the 23d of June, 1736. Achmet possessed a brilliant wit, and much shrewdness, with a ready turn for public business. He loved money, and was the first to levy imposts on the Turks, but he was no less attached to science, which he patronized. He established the first printing-press at Constantinople, 1727. He was fond of pleasure, and the Turks yet cherish the recollection of those splendid festivals at Constantinople, which sprang from his luxury, and were graced by his presence. Achmet gave concerts of nightingales, numbers of those birds being inclosed in cages, delighting the court with their rare and plaintive melody.

ACRE, called also, Akka, St. Jean d'Acre, and, in the middle ages, Ptolemais, is a town on the coast of Syria. The famous Mount Carmel overlooks the city, which contains 16,000 inhabitants, and is the emporium of the cotton trade of Syria. Its harbor is good, although containing many sand-banks. Acre has been a noted scene in war. It was taken by Richard I. and other crusaders, July 12th, 1191, after a siege of two years, which cost the lives of six archbishops, twelve bishops, forty earls, five hundred barons, and three hundred thousand soldiers. It was held by the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem till 1291, when it was retaken by the Saracens. Sixty thousand Christians perished in this capture, which was also memorable for the slaughter of the nuns, who had mangled their faces to avoid the lust of the conquerors. In the siege of Acre by Bonaparte in 1799, the Turks were relieved by a British fleet under Sir Sydney Smith. Twelve assaults were repulsed between March 6th and May 27th. Baffled by the British squadron on the water and the Turks on shore, Bonaparte raised the siege. On the retreat from St. Jean d'Acre, it is said that a body of French soldiers, who were sick of the plague, were poisoned by order of Bonaparte; but this has been frequently denied. Of the kindness

of Bonaparte to his sick soldiers we have many proofs. Louis Philippe, when king of the French, having his attention called to an old veteran who had been in the army of Napoleon, rode up and shook hands with him. The old man was not flattered. "When I was sick with the plague at Jaffa," said he, bluntly, "the emperor shook hands with me; but he didn't have gloves on." The siege of St. Jean d'Acre lasted sixty-one days, and was attended with great loss to both parties. Acre was seized by Ibrahim Pacha in 1832 when Egypt revolted from Turkish rule. In 1840 it was stormed by an Anglo-Austrian fleet, given up by the Egyptians, and restored to the sultan.

ACTIUM, a promontory on the Gulf of Arta on the western coast of Greece, at the extremity of Acarnania. Here was fought

the most memorable naval battle of antiquity, since the stake was the empire of the world, Sept. 2d, B.C. 81. The leaders of the hostile forces were Marc Antony and Octavius. The latter had 80,000 infantry, 12,000 cavalry, and 260 ships of war; while Antony had 100,000 infantry, 12,000 cavalry, and 220 ships of war. The battle was hotly contested. Cleopatra, the beautiful Egyptian queen who had captivated Antony, seized with a panic, fled from the battle with her sixty galleys, the most brilliant vessels brought into action. Antony, whose energies had been prostrated by dissipation, followed his leman, and a disgraceful rout among the troops on shore completed his ruin, while the sovereignty of the world was the prize of Octavius, afterward Augustus Caesar.



RESIDENCE OF ADAMS FAMILY, QUINCY, MASS.

ADAMS, JOHN, the second president of the United States, was born October 19th (o.s.), 1735, in that part of Braintree, Mass., which has since been incorporated as the town of Quincy. He was the fourth in descent from Henry Adams, who fled from persecution in Devonshire, and settled in Massachusetts, about 1630. Another of his ancestors was John Alden, one of the pilgrim founders of

Plymouth. He received his early education in his native town, and in 1751 entered Harvard College, where he graduated in regular course four years afterward. He commenced the study of law at Worcester with Mr. James Putnam, defraying his expenses by his income as instructor in Greek and Latin. In 1758 Mr. Adams entered the office of Jeremy Gridley, attorney-general of the province,

who had previously directed the law studies of James Otis, and who, in allusion to his two talented pupils, said, "I have trained up two young eagles, who are, one day or other, to pick out my eyes." In 1759, Mr. Adams was admitted to the Suffolk bar, and commenced practice in Braintree. In 1761, he was admitted to the degree of barrister at law, and very soon afterward his father's decease put him in possession of a small landed property. In the February of this year the British cabinet enjoined the Massachusetts custom-house officers to execute their oppressive acts of trade, applying to the supreme provincial judicature for writs of assistance, a kind of general search-warrants. The applications made in consequence to the court at Salem, were resisted on the ground of their unconstitutionality. When it was determined to argue the matter by counsel in Boston, Mr. Otis was engaged to defend the rights of the Salem and Boston merchants, and, that he might do it with the more freedom, he relinquished his lucrative office of advocate-general in the court of admiralty. Mr. Adams, who took a deep interest in the affair, was present at the discussion, and thus eulogizes the orator: "Otis was a flame of fire! With a promptitude of classical allusion, a depth of research, a rapid summary of historical events and dates, a profusion of legal authorities, a prophetic glance of his eyes into futurity, and a rapid torrent of impetuous eloquence, he hurried away all before him. *American independence was then and there born.*"

In 1764, Mr. Adams married Abigail, daughter of the Rev. William Smith, of Weymouth, and grand-daughter of Col. Quincy. She was a lady of uncommon endowments and excellent education, and her patriotism and piety rendered her worthy of her husband. He had previously imbibed a prejudice against the prevailing religious opinions of New England. He was Unitarian in his predilections, and a firm believer in the Christian faith. In 1765, he published anonymously a series of articles in the *Boston Gazette*, under the title of "An Essay on Canon and Feudal Law," the object of which was to show the conspiracy between church and state to oppress the people. It was re-

printed in England and gained high commendation.

In 1766, by the advice of Mr. Gridley, he removed to Boston, where his superior talents soon won him a prosperous practice. At an earlier period of life he had turned his thoughts to politics and the condition of the harassed colonies. Soon after leaving college, he wrote a letter to a friend, dated at Worcester, Oct. 12th, 1755, which evinces so remarkable a foresight that it is fortunate it has been preserved. "Soon after the reformation, a few people came over into this new world for conscience' sake. Perhaps this apparently trivial incident may transfer the great seat of empire into America. It looks likely to me, if we can remove the turbulent Gallies, our people, according to the exactest computation, will, in another century, become more numerous than England herself. The only way to keep us from setting up for ourselves, is to disunite us. *Divide et impera.* Keep us in distinct colonies, and then some great men in each colony, desiring the monarchy of the whole, will destroy each other's influence and keep the country *in equilibrio*. Be not surprised that I am turned politician: the whole town is immersed in politics. I sit and hear, and, after being led through a maze of sage observations, I sometimes retire, and, by laying things together, form some reflections pleasing to myself. The produce of one of these reveries you have read above."

After his removal to Boston, the friends of the crown attempted to lure him by the offer of the office of advocate-general in the court of admiralty, but he refused "decidedly and peremptorily, though respectfully." He was appointed, in 1769, chairman of the committee chosen by the town of Boston to draw up instructions to their representatives to resist the unpardonable and increasing encroachments of the crown. At this time the indignation of the friends of liberty was excited by the presence of an armed force in the town, while a band of hirelings surrounded the state-house, and cannon menaced its doors. Mr. Adams displayed his sense of honor and firmness by advocating the cause of the soldiers who, when attacked by the mob, in State street, on the 5th of March, 1770, fired upon them and killed several.

Such was the excitement of the public mind that a word in defense of the British was almost sure of being punished by the loss of popularity, and yet, Adams, in company with Josiah Quincy and Mr. Blowers, scrupled not to defend the soldiers on their trial. In consequence of this, all were acquitted but two, who, being found guilty of manslaughter, were dismissed with a slight branding. But in May, 1770, Mr. Adams received a proof that he had not lost favor with his fellow-citizens, being chosen a representative of the town of Boston in the legislature. The active part which he took in resisting despotism in every shape, and espousing the cause of his countrymen in every way, brought him under the displeasure of Gov. Hutchinson, who negated the choice of Mr. Adams as councilor, in 1773. In 1774, Gov. Gage also rejected him, and he was soon chosen member of the committee employed to prepare resolutions on the Boston port-bill. That same year Gov. Gage dissolved the assembly. Before separation, Thomas Cushing, Samuel Adams, John Adams, and Robert Treat Paine had been chosen to act as delegates in the first continental congress.

Mr. Adams took his seat in Congress on the first day of the session, September 5th, 1774. He was one of the most efficient and able advocates of liberty, and his voice was decided for prompt and vigorous action. The following spring he was instrumental in putting Washington at the head of the army. He was the adviser and great supporter of the Declaration of Independence. May 6th, 1776, Mr. Adams moved a resolution, recommending the colonies "to adopt such a government as would, in the opinion of the representatives of the people, best conduce to the happiness and safety of their constituents and of America." It was not without a hard struggle that this passed on the 15th of the same month, and preluded Richard Henry Lee's daring resolution of the 7th of June following, declaring the dissolution of the connection with Great Britain. On the 4th of July, the Declaration of Independence, with but few alterations from the words of Mr. Jefferson, passed. The committee who had been chosen to prepare it was composed of Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Robert R.

Livingston. Mr. Jefferson and Mr. Adams were deputed a sub-committee to prepare the instrument, and the former did so at the instigation of the latter. The declaration did not pass without the most strenuous opposition by many members, including some leading and able men. Mr. Adams overcame all arguments offered against it, by an overwhelming torrent of splendid eloquence. In the words of Mr. Jefferson, "the great pillar of support to the Declaration of Independence, and its ablest advocate and champion on the floor of the house, was John Adams." His speech on the subject of independence is said to have been unrivaled. Mr. Webster has done honor to the style and sentiments of Mr. Adams, in alluding to his brightest effort. He tells us that he spoke right on, and that the torrent of his manly reasoning carried conviction along with it. Mr. Webster gives what we may well suppose to be a portion of Mr. Adams's speech, concluding with this powerful and patriotic language. "Sink or swim, live or die, survive or perish, I am for the declaration. Living, it is my living sentiment, and, by the blessing of God, it shall be my dying sentiment—*Independence now and independence forever!*"

On the recall of Silas Deane, who (with Dr. Franklin and Arthur Lee) was a commissioner at the court of Versailles, Mr. Adams was appointed to fill his place, Nov. 28th, 1777. Mr. Adams, embarking on board the frigate Boston, arrived safely at his place of destination, notwithstanding the efforts of an English fleet to intercept him. On his return, in the summer of 1779, being chosen member of the convention to form a plan of government for Massachusetts, he was placed upon the sub-committee whose task it was to draught the plan of a constitution. His plan was, in most of its important features, adopted by the convention. He went abroad again upon public business and visited Holland and France. The definite treaty of peace which he visited Paris to negotiate, in 1782, with Dr. Franklin, Mr. Jay, Mr. Laurens, and Mr. Jefferson for colleagues, was ratified, Jan. 14th, 1784. The next year Mr. Adams was appointed the first minister to London, an office at that time peculiarly delicate and interesting. His reception by George III. was favorable and courteous, but the cabinet were

cold and unfriendly, and Mr. Adams was unable to negotiate a commercial treaty. Having assisted in forming treaties with Prussia and Morocco, he resigned, and in June, 1788, arrived in his native land after an absence of nearly nine years. That fall he was chosen vice-president, the first elected under the new constitution, and was re-elected in 1792. On the resignation of Washington, Mr. Adams was chosen president, entering upon office March 4th, 1797. The administration of Mr. Adams though at first popular, was strongly opposed toward its close. At the expiration of his term he was the candidate of the Federal party for re-election. He was defeated, and was succeeded by Mr. Jefferson, his warm personal friend and decided political adversary.

After Mr. Adams's retirement from public life, he occupied himself with literary and agricultural pursuits at his seat at Quincy, and with the exception of severe afflictions, the loss of his wife in 1818, and the death of his only daughter in 1813, his days glided calmly away until the 4th of July, 1826. On that day he died, with the sentiment upon his lips which he had uttered with such force fifty years before upon the floor of Congress—*independence forever!* On the morning of that eventful day, the peals of the bells and the report of cannon awakened him. He was asked if he knew what day it was. "Oh! yes," he replied, "it is the glorious Fourth of July: God bless it, God bless you all!" In the course of the day, he said, "It is a great and glorious day!" Before his death, he said, "Jefferson survives." He was mistaken. On that very day, an hour after noon, Jefferson breathed his last.

The services of John Adams to the cause of independence were unsurpassed. They were not so readily appreciated by the people, as exploits in the field, and though he was of great worth in the public councils, others may have outshone him there. But he was an indefatigable man of business, lofty in his patriotism and honest in his devotion to what he considered the true interests of the country. He has been called the Great Leader of the American Revolution.

ADAMS, JOHN QUINCY (sixth president of the United States, and the son of John Adams, the second president), was born at

Braintree, July 11th, 1767. The boy was cradled and bred amid the most ardent patriotism, and when but a lad of nine years, heard the first reading of the Declaration of Independence from the old state-house in Boston. His father took him abroad, and he studied at the public school of Amsterdam and the university of Leyden. In 1781, Francis Dana, of Massachusetts, who had been designated as minister to Russia, selected young Adams as his private secretary. In the winter of 1782-3 he returned to Holland, and till May, 1785, he was chiefly with his father in England, Holland, and France. It was at this time, that he became acquainted with Mr. Jefferson, who was his father's intimate friend and then minister at Paris. He was now a youth of eighteen. His life had been one of unusual wandering and changes. His studies had been interrupted and irregular. When his father, in 1785, was appointed minister to England, he obtained permission to return to America, studied at Harvard College, and graduated in 1787. After preparatory law studies under Theophilus Parsons at Newburyport, he began practice at Boston. His essays and speculations on the politics and public questions of the day attracted attention, and won him high reputation as a statesman and political thinker. They drew upon him the notice, and gained him the confidence, of Washington, to whom he had been warmly recommended by Jefferson; and in 1794 he was honored with the mission to the Netherlands, where he remained for two years. His father was then vice-president, but the appointment was made by Washington without any intimation to him. Toward the close of the administration, Washington made Mr. Adams minister to Portugal. On his way from the Hague to Lisbon he received a new commission, changing his destination to the Prussian court. This transfer to Berlin was made by his father, who had succeeded Washington in the presidency. Fearful that the change might be imputed to paternal partiality, the senior Adams had consulted his predecessor, and had received the following letter.

"MONDAY, February 20, 1797.

"DEAR SIR: I thank you for giving me a perusal of the enclosed. The sentiments do

honor to the head and heart of the writer; and if my wishes would be of any avail, they should go to you in a strong hope that you will not withhold merited promotion from John Q. Adams because he is your son. For, without intending to compliment the father or the mother, or to censure any others, I give it as my decided opinion, that Mr. Adams is the most valuable public character we have abroad; and that there remains no doubt in my mind, that he will prove himself to be the ablest of all our diplomatic corps. If he was now to be brought into that line, or into any other public walk, I could not, upon the principle which has regulated my own conduct, disapprove of the caution which is hinted at in the letter. But he is already entered; the public, more and more, as he is known, are appreciating his talents and worth; and his country would sustain a loss, if these were to be checked by over-delicacy on your part.

"With sincere esteem and affectionate regard,

"I am ever yours,

"GEORGE WASHINGTON."

Mr. Adams was recalled by his father in 1801, and after serving in the state senate, was chosen United States senator in 1803. He pursued an independent course in the senate, and for supporting the embargo recommended by Jefferson, was censured in 1808, by the Federalist legislature of his state. Not choosing to represent constituents whose confidence he had lost, he resigned his seat. Soon after Mr. Madison sent him to Russia, the first minister from the United States to that country. Through his influence the Emperor Alexander offered himself as a mediator to conclude the difficulties between Great Britain and our country; and although the proffer was declined by the British, it led them to an offer to treat directly, which resulted in peace. Mr. Adams was therefore fitly put at the head of the American commission by which the treaty of Ghent was negotiated. His colleagues were, James H. Bayard, of Delaware, Henry Clay, of Kentucky, Jonathan Russell, of Rhode Island, and Albert Gallatin, of Pennsylvania. In the counsels and labors of the important conference, Mr. Adams bore his full part. With Messrs. Clay and Gallatin he was afterward

employed in adjusting a commercial convention with Great Britain, and in February, 1815, he was appointed minister to the British court. Mr. Monroe recalled him in 1817 to take the post of secretary of state in his cabinet. During the eight years of Mr. Monroe's administration, Mr. Adams continued at the head of that department, and his experience abroad was of great service in directing the foreign policy of the government. With Mr. Clay he was instrumental in obtaining the recognition of the independence of the South American republics. Long standing difficulties with Spain were also honorably and successfully closed under his direction, and the important acquisition of Florida was made.

At the close of Mr. Monroe's second term, Mr. Adams was a prominent candidate for the succession, and of many who preferred Jackson, or Clay, or Crawford, he was the second choice. When the votes of the electoral college were counted, it was found that Mr. Calhoun had been elected vice-president, while for president there was no choice. General Jackson had received ninety-nine votes, Mr. Adams eighty-four, Mr. Crawford forty-one, and Mr. Clay thirty-seven. The choice of president from the three leading candidates, accordingly devolved upon the house of representatives. The friends of Mr. Clay in that body voted for Mr. Adams, and his election was effected on the first ballot. He received the votes of thirteen states, General Jackson seven states, and Mr. Crawford four states. The Crawford men and Jackson men combined in opposition to the administration, and although Mr. Adams's course was not partisan, but conciliatory to his opponents, his efforts to conduct the public affairs with integrity and usefulness could not turn the flood of popular opinion that set steadily against him; and in 1828, General Jackson was elected president by a large majority over him. Mr. Adams retired to private life at Quincy, esteemed by his political friends and respected by his opponents. But his neighbors and friends were not willing that the country should have no more the benefit of his services, and they elected him to represent the district in Congress. In December, 1831, being then in the sixty-fifth year of his age, and already forty years in active public ser-

vice, he took his seat in the house of representatives, a member of which he continued till his death, more than sixteen years after.

In this position he maintained the stand to which his distinguished services and experience, no less than his eminent talents, well entitled him. At the opening of the twenty-sixth congress, a singular scene was exhibited in the house of representatives. Eight seats were contested, and the clerk of the last house, upon whom it fell to preside till a speaker should be chosen, in calling the roll of members elect, refused to call the gentlemen holding certificates for the contested seats. An angry and discordant debate, amid confusion and disorder, ensued for three days, and on the fourth there was little better than anarchy. The clerk persisted in his contumacy, no speaker could be chosen, and the mode of extrication could not be discerned. At this point Mr. Adams rose. The tumult hushed. After a short, pointed speech, aimed at the impudence of the acting clerk, he submitted a motion that that official should at once proceed with the call of the roll in due and usual order. The clerk, as he had previously done, refused to entertain the motion. "How shall the question be put?" anxiously cried several voices. "I intend to put it myself!" replied Mr. Adams. This restored order. Richard Barnwell Rhett, of South Carolina, sprang to the floor and loudly moved that John Quincy Adams should take the speaker's chair until the house should be constitutionally organized; put the question himself, and declared it carried. Mr. Adams presided several days, till Mr. Hunter, of Virginia, was chosen speaker.

A striking feature of Mr. Adams's congressional career, was the earnestness and firmness with which he adhered to the right of the people to petition Congress, and to be heard through their representatives, on any subject whatsoever. He took an active part in debate, on nearly every topic of public interest, and his speeches were marked with a fervor that won him the name of "The Old Man Eloquent." Like Lord Chatham, he died at his post. The 22d of February, 1848, he was stricken by paralysis in his seat, was borne to the speaker's room, and there died the next day, being in his eighty-first year of age. His last words were, "This is the last of

earth." A committee from Congress accompanied his remains to the family's place of burial at Quincy, and solemn honors were paid to his memory in the towns and cities through which the corpse was borne.

Mr. Adams was of middle stature and full person, his eyes dark and beaming, and piercing with intelligence. He always led an active life, and enjoyed good health to an advanced age, the fruit, no doubt, of his early rising and bodily exercise. His mind was highly cultivated, and he was considered one of the most accomplished among American scholars and statesmen. In May, 1797, he was married to Louisa Catherine, daughter of Joshua Johnson, Esq., of Maryland, who then resided in London. By this lady who survived him, he had three sons and one daughter. Only one child, Charles Francis, survived him.

ADAMS, SAMUEL, a distinguished patriot in our revolution, born in Boston, Sept. 27th, 1722, was descended from a family which had been among the earliest settlers in New England. Mr. Adams graduated at Harvard, with the usual academical honors, in 1740. On taking the degree of master of arts he discussed the question, "Whether it be lawful to resist the supreme magistrate, if the commonwealth can not be otherwise preserved?" and maintained the affirmative with great ability. He commenced the study of divinity, but found his attention completely absorbed by politics, which then excited an universal interest. His vigorous support of republican principles soon endeared him to the patriotic party, who placed him in the legislature in 1766. Thenceforward he distinguished himself as one of the most active, able, and uncompromising advocates of independence. He was on every committee, his hand was employed upon every report, and his voice heard upon every subject, involving opposition to the tyrannical measures of the colonial government. The enemies of America heard that Mr. Adams was poor, and those among them who believed in the omnipotence of British gold, asked why this demagogue was not silenced by a bribe. Governor Hutchinson answered, "Such is the obstinacy and inflexible disposition of the man, that he can never be conciliated by any office or gift whatever." In 1774, he was sent to the first con-

gress of the old confederation. He was one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence in 1776. He was active in the convention which formed the constitution of Massachusetts, was placed in the senate of the state, presided for several years over that body, and was elected lieutenant-governor in 1789. In 1794, at the death of Hancock, he was chosen governor, and was yearly re-elected until 1797. His retirement from public life took place in that year; and, on October 2d, 1803, he expired at his house in Winter street, Boston, in the eighty-second year of his age.

Mr. Adams foresaw the course which the colonies were obliged to take from the beginning. He was aware that, upon the side of the British, there would be no concessions, no retractions; that they entertained a contemptuous opinion of the force and spirit of the colonies, and would abide by their own measures. He received warning at Lexington, on the night of the 18th of April, of the intended British expedition, which turned out so disastrously for them, and prepared to make his escape at dawn across the fields. Turning to the friends who accompanied him, he exclaimed, "This is a fine day!" His remark was thought to allude to the weather, and one of his companions answered, "It is really a pleasant day." "I mean," said he, his eye lighting up, as he spoke, "I mean, this is a glorious day for my country!" There was a certain narrowness and sternness in the political and religious opinions of Samuel Adams. He was a strict Calvinist, and regarded with no favor opinions at variance with those of his sect. He was firmly attached to habits and principles in which he had been bred, and too fond of making important measures conform to a certain code of his own. He undervalued the services of Washington during the war, thinking him too slow and cautious, and being impatient for some decisive stroke, which the commander-in-chief would not have failed to strike whenever the opportunity occurred. After the war was happily concluded, and there could be but one opinion of the services of Washington, Mr. Adams feared for his country, when the man who had led her through the perils of the armed struggle was made her chief magistrate. He feared the popularity of Wash-

ington; but his was the error of judgment. No unprejudiced man who had regarded the previous course of the Father of his country, could fear that he could prove either a Cæsar or a Cromwell. Mr. Adams possessed those manly virtues which eminently fitted him for a revolutionary epoch, and when the cloud hung darkest over his country, his character and resources appeared most strikingly. Of an austere and unyielding mind, he was yet dignified and courteous to a high degree. He was never shackled by pecuniary considerations, and would have died in poverty, had not the death of an only son supplied his wants, while it grieved him to the soul. A colleague of Mr. Adams thus described him in good-humored caricature: "Samuel Adams would have the state of Massachusetts govern the Union, the town of Boston govern Massachusetts, and that he should govern the town of Boston, and then the whole would not be intentionally ill-governed."

ADDISON, JOSEPH, an author of celebrity, was the son of a clergyman, and was born at Milston, Wiltshire, in 1672. He was educated at the Charter-House in London, and at Oxford, where he distinguished himself by his Latin poetry. Having obtained a pension, he set out on his travels, remaining abroad two years. Of his "Travels," which he published on his return, Dr. Johnson said, that "they might have been written at home." In 1704, a poem on the victory of Blenheim procured him the office of commissioner of appeals. In 1796 he was chosen under-secretary of state, and in 1709 went to Ireland as Lord Wharton's secretary, at the same time deriving an income of £300 a year from his appointment of keeper of the Irish records. The "Tatler," "Spectator," and "Guardian," periodical papers commenced by Steele, owed their celebrity in a good degree to the essays of Addison. In these papers, which were read with avidity by all classes, Addison displayed that chaste humor, refined observation, and worldly knowledge, that poetical imagination, deep vein of feeling, and purity of style, which make his prose a model in our language. The success of his tragedy of "Cato," produced in 1713, was owing less to the merits of the piece (which is better adapted to private perusal than public exhibition), than to the high state of party feeling; anything

liberal in tone being warmly supported by the Whigs.

The pen of Addison was devoted to political subjects for a long time, and he was employed a second time as secretary to the viceroy of Ireland, and afterward was appointed one of the lords of trade. Having fixed his affections on the dowager Countess of Warwick, he obtained her hand with difficulty, and was married in 1716. The union, however, was anything but happy. The lady awarded him the "heraldry of hands, not hearts," treated him with contempt, and made his fireside so uncomfortable that he often forsook it for a tavern. In 1717 he was appointed secretary of state, but finding himself incapable of filling the office with honor, he retired with a pension of £1,500. He wanted the physical boldness and ready resources of an effective public speaker, and was unable to defend his measures in parliament. He is also said to have been slow and fastidious in the quieter duties of office. When he was under-secretary, it fell to him to send word to Hanover of the death of Queen Anne. The critical nicety of the author so distracted him in the choice of expressions, that the task was abandoned to a clerk, who boasted of having done what was too hard for Addison. In retirement he engaged himself in writing a work on "The Evidences of the Christian Religion," which he did not live to complete. Throughout his life he was a sincere Christian. He died in 1719, and on his death-bed he sent for Lord Warwick, a youth of dissolute habits, and said to him: "I have sent for you, young man, to show you with what calmness a Christian can die."

The temper of Addison was jealous and taciturn, until cheered by wine. "I have never seen a more modest or more awkward man," was the remark of Lord Chesterfield, one of the best judges and most accurate observers of manners that ever lived. Button's coffee-house was the favorite resort of Addison and contemporary wits in London.

ADRIAN, or HADRIAN, PUBLIUS ÆLIUS, the fifteenth emperor of Rome, was born A.D. 76, and brought up under the eye of Trajan, his father's kinsman, who adopted him as his son, and to whom he succeeded, 117. He was a successful soldier, and a great

lover of literature and the arts, but disgraced by the indulgence of sensuality. In the course of his reign he visited nearly every part of his dominions, and when in Britain, 120, built a wall eighty miles in length, from the mouth of the Tyne to Solway Frith, to prevent the incursions of the Caledonians. He was the restorer of Jerusalem, which he named Ælia Capitolina, and on Mount Calvary he erected a temple to Jupiter; died 138.

Six popes have also borne the name of Adrian.

ADRIATIC SEA, or Gulf of Venice, washes the shores of Italy, Illyria, Dalmatia, and Albania. It is about 480 miles long, and generally 130 broad. Venice claimed the exclusive sovereignty of this sea. The ceremony of the Doge of Venice wedding the Adriatic was instituted in 1173. Annually, upon Ascension day, the doge dropped a ring into its waves from his bucentaur or state barge. On these occasions he was attended by all the Venetian nobles and the foreign ambassadors in gondolas. The ceremony was intermitted, for the first time in centuries, in 1797.

ÆGINA, an island thirty miles in circumference, between the coasts of Attica and the Peloponnesus, formerly independent, populous, wealthy, and famed for the commercial spirit of its inhabitants. Its capital bore the same name.

ÆLFRIC, a brave and talented Archbishop of Canterbury, who lived in the tenth century. He translated the historical books of the Old Testament, and distinguished himself for his resistance to the Danes. His death took place in 1005.

ÆMILIUS PAULUS, a brave and noble Roman, father of Scipio Africanus the Younger. He defeated Perseus, king of Macedon, and celebrated his success by a triumph, B.C. 168, which was rendered memorable by the death of his two sons, and the heroic fortitude with which he bore their loss, thanking the gods that they were chosen for victims, so that the Roman people might be shielded from calamity.

ÆNEAS, a Trojan prince, the hero of the "Æneid" of Virgil, who represents him as the son of Anchises and the goddess Venus. The former he bore in safety, from the flames of Troy, which he had defended until valor

was of no avail. He retired to Mount Ida, where he built a fleet, and sailed in quest of a settlement. He is said to have been contemporary with Dido, and, after plighting his faith to the Carthaginian queen, to have left her a prey to pangs so poignant as to deprive her of judgment, in which state she threw herself upon a funeral pile and was burned alive. This, however, is a poetical anachronism. Æneas, after various adventures, and great sufferings, landed on the coast of Latium, in Italy, where he was hospitably received by king Latinus, who bestowed upon the stranger the hand of his daughter Lavinia. This gift involved Æneas in a war with Turnus, a disappointed rival, who was signally defeated by the son of Venus. The history of Æneas is wholly traditional.

ÆOLIANS, a Thessalian tribe, who established several small states in Greece, while a portion settled Æolis, in Asia Minor, in the ancient Troad. They united themselves in a confederacy, and were free while they preserved it. The name Æolic is applied to a dialect of the Greek language, very nearly resembling the Doric.

ÆSCHINES, an Athenian orator, the rival of Demosthenes, born 393, died 323 B.C. He at first led a life of wandering poverty, but became an actor, a pupil of Plato and Socrates, and attained some distinction. Having lost the favor of the people, he fled to Samos and Rhodes, where he taught rhetoric until his death. Another **ÆSCHINES**, a philosopher, was a poor disciple of Socrates.

ÆSCHYLUS, a celebrated Greek dramatic writer, was born of a noble family at Eleusis in Attica, B.C. 525, and died at Gela in Sicily, B.C. 456. At the age of twenty-five, B.C. 499, he first presented himself at the festival of Bacchus as a competitor for the public prize, and fifteen years afterward, B.C. 484, gained his first victory. The pre-eminence which he thus acquired was successfully maintained till B.C. 468, when he was defeated in a similar contest by his younger rival, Sophocles. Mortified at the indignity he thought thus put upon him, he quitted Athens and went to the court of Hiero, king of Syracuse. Of the remaining portion of his life but little is known, except that he continued to prosecute his favorite pursuit; and that his residence in Sicily was of some dura-

tion, may be inferred from the fact that it was sufficient to affect the purity of his language. His thirteenth and last victory was gained B.C. 458. On the manner of his death, which was singular, the ancient writers are unanimous. While sitting motionless in the fields, his bald head was mistaken for a stone by an eagle which happened to be flying over him with a tortoise in her bill. The bird dropped the tortoise to break the shell, and the poet was killed by the blow. Æschylus is said to have been the author of seventy tragedies, of which only seven are now extant. The improvements which he introduced in the economy of the drama, were so important as to gain for him the distinction of the Father of Greek Tragedy. To the single actor of Thespis he added a second, and thus presented the regular dialogue. He abridged the length of the choral odes and made them subservient to the main interest of the plot; substituted a regular stage for the movable wain of his predecessor; provided appropriate scenic decorations, and dresses for the actors; and removed all deeds of murder and bloodshed from public view. His style is bold, lofty, and sublime, full of gorgeous imagery and magnificent expressions, suitable to the elevated characters of his dramas. His plays have little or no plot; and have therefore been blamed as deficient in dramatic interest. But Æschylus was illustrious not merely as a poet. Along with his brother Cynægius he distinguished himself so highly in the battle of Marathon, B.C. 490, that his exploits were commemorated by a descriptive painting in the theater of Athens; and it is probable that he took part in the subsequent battles of Artemisium, Salamis and Plataea.

ÆSCULAPIUS, believed to have been the inventor of medicine, and worshiped as a divinity in many cities of Greece. He is generally represented with a long beard, and grasping in one hand a staff entwined by a serpent, the emblem of convalescence, the other hand supported by a serpent. Sometimes he was denoted by a serpent only. He was believed to be the son of Apollo.

ÆSOP, whose fables have been so celebrated, was born in Phrygia, a country of Asia Minor, about the fifty-second Olympiad, the first year of which corresponds with 572 B.C. The age in which he lived is noted in Grecian

history as that in which Solon, the famous lawgiver, flourished. In his youth Æsop was a slave. Among the Greeks the condition of the slaves was abject and pitiable indeed; the Spartans, in particular, regarding them in the light of brute beasts, whom it was allowable to kill upon the least provocation, and even without the slightest offense. It does not, however, appear that Æsop experienced any great severity of treatment. His first master was one Dinarchus, who resided at Athens. Æsop passed into the hands of Xanthus of Samos, who afterward sold him to Iadmon of the same place. There were no fewer than three islands to which the ancients gave the name of Samos. That of which we speak was situated off the coast of Ionia. It was supposed to have been the birthplace of the goddess Juno, to whom a magnificent temple was erected, no remains of which have escaped the ravages of time. The fertility of the island, and the salubrity of its climate, gained it universal admiration, and made its possession an object of great importance. It was formerly not so much noted for its wine as it is at present, the Samian wine being considered by the moderns as equal to that of Cyprus, while it was very much underrated by the ancients.

After he had obtained his freedom, Æsop distinguished himself by his art of inculcating useful truths under the cloak of fiction. This invention is attributed to him, and Phædrus acknowledges this in his own fables. "The words," says the latter, "are mine, but the invention belongs to Æsop." It is, however, probable that fables originated with the oriental nations, from whom Æsop borrowed them.

Croesus, king of Lydia, whose wealth was so immense, hearing of the fame of Æsop, invited him to his court. It has been said that the personal appearance of Æsop was far from being prepossessing; that he was of small size and dreadfully deformed; that Croesus was at first disgusted at beholding a figure so entirely at variance with his preconceived ideas of the man; and that Æsop speaking of his own deformity, said, "It is not the exterior of the vase that we should regard, but the quality of the wine which it contains." The conduct of Æsop and Solon, both of whom were at the same time at the

court of Croesus, exhibited a marked contrast. The fabulist played well the part of an accomplished courtier, but the stern lawgiver rigidly adhered to the truth in all he said. Solon having displeased the monarch by the independent tone which he assumed, Æsop said to him, "You should never speak to kings, or only tell them what will flatter them." "Not so," said Solon; "we must never speak to kings, or only tell them useful truths."

Æsop had lived too long in slavery not to have acquired habits of submission and deference toward those whom circumstances made his superiors. He found no difficulty in winning the entire confidence of Croesus. The latter, wishing to consult the oracle of Delphi with regard to Cyrus, who menaced him with ruin, sent Æsop with instructions to offer up sacrifices to the deity in the name of the king of Lydia, and to present to each inhabitant of Delphi a considerable sum of money. Æsop came to Delphi, and offered up his sacrifices, but having quarreled with the Delphians, he sent away the money which the Lydian monarch had intended for them, and declared that they were unworthy of such benefactions. The cause of this quarrel is not exactly known, but perhaps the natural shrewdness and intelligence of Æsop enabled him to make a discovery of the artifices employed to deceive those who referred to the oracle for instruction, and his indignation impelled him to reproach the priests with their imposition. The Delphians, enraged at the conduct of the bold stranger, and fearing that, if permitted to depart, he might reveal enough to destroy their character and hopes forever, determined, if possible, to effect his ruin. To accomplish their purposes, they hid a golden cup which had been consecrated to Apollo, among his effects, and then charged him with having stolen it. He indignantly denied the charge. His enemies were inexorable; a search was made, and the golden cup having been found in his possession, he was condemned to death, and, pursuant to his unjust sentence, hurled from the summit of a high rock. Soon after this bloody deed, heavy calamities fell upon the Delphians, which they did not fail to attribute to the indignation of the gods, aroused at their inhuman conduct. Various methods were resort-

ed to in order to appease the just indignation of their deities. At length they offered to make restitution to the descendants of Æsop, if any such existed. Æsop, however, was a solitary being, the last of his race. But a relation of Iadmon, his last master, came forward, claimed, and received, the proffered indemnity.

The authorship of the fables attributed to Æsop has been a source of much dispute among different writers. It is thought that many of the fables which have descended to us with his name were not of his invention. The fables of Æsop attained a very great celebrity in Greece. Æsop was peculiarly happy in the application of his fables. Having visited Athens soon after Pisistratus had usurped the authority, and found the Athenians shrinking beneath the yoke which had been imposed upon them, he related to them the following fable. "Once upon a time, the frogs, thinking it a fine thing to have a ruler, petitioned Jupiter to give them a king. Yielding to their wishes, he threw down a huge log, from which they at first fled in dismay. But finding it quiet and harmless, they at length ventured to approach, and soon after grew weary of its inaction, and complained bitterly to Jupiter of their stupid ruler, desiring one more active. Indignant at their querulous cries, Jupiter sent down a stork, whose activity made up for the long sloth of the log; in fact, he was never idle, but darting here and there, preyed upon his subjects with restless ferocity, until the remnant of the frogs groaned to be restored to their former liberty." The moral of this fable was apparent to the meanest understanding. The Athenians honored the memory of Æsop, by erecting a fine statue, executed by Lysippus, to the man who was once a slave. Its design was to show that the road to fame was open to all, and that, with perseverance and mental power, a man requires few external advantages, to succeed in what he undertakes. The life of Æsop was checkered with light and shade: perhaps the latter predominated, for, in allusion to the misfortunes of humanity, he was wont to say that "Prometheus formed man of clay, and tempered it with tears." His death took place about the year 531 B.C.

ÆTIUS, the brave general of Valentinian

III., who repulsed Attila, and was stabbed by his suspicious master in 454.

ÆTNA, the greatest volcano in Europe, is on the north-eastern coast of Sicily, and now called Mongibello. Its elevation above the surface of the sea is 10,784 feet. Towns and villages are scattered on its sides. It exhibits three distinct climates, the hot, temperate, and frigid; and three distinct regions, the fertile, woody, and barren. It measures ninety miles round the base, and its crater forms a circle of three or four miles in circumference. The crater's shape and size are liable to constant change from the eruptions. The summit is enveloped in smoke and snow at the same time, while the sides of the mountain present a rich prospect of cultivated fields and smiling vineyards. The mountain furnishes snow and ice to Sicily and Malta, and thus yields quite an income to the Bishop of Catania, the exclusive proprietor of the trade. A chestnut-tree, wonderful for its gigantic size, stands upon the side of Mount Ætna. It is known by the name of the Castagno de Cento Cavilli, because it is said to be capable of sheltering a hundred horses beneath its boughs. It still bears rich foliage and much small fruit, though the heart of the trunk is decayed, and a road leads through it wide enough for two coaches abreast.

Here were the fabled forges of the Cyclops. Diodorus Siculus mentions an eruption as having happened 1693 B.C. Thucydides speaks of three eruptions, occurring 734, 477 and 425 B.C. To the second of these, both Æschylus and Pindar allude. The awful eruption of 1169 overwhelmed Catania, and fifteen thousand persons perished among the burning ruins. There were destructive eruptions in 1329, 1408, 1444, 1536, 1537, 1564. In that of 1669, tens of thousands lost their lives in the streams of lava that flooded the land. The hot flood reached the walls of Catania, which had been raised to save the town, swelled over the barrier, and fell in a fiery cascade. The wall was not thrown down, and the solid lava may still be seen, curling over the rampart like a torrent in the act of falling. There were eruptions in 1766, 1787, 1809, 1811, and in May, 1830, when several villages were destroyed and showers of lava reached near to Rome. By the violent outbreak of November, 1832, Bronte, a town of



GREAT CHESTNUT-TREE OF MOUNT ÆTNA.

13,000 inhabitants was destroyed. A violent eruption occurred in August and September, 1852.

ÆTOLIA, a country of antiquity, in the middle of Greece, whose boundaries varied greatly from time to time. It was strong, but unfruitful, and the inhabitants illiberal, given to plunder and avaricious. Divided into small tribes, they were proud of their independence, and ardent lovers of freedom. After the ruin of Athens and Sparta, they attained an eminence which they had not before possessed, and ranked with the Macedonians and Achæians as a leading power in Greece. As allies of the Romans, they rendered themselves formidable, and were no less so when they forsook the former for the Macedonians. They were conquered by Fulvius. In war, their fine cavalry was famed for the fierce impetus of its attacks. Their commonwealth was much like that of Achæia.

AFGHANISTAN, in Asia, has an area somewhat larger than that of France. To the north of it is Turkistan, to the east the Punjaub, to the south Beloochistan, and on the west Persia. Beloochistan is properly a part of Afghanistan, but is at present politically separated from it. Afghanistan is an elevated table-land, the eastern base of which is washed by the Indus. The mountain range of Hindoo-Coosh on the north, rises to eighteen and twenty thousand feet, and may be considered as an offshoot of the Himalaya chain. The valleys are fertile. The snow on the mountains feeds numerous streams, but there are no navigable rivers. The population is estimated at 14,000,000, inclusive of Beloochistan. The large towns, such as Cabul, Candahar, Ghuznee, Jellalabad, and Herat, are inhabited chiefly by Persians and Hindoos; an Afghan never keeps a shop or labors at a trade. The only Afghans found

in the towns are officers of government, and their followers, with soldiers and priests. The Afghans, who number little more than a third of the people, are of moderate stature, remarkably hardy and athletic. Their high cheek-bones and prominent noses distinguish them essentially from the Tartars. Their manners are frank and open. Little respect is paid to rank, but great reverence is shown for old age. They are sociable, and like singing, dancing, and music. Of games of chance or skill they are fond. In long genealogies they feel pride, scarcely allowing a man to be a genuine Afghan, if he can not prove six descents. Hospitality is a point of honor. A man may travel without money from one end of the country to the other, and the bitterest enemy is safe if he claims the protection of hospitality. They have, however, more of such honor than conscience, and robberies are frequent in the more remote districts. Social intercourse with women is less restrained than among other Mohammedans. Women are generally well treated, not being permitted to engage promiscuously in the labors of the men, but being employed in domestic avocations. Wives, are, however, regarded as property, being invariably purchased, and those of the upper classes live in total seclusion, though their privacy is luxurious, and their style of life magnificent. Want of feeling is not in general a fault of the Afghans, and the females are frequently regarded with a tenderness and devotion worthy of the chivalric age. Many a young Afghan, in consequence of passionate attachment to some young woman to whom his plighted faith belongs, resolutely bids a farewell to home, and labors for a long time in a distant place, until he procures sufficient money to buy her from her father. Instances of cruelty to women are of infrequent occurrence. The Afghans are not insensible to the advantages of education, and are rather liberal in their allotments of land for the support of public teachers, who are also ministers of religion. They are an imaginative people, and take delight in those wild narratives which it is the sport and province of oriental imaginations to create. The spirited lyrics of their poets breathe a strong love for liberty.

The Afghans are divided into tribes, almost independent in their government. Their re-

publican spirit has saved them from sinking into the common oriental despotism. The Duranees and the Ghiljies are the leading tribes. The tribes are subdivided into clans, often at feud with one another. To an English traveler, who expatiated on the freedom from alarm, blood, and discord, that a steadier government would give, this reply was made: "We are content with discord, we are content with alarms, we are content with blood, but we will never be content with a master." There are three independent political states, Cabul, Candahar, and Herat, the chiefs of which have but a limited authority.

Afghanistan was known to the Greeks as Ariana. As part of the Persian empire, it passed under the dominion of Alexander the Great. The origin of the Afghan race and the date of its settlement in the land are uncertain. They have a tradition that they are the descendants of Afghan, the son of Irmia, or Berkia, son of Saul, king of Israel; and their histories begin with narrating the transactions of the Jews, from Abraham down to the captivity. Various tides of conquest, Scythian, Arab, Tartar, and Mogul, have swept over the land. Ahmed Khan established its independence of Persia in 1747, and founded the Duranee dynasty. In the early part of this century the sway was disputed by various rivals. In 1838 the British espoused the cause of Shah Soojah against Dost Mahomed. Candahar, Ghuznee, and Cabul were taken; Shah Soojah was put on the throne; the conquest was considered complete; and the main body of the British army returned to India. The next year insurrections broke out and grew more and more troublous. In September, 1841, the neighborhood of Cabul swarmed with predatory bands. On the 2d of November, the house of Sir Alexander Burnes, one of the British envoys at Cabul, was fired, and he and every man, woman, and child on the premises, murdered. The British officers seemed to be stupefied. General Elphinstone held the chief command, but was in such a state of nervous weakness from ill health as to be utterly incapable of acting with the energy necessary for such an emergency. The Afghans grew bolder; the British became more confused and indecisive. The 23d of December, Sir William MacNaghten, the other envoy, was

murdered by Akbar Khan, (son of Dost Mahomed), who had invited him to a conference. Three days later the despairing Europeans agreed to yield all but six guns, to relinquish all the treasure, to leave four officers as hostages, and to pay forty thousand rupees, in bills drawn upon India, but negotiated on the spot by Hindoo bankers, for a safe escort to Peshawur. Akbar Khan undertook to conduct them in safety to Jellalabad. The disastrous retreat from Cabul was commenced on the 6th of January, 1842. The British force was estimated at forty-five hundred soldiers, twelve thousand men of camp-followers, besides a great number of women and children. Massacre began at once. The cold was intense; the attacks of the Afghans were incessant; the fugitives were almost without food; only a handful escaped; twenty-six thousand individuals were destroyed. This terrible reverse aroused the British to great effort; victories were gained, and before the close of 1842 the war was at an end, and the British army withdrawn. Shah Soojah had been assassinated, and Dost Mahomed regained the sovereignty.

AFRICA formed a third part of the world, known to the ancients. They gave it the name of Libya, and divided it into Africa Propria and Africa Interior. The former of these, or the territory of Carthage, included several countries inhabited by twenty-six different nations, comprehending two provinces, the *Regio Zeugitana* and *Byzacium*, corresponding with the kingdom of Tunis. Ham and his descendants are thought to have first peopled Africa. Egypt was peopled by Mizraim. Africa Interior included the distant portions of Africa little known to the ancients, whose knowledge did not extend much beyond the tropic of Cancer, the limit of both their victories and researches. Those parts of Africa which they did not visit, their fertile fancies peopled with various races of men endowed with strange attributes; and singular tales, thus originating, have been handed down even to modern times. Thus we hear of nations of curious dwarfs, of men who dwelt in trees like monkeys, of races forming a connecting link between man and the brutes, and tribes whose history has been invented by wild imaginations in their wildest flights. Herodotus states that Africa is surrounded

with water except at the narrow neck of Suez. He reports its circumnavigation by Phœnician mariners between the years 610 and 594 B.C. "Necho, king of Egypt," he says, "dispatched some Phœnicians in vessels, with instructions to sail round Libya and through the Pillars of Hercules [straits of Gibraltar] into the northern [Mediterranean] sea, and so to return to Egypt. They set out from the Red Sea and navigated the southern ocean. When the rainy season came on, they would land on whatever part of the coast they happened to be, sow the ground, and wait for the harvest. After reaping it, they would again put to sea; and thus after two years had gone, in the third they passed through the Pillars of Hercules and arrived at Egypt. And they said (but for my part I do not believe the assertion, though others may) that in their voyage round Libya, they had the sun on their right hand."

Africa was an important division of the ancient world. Many of her nations and states, at a very early period, had made great advancement in the liberal arts. The northern part was inhabited by several enterprising nations, whose extensive commerce rolled abundant wealth into the land. With their riches the power of these states increased: Egypt and Ethiopia became famous, and Carthage sent forth her fleets to every part of the then known world. The career of discovery by which Africa has become known to the modern world, was commenced by the Portuguese in the fifteenth century. Prince Henry, a younger son of John I., devoted his life to the task. The Azores, the Cape Verde Isles, and various points on the coast, were colonized under his auspices. His zeal excited long-continued ridicule and opposition, but African discovery became a national passion, and after his death, was prosecuted by the government. Bartholomew Diaz rounded the continent's farthest promontory in 1487. The storms that tossed him there led him to call it the Cape of Tempests, but John II., thinking the discovery a precursor of brighter revelations beyond, changed the name to the Cape of Good Hope. Vasco de Gama doubled it in 1497, sailed along the eastern coast, and found the path to India. Portuguese mariners had now navigated the whole extent of the African coast, from the Straits of Gib-

raltar to the Straits of Bab-el-mandeb, with the exception of the thousand miles between the latter point and Magadoxa. They had ascertained the general shape of the continent to this extent, and the position of most of the principal rivers and headlands. At the beginning of the century, the line of coast thus traced was entirely unknown to the nations of Europe, excepting the extent of six hundred miles between the Straits of Gibraltar and Cape Nun. But the Arabs had long been acquainted with the greater part of the eastern coast along which Vasco de Gama passed after doubling the Cape of Good Hope; and the great towns which he saw or heard of, from Sofala onward to Magadoxa, were for the most part settlements that they had founded. The chief of these was the town of Quiloa. In course of time the Portuguese gained considerable knowledge of the interior also, partly by means of the establishments they formed at divers points, and partly from information brought them from other parts by the natives. Very early they heard of a great Christian potentate whom they called Priest John; anglicized to Prester John. The expeditions to find the domains of this mysterious personage, and the missions of a later date, all helped to increase the scanty and confused knowledge of the vast country. The French, the English, the Dutch, and others, followed the lead of Portugal, and founded settlements on the coast, and penetrated a little into the interior.

The discoveries of Bruce in his long and perilous journey toward the sources of the Nile, gave a new impetus to African exploration at the close of the last century. An association for its promotion was formed in London, under whose auspices Mungo Park searched for the secret of the Niger's course. Since then important discoveries have been made; discoveries bought by the lives of the explorers, the most of whom have died either from the malaria of the clime or at the hand of treacherous barbarians. Eminent are the names of Park, Burckhardt, Ledyard, Hornemann, Laing, Denham and Clapperton, Lander, Richardson, Overweg and Barth, in the north; and Sparrman, Vaillant, Cowan and Donovan, Lichtenstein, Campbell, Alexander, and Livingston, in the southern part. Dr. Livingston, who was a missionary at Kolobeng, (24° 30' S. lat., 26° E. long.,) made

several journeys thence into the interior, and in 1849, reached Lake Ngami. The existence of this large inland sea had been reported to the Portuguese as early as 1508. In a subsequent journey Dr. Livingston penetrated as far north as 10° S. lat., came out unexpectedly at the Portuguese settlement of Loanda, pushed back into the wilderness, and at last returned to England in 1856. The river Leeambye, after innumerable windings, he traced to the river Zambezi, which discharges itself into the Mozambique Channel. The Leeambye consists of a system of rivers, which spread out periodically into a great sea, filling hundreds of lateral channels. The principal stream is about a thousand yards broad. But a small portion of its waters reaches the sea, the remainder being absorbed by vast lakes and marshes. It is so diminutive when it reaches the sea as not to be navigable for vessels. It will, however, be of great use, as a means of communication with the interior. Dr. Livingston ascertained that a large portion of the blank in South African maps consists of fertile countries, inhabited by populous tribes, and intersected by large rivers. The farther he traveled into the interior of Africa, the more civilized and numerous he found the inhabitants. They were less ferocious and suspicious, had better and more settled forms of government, and more comforts than the coast tribes. He met with tribes who practiced inoculation, knew the medicinal virtues of quinine, and had a tradition of Noah's deluge. He found the climate of eastern Africa more humid than the other sections. The natives were athletic and brave. The next or middle zone is comparatively arid and flat. The inhabitants are not as well developed as the Kafirs. The western portion is nearly flat and sandy, but it is not a desert. There is abundance of vegetation, but water is scarce. The inhabitants manage to subsist on a very small supply of the precious fluid, some of which is obtained from tuberous roots, which contain in their cellular tissues supplies of pure water. In the plains are immense numbers of ostriches and antelopes, which can subsist for months without water.

Mr. Anderssen, in 1851, penetrated from the western coast to Lake Ngami. He there heard of the existence of a large town called Liberbe, nineteen days journey to the north-

east, which was said to be a great place of trade. Between 1847 and 1850, Messrs. Krapf and Rebmann, missionaries stationed near Mombaz on the eastern coast, made several journeys inland, and discovered two lofty mountains, crowned with everlasting snow, Kilimandjaro and Kenia. From the latter a river flows northward, which is conjectured to feed the Nile.

One of the most important expeditions ever undertaken to the interior of Africa was that sent out by the British and Prussian governments in 1849, and conducted by Messrs. Richardson, Barth, and Overweg. The travelers departed from Tripoli in March, 1850. On the way across the desert Dr. Barth visited Agadez, the capital of Air, a city of eight thousand inhabitants, situated in a fertile valley. The kingdom has a population of seventy thousand. The climate is healthy for Europeans. The people are tall and finely formed. The children are taught to read the Koran and to write. No European had wandered there before Dr. Barth. The party arrived on the borders of Soudan Jan. 1st, 1851. Here they separated. Richardson sickened under the heat and fatigue, and died in the following March. Dr. Overweg visited Mariadi and Guber, two independent pagan nations toward Sackatoo, where he was kindly received by the natives, who are a cross between the Tuareicks and the negro races, and obtained much curious information. Dr. Barth at Kano heard of a large kingdom in the south, called Adamawa, said to be the most beautiful portion of Central Africa. The sultan of Bornou furnished him an escort; he traveled three weeks over broad, fertile plains and through a forest infested with lions and elephants. He found Adamawa thickly populated. The inhabitants have large herds of cattle. The soil is tilled by slaves, who greatly outnumber the free inhabitants. On the 18th of June Dr. Barth came to the great river Benueh. The name signifies the 'mother of waters,' and the stream is half a mile wide and nine feet deep in the channel. His conjecture that it was the same as the Chadda, the eastern arm of the Niger, has been confirmed. Yola, the capital of Adamawa, is a town two miles and a half in length by one and a half in breadth, sited on a plain at the foot of Alantika, a mountain

ten thousand feet in height. Dr. Barth was allowed to tarry in Yola only three days, returned by the route he came, and rejoined Dr. Overweg at Kuka the 22d of July. During his absence the latter had launched his boat on Lake Tchad, and explored the islands and shores. He found the lake to be about eighty miles in breadth, quite shallow, and filled with islands inhabited by the Biddumas, who treated him with great kindness. Barth and Overweg planned an excursion to Kanem and Borgou, an unexplored region north-east of Lake Tchad, and extending midway to Egypt. Their party was driven back by the Zibboos, and they returned to Kuka. They accompanied an expedition sent to subjugate Mandara, a country north-east of Bornou. The campaign lasted from the 25th of November to the 1st of February, 1852. The army of twenty thousand men penetrated to the distance of two hundred miles, and returned with a booty of five thousand slaves and ten thousand head of cattle. The country was level, and abounded with marshes. The next year, Dr. Barth after great difficulties and dangers, succeeded in reaching Masena, the capital of Baghirimi, a powerful kingdom east of Bornou, never before visited by an European. Unable to penetrate further to the east, he returned to Kuka in August. Dr. Overweg had unsuccessfully attempted to enter the great Fellatah kingdom of Yakoba, on the river Benueh. He succumbed to the heat, and died at Kuka in September. Thus left alone Dr. Barth relinquished the design of journeying from Kuka to the shores of the Indian Ocean, and turned his steps toward the Niger. He left Kuka on the 25th of November, 1852, reached Sackatoo in April, 1853, and entered the famous city of Timbuctoo on the 7th of September. Nothing was heard of him for a long time; then rumors reached Tripoli that he had been murdered. At last came the joyful news that he was yet alive. He had tarried in Timbuctoo nearly a year, had explored the whole middle course of the Niger, and had found two large kingdoms, Gando and Hamd-Allahi, the very names of which were before unknown. He finally returned safe to Europe in the autumn of 1855.

The country traversed by Dr. Barth in this expedition extended over twenty-four degrees of latitude and twenty of longitude. He had

crossed deserts of frightful desolation, and traversed fertile lands watered by navigable rivers and large central lakes, covered with the finest timber and fruitful in grain, rice, nuts, sugar-cane, cotton, and indigo, products found abundantly all over Central Africa. The people wear cotton of their own weaving, and dyed with native indigo. The Niger, by means of its eastern branch, affords uninterrupted navigation into the interior for six hundred miles. At a distance of about three hundred miles from the coast, the western branch is interrupted by rapids and cataracts, but higher up, the river opens an unobstructed highway a thousand miles long, into the heart of western Africa, so rich in vegetable, animal, and mineral products. These regions exhibit an equal variety in the human race. Starting from Tripoli, on the north, the traveler proceeds from the Arab villages, remnants of the empires of the middle ages, into a country dotted with ruins of the Roman dominion, through the wild roving hordes of the Tuaricks, to the Negro tribes and the natives of Southern Africa. Throughout this vast region the greatest diversity of race and idiom prevails. Mohammedan learning is ingrafted on ignorance, and magnificent ceremonial rises side by side with the simplicity of barbarous Negro tribes. A thread of history, even, can be traced through this labyrinth of tribes and overthrown kingdoms, and a commerce is found radiating from Kano, the great emporium of Central Africa, in every direction, and spreading far and wide the manufactures of that industrious region. Dr. Barth says that the people of the interior, although in a low, are not at all in a degraded state of civilization. Between the farthest points reached by Barth and Livingston, only a strip of fifteen degrees in latitude remains. We venture the prediction that before the close of the present century Ethiopia, so long unknown to the world, will be explored and her casket of wealth opened to traffic and industry.

Africa comprises an area of 10,786,000 square miles. Its population, roughly estimated of course, is set down at 61,689,000. Its chief rivers are the Nile, in Egypt; the Senegal and Gambia, in Senegambia; the Niger or Quorra, the Congo or Zaire; the Orange, the northern boundary of the Cape

colony; and the Zambezi on the eastern coast. The great feature of Northern Africa is the Sahara or Great Desert, the most barren, parched, and terrific waste on the globe. The mineral treasures of this immense continent are of course as imperfectly known as its geography. Salt is widely diffused; gold dust is found in the sands of almost all the streams; copper, iron, and some tin are also met with. The southern regions of this continent are occupied by two distinct races, Hottentots and Kaffirs; the former one of the most indolent, shiftless, and dirty of the human family; the latter higher in the scale. The most widely extended race in Africa is the Negro, varying in intelligence and power with different localities. The Moors of the north are of mixed descent, since the Barbary region has been occupied by various races. The Arab stock has produced the most marked effect.

AGAMEMNON, leader of the Greeks in the Trojan war, was king of Mycene and Argos, son of Plisthenes, and brother of Menelaus, the seduction of whose wife lighted the flames of war. Returning, after the destruction of the city, he was murdered by his wife, Clytemnestra, either from jealousy, or on account of her love for another.

AGATHOCLES, a potter, who, from being a private soldier, made himself master of Syracuse and Sicily, B.C. 317. This he accomplished by the death of thousands. Although defeated by the Carthaginians in Sicily, he carried the war into Africa, where he was successful. After having lost his sons and army by a mutiny in Africa, he succeeded in establishing tranquillity, B.C. 306. In Italy he conquered the Brutii, and took and sacked Crotona. He was killed by his favorite, Menon, who poisoned the feather with which the king usually cleansed his teeth after dinner.

AGESILAUS, king of Sparta, signaled himself by his valorous resistance to the Persians, and successfully opposed the arms of the Thebans under Epaminondas. Agesilaus was lame and of small stature, but brave, and almost idolized by his troops. He was eighty-four years old at the time of his death, B.C. 360.

AGINCOURT, or AZINCOUR, a village in the department of Pas de Calais, France, where Henry V. of England, with an army of

little more than fifteen thousand men, defeated the flower of the French troops, amounting to seventy or a hundred thousand. Henry entrenched his archers against onsets of cavalry, within fences of pointed stakes, then first used, and in modern times, known under the name of *chevaux de frise*. The rashness and disordered impetuosity of the French, and the coolness and orderly intrepidity of the English, produced the same effects at Agincourt as at Poitiers. The English had spent the previous evening in preparing their weapons, confessing themselves, and receiving the sacrament; while the French gamed and drank the night away. The narrowness of the field prevented the French from profiting by their superior force. The Constable d'Albret, the Count de Nevers, and the Duke of Brabant, the Dukes of Alençon and Bar, the Counts of Vaudemont and Marle, scorning to survive defeat, rushed into the thickest of the fight and died, with upward of ten thousand of their followers. The number of captives taken by the English was fourteen thousand, a number about equal to that of the conquerors. Among the captives were the Dukes of Orleans and Bourbon. The loss of the English was about twelve hundred, and the Duke of York almost the only person of rank who fell. This nobleman was Henry's uncle, and was slain in defending the king against the Duke of Alençon, who rode furiously upon him. Alençon dashed Henry's crown from his head, with a blow of his battle-axe, and was preparing to dispatch him, when the king's attendants closed around him in a steely circle, and he fell, covered with wounds, the blood pouring from every joint of his armor. This great battle was fought October 25th, 1415.

AGNESI, MARIA GAETANA, born at Milan, in 1718. In a Latin oration, delivered in her ninth year, she advocated the study of the ancient languages by females. At the age of eleven, she was conversant with Greek, which she spoke with great fluency, and she afterward mastered the oriental languages. Geometry and philosophy next engaged her attention. She was the ornament of brilliant and talented circles, and her loveliness added to the magic of her words. In mathematics she was no less successful, and at thirty she published a treatise on the rudiments of

analysis, thought to be the best introduction to Euler's works extant. She acquired such fame by this performance, that she was appointed professor of mathematics in the university of Bologna. Incessant application seems finally to have rendered her melancholy; she renounced society, and died in a nunnery, 1799.

AGRICOLA, CNEIUS JULIUS, a brave Roman commander, and a distinguished statesman. He subjected a great part of Britain, A.D. 70. Domitian recalled him, and he died in retirement, A.D. 93.

AGRIPPA, HENRY CORNELIUS, a native of Cologne, born in 1486, and noted for his acquirements, talents, and eccentricity. For his military services, he was knighted. He was acquainted with eight languages, and made pretensions to magic, which procured him invitations from various personages of celebrity, who sought to acquire a knowledge of futurity. After a life full of change and incident, he died at Grenoble, in 1535.

AGRIPPA I., grandson of Herod the Great, and king of Judea. St. James perished in a persecution commenced by him. The occasion and manner of his death are related, Acts xii. 20-23, under his patronymic name of Herod.

AGRIPPA, MARCUS VIPSANIUS, the son-in-law and friend of Augustus, whose fleet he commanded in the battle of Actium; died B.C. 12.

AGRIPPINA, the elder, daughter of the above, wife of Germanicus Cæsar, whom she accompanied in his German expeditions. She was banished A.D. 33, by the cruel Tiberius, who hated her for her virtues and popularity, to the island of Pandataria, where she starved herself to death.

AGRIPPINA, the younger, daughter of the former, was born at Cologne. She was possessed of talents, but intriguing, dissolute, and ambitious. She was married to her uncle Claudius, the emperor, whom she poisoned to clear the throne for her wicked son Nero, who assassinated her when she became troublesome after his elevation.

AHASUERUS, the king of Persia whose marriage with Esther, and protection of the Jews, are described in the Scriptures. He is probably the Artaxerxes Longimanus of the Greeks, whose reign began B.C. 465.

AIX-LA-CHAPELLE (AACHEN), a Prussian city on the borders of Belgium, lying between the Rhine and Meuse, in a rich valley encompassed by hills; population 45,000. It was the birth-place of Charlemagne, according to some authors, and contains many buildings and monuments of historical interest. It was the northern capital of Charlemagne, who held a splendid court here, and was buried in its cathedral. Succeeding emperors conferred so many privileges on the city, that it was remarked that "the air of Aix-la-Chapelle gave freedom even to the outlaws." By the celebrated treaty signed here in 1784, peace was concluded between England, France, Holland, Hungary, Spain, and Genoa. A congress of the sovereigns of Austria, Russia, and Prussia, with ambassadors from England and France, was held at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1818, to decide upon the terms for the evacuation of France by the allied army.

AKBAH, a Saracen conqueror, who overran Africa from Cairo to the Atlantic, was killed in a revolt of the Greeks and Africans, 682.

AKENSIDE, MARK, the son of a butcher, born at Newcastle-upon-Tyne, November 9th, 1721. He was intended for the ministry, but preferred the study of medicine. He never had much success in the practice of his profession, but as a poet acquired renown. His "Pleasures of the Imagination" is his best poem. He died of a fever, June 23d, 1770.

ALABAMA was originally settled by Frenchmen and Spaniards. In 1800 the region between Georgia and the Mississippi river was organized as a territory. It was divided in 1817, the western portion forming the state of Mississippi; the eastern territory of Alabama, now the state of that name, having been so constituted by Congress in 1819. It contains 50,722 square miles. The state is divided into several regular terraces, or belts, as it were, which rise above each other from the Gulf of Mexico. Of these the southern is flat and swampy, containing several savannahs. In the center of the state the wide spread plains or gently waving lands of the prairies are covered with herbage, grass, and flowers. The greater part of Alabama is separated from the Tennessee valley by abrupt and precipitous hills, or rather

mountains, which, in some places, rise to an elevation of two thousand feet above the gulf level. The swamps in the vicinity of Florida are numerous, and covered with cypress, gum, and loblolly pine-trees, while the uplands are timbered with the long-leaved pine. What are termed the hummock lands, the fertility of which is lasting, form a belt between the pine ridges and the bottoms. The French imagined that they were well adapted to the rearing of grape-vines. Attention is now being more than ever turned to wine-growing, and it may not be long before these slopes will be clustered with smiling vineyards, and echo the joyous song of the vine-dresser, and the merriment of the autumnal vintage. Corn, cotton, wheat, and rice constitute the main products of the state. Groves of orange-trees, undoubtedly of Spanish origin, are not infrequent. Tobacco and sugar are grown to some extent. Iron and coal are found in various parts of the state. Nearly every part of the state is amply watered by large streams, admitting of extensive steam-boat navigation. The most important of these rivers are the Tennessee, Chattahoochee, Alabama, and Tombigbee.

The French who settled on the borders of the Mississippi at an early period, did not meet with much success at first, and for a long time the French settlements were insignificant and unnoticed. Instead of drawing their support from the fertile bosom of the earth beneath their feet, they are said to have subsisted on provisions obtained from France and the Spanish colonies. So slow were they in appreciating the richness of the soil, and so tenacious of established opinions and prejudices, that on a superficial examination of facts, we are surprised to find that, in the northern and more sterile parts of North America, where a thousand obstacles presented themselves in the path of the adventurer, the work of colonization went on with the greatest rapidity. This appears to have been a wise ordination of providence. The French settlers, while they wanted the perseverance of the English and the colonial experience of the Spaniards, had a singular facility in winning the friendship and esteem of the savages. Yet, in spite of this advantage, few of the colonies they founded at the south, went on without many interruptions,



while the Spanish settlements were generally permanent.

After the English had obtained possession of the whole country east of the Mississippi, which was ceded to them by the French, in the treaty of peace concluded between France and Great Britain, Feb. 10th, 1763, they encountered the hostility of the Spanish, who were in possession of Louisiana, and were inflamed against the English by hostility and jealousy. The war of the American revolution placed the British colonists in this section in a peculiarly embarrassing and dangerous situation. On the one hand they were threatened by the Spanish colonists of Louisiana, while, on the other, they feared the hostility of the new states. The Spanish colonists in turn, although fearful of the spread of liberal principles, and aware that the discomfiture of the British in the south-west would be a source of congratulation to the Americans, yet so ardently desired the conquest, that they laid aside all minor considerations, and determined on attempting it. At this time, Galvez, a gallant and enterprising officer, was the Spanish commander of Louisiana. He took the field against the British with twenty-three hundred men. Natchez and Pensacola capitulated, and Galvez, in 1780, sailed against Mobile with a powerful armament. A storm overtook him in the gulf, and the wreck of one of his armed vessels, with the wetting of his provision and ammunition, gave

no good omen of ultimate success. Many commanders so circumstanced, would have despaired, but Galvez, keeping up a tolerable appearance, landed near Mobile, and halted in the momentary expectation of an attack from the British. He saw that such an attack would be ruinous, and entertaining no doubt that the British would commence hostilities, made preparations for relinquishing his artillery and military stores, and falling back, in what order he might, upon New Orleans. Whether from want of foresight, or from cowardice, the English did not attempt to disturb him.

Finding himself, much to his surprise, unmolested, Galvez took heart again, and having carefully dried his stores and ammunition, which, upon examination, were found not to have been spoiled, though badly wet, he marched upon Mobile, which was garrisoned and defended by regulars and militia. Six Spanish batteries, playing, with well-directed aim, upon the place, opened a breach, and the garrison immediately capitulated! At Pensacola, only sixty miles off, General Campbell was stationed with an overwhelming force; yet he marched not to the relief of Mobile, until it was in the hands of Galvez.

Toward the close of the year 1811, the troops of the United States were employed against the Indians, who formed powerful hostile combinations in the western country. During the war with Great Britain, many

bloody engagements were fought with the Indians. After the surrender of Detroit, an event which produced such a universal feeling of shame and degradation in the west, the Indians sent news of their triumph even to the most southerly extremity of the Union, and invited the neutral tribes of the south to assume the hatchet. The Creeks and Seminoles, with many other tribes, were not slow in responding to the summons, and became involved in the war, which was felt, in hostile incursions, by the entire frontier, from Tennessee to the bay of Mobile. Tecumseh, arming himself with the persuasive predictions of his brother, the Prophet, arrived among the Creeks in 1812, and urged them forward to deeds of blood. The most dreadful outrages were consequently perpetrated by the Creeks along the Alabama frontier, which suffered extremely during this war.

In 1814, Mobile was attacked by the British, and defended by Major Lawrence, with a gallantry which gained him no inconsiderable renown. His Spartan band of one hundred and thirty men were resolved to suffer no stain to dim the brilliancy of their starred banner, and to uphold it while life-blood ran warm in their veins. On the 12th of September, intelligence was received at the fort of the landing of a pretty large force of Indians and Spaniards in its vicinity. In the course of that day two British brigs and sloops hove in sight, and anchored at no inconsiderable distance. At half after four in the evening of the 15th, the *Hermes*, *Charon*, *Sophia*, and *Anaconda*, with ninety guns, anchored at such a distance from the fort, as to admit of firing upon it conveniently. A simultaneous land attack was begun by Captains Nicholls and Woodbine. Their fortifications were made of sand, and they brought a howitzer to bear upon the fort at point blank distance; but they were soon compelled to abandon their position. Still a severe firing was maintained by the ships and fort. The *Hermes*, receiving a raking fire, ran ashore, was abandoned, and blew up. The *Charon* was almost wholly disabled. When the flag-staff of the fort was shot away, Woodbine and Nicholls, thinking the foe vanquished, rushed forward to the fort, but were awakened to a sense of their error by a murderous fire which sent them to the right about

with enviable facility. What praise is too warm for the conduct of the few who composed the garrison, when we consider the numbers and advantages of the enemy? Six hundred men attacked the fort by sea, supported by ninety heavy guns. Four hundred Indians and others made an attack in the rear. Captain Lawrence had but about a seventh of the enemy's numerical force, and twenty guns, all badly mounted, and some of them quite ineffective. Yet, while he lost but ten men, he compelled the enemy to retire with a loss of their very best ship, and two hundred and thirty men.

The state seceded January 11, 1861; at its capital, Montgomery, the rebel congress assembled, Feb. 4, inaugurated the rebel government, and adjourned to Richmond, March 16, 1861. It underwent a fair share of the miseries of war, having been penetrated and traversed a number of times by the Union troops, particularly by Gen. Rousseau with a strong cavalry force in July, 1864, during Sherman's investment of Atlanta, by Gen. Wilson with an army of 10,000 cavalry in March and April, 1865, and by the forces operating against Mobile, in 1864 and '65. Farragut, with a fleet of 32 vessels and 231 guns, forced an entrance into Mobile Bay, Aug. 5, 1864, defeating the rebel fleet and taking the ram *Tennessee*. Operations against the city itself began March 25th, 1865, when Smith and Canby broke ground before Spanish Fort. Mobile was evacuated Apr. 10th and 11th, and Gen. Canby's troops entered it on the 12th. This was the last important fighting of the rebellion, Lee having surrendered to Grant some days before.

Alabama has a long death code. Murder, treason, rape, man-stealing, arson, robbery, burglary, counterfeiting and forgery, are punishable with death. Killing in a duel is made willful murder. A system of common schools was established in 1854, and a state university is sustained at Tuscaloosa.

The capital of Alabama is Montgomery, a thriving city, built on a high bluff at the head of steamboat navigation on the Alabama river; population in 1860, 35,902. The most important town is Mobile, which except New Orleans is the largest cotton mart in the United States. It is a handsome city, and rapidly growing in business and prosperity.

Population in 1860, 29,258. Tuscaloosa, the former capital, stands at the head of steam-boat navigation on the Tuscaloosa River; population in 1853, 3,500.

By the U. S. census of 1860, Alabama had a population of 964,201: consisting of 526,431 whites, 435,080 slaves and 2,690 free colored. There were 17 colleges, 160 academies, 1,074 common schools, 40,280 children at school, and 93,443 white children between eight and sixteen years of age.

ALANI, or ALANS, a warlike tribe that left their abodes near Mount Caucasus, in Asia, when the Roman empire was declining, and aided in its overthrow. After 412, they became lost among the Vandals.

ALARIC, king of the Visigoths, and conqueror of Rome. But little is known of his early history. His wild ambition was excited by overtures from intriguers against Arcadius, emperor of the eastern empire, and he commenced his famous march from the Danube, through Thrace, Dacia, Macedonia, and Thessaly, into Achaia. Everywhere the Goths were victorious, and in their ravages some of the finest monuments of Grecian art were lost. Honorius, the emperor of the west, sent an army to the aid of his brother, and for a few years a truce was had between Alaric and the Romans. But in 405 his army entered the eternal city. The Romans bought his forbearance by a ransom of five thousand pounds of gold, thirty thousand pounds of silver, four thousand garments of silk, three thousand pieces of fine scarlet cloth, and three thousand pounds of pepper. In 410 his bands returned and sacked the city. The treasures which had been accumulated during a thousand years, vanished in three days beneath the hands of the rapacious conquerors. The flames destroyed works of art which the barbarians were unable to carry off, but Alaric spared the churches and those who had sought refuge in them. Alaric died at a Calabrian town (Cosenza), A.D. 410, when he was preparing to lay waste Sicily and Africa. In order to conceal his remains from the Romans, slaves were employed to divert the waters of the Busento, and hollow his last resting-place in the channel of the stream. When the earth had received the body of the conqueror, the waves were permitted to rush in above it, and the slaves

were murdered, that Alaric's secret might be in the keeping of the waters and the voiceless dead.

ALBERT I., emperor and duke of Austria, the son and successor of Rudolph of Hapsburg. He was crowned in 1298, after defeating and slaying Adolphus of Nassau, his competitor. The rival leaders engaged in single combat, and Adolphus exclaimed, "Your crown and life are lost!" "Heaven will decide," was the answer of Albert, as he forced his lance into the face of his adversary and unhorsed him. Albert was assassinated in 1308, by his nephew John, son of the Duke of Suabia, whose paternal estates he had seized. John had often asserted his claims, and urged them upon Albert when he was departing for Switzerland, on account of the revolt of the Swiss. The emperor contemptuously offered his nephew a garland of flowers. "Take this," said he, "amuse yourself with botanical investigations, but leave the cares of government to those who are old and wise enough to understand them." Albert breathed his last in the arms of a poor woman, who was sitting by the road-side at the time of his assassination.

ALBERTUS MAGNUS, or ALBERTUS GROS-TUS, was born in Lauingen, in Suabia, about the commencement of the thirteenth century. In youth he is said to have been singularly obtuse; but he afterward studied at Paris, Padua, and Bologna, displayed prodigious capacity, and became a wonder of erudition. He was a Dominican, and was made Bishop of Ratisbon in 1260; resigned his episcopate in 1263, and died in 1280. Cologne was his chief place of residence. Thomas Aquinas was among his pupils.

ALBIGENSES, the Protestants of Savoy and Piedmont, in the middle ages; the objects of cruel persecution and of several crusades. They are said to have originated at Albigeois, in Languedoc, about 1160. They professed a hatred of the corruptions of the Church of Rome.

ALBRET, JEANNE D', daughter of Margaret, Queen of Navarre, was married at the age of eleven to the Duke of Cleves, but the marriage was annulled in 1548, when she espoused Anthony de Bourbon, Duke of Vendome, by whom she became mother of Henry IV. In 1555, her father dying, she became Queen

of Navarre, and in 1562, the death of her husband left her independent. She then set herself to establish the Reformation in her kingdom, although opposed by France and Spain. She expired suddenly, at Versailles, in 1572, and her death was attributed to poison.

ALBUERA, BATTLE OF. Between the French, commanded by Marshal Soult, and the British and Anglo-Spanish army, commanded by Marshal Beresford, May 16th, 1811. After an obstinate and sanguinary engagement, the latter obtained the victory, one of the most brilliant achievements of the peninsular war. The French loss exceeded 7,000 men, and the allies lost an equal number.

ALBUQUERQUE, the name of two Portuguese brothers, distinguished for bravery, who founded the Portuguese dominion in the Indies. They took Cochin, in India, in 1505. Francis was lost on his passage home. When Alphonso captured Ormus, the Persian king demanded the tribute which he had been accustomed to receive from the princes of the island. Upon this Albuquerque laid down a sword and a bullet, saying haughtily, "This is the coin in which Portugal pays her tribute." After a rash and unsuccessful attempt upon Calicut, he took Goa and Malacca. The envy of courtiers, and the suspicions of King Emmanuel, did not spare even the distinguished merit of Albuquerque, who died at Goa, in 1515, after his ungrateful master had appointed his personal enemy, Lopez Soarez, to fill his post.

ALCIBIADES, an Athenian, famous for his enterprise, gallantry, versatility, and natural foibles. He was the son of Clinias and Dinomache, and was born at Athens, about 450 B.C. He inherited high rank and vast wealth, while nature had endowed him with a person unusually handsome, manners the most fascinating, and talents of high order. Left early an orphan, he was educated in the house of Pericles, who was too much occupied with state affairs to pay much attention to the youth. The impetuosity of Alcibiades displayed itself early, as the following anecdote shows. While he was playing dice in the street with some juvenile companions, a wagon came up. Alcibiades requested the driver to stop, but he refused. The daring



ALCIBIADES.

youth then threw himself before the wheel, and exclaimed, "Drive on, if thou darest!" The instructions of Socrates restrained for a time his vain and wanton propensities. Socrates fought by his side in his first battle, and, when he was wounded, defended him, and bore him off safe. The dissipation and extravagance of Alcibiades were unbounded. One night, being at a banquet, he laid a wager that he would box the ears of the rich Hipponicus, and did so. This excited general indignation, but Alcibiades went to the injured party, threw off his garment, and, placing a rod in his hand, bade him strike and revenge himself. Hipponicus not only pardoned him freely, but gave him his daughter in marriage with a goodly portion. At the Olympic games, Alcibiades would enter seven chariots, and at one time won three prizes.

In the Peloponnesian war he encouraged the Athenians to engage in an expedition against Syracuse. He was chosen general in that war, and in his absence, his enemies, having found all the statues of Mercury broken, charged him with being concerned in the deed and confiscated all his property. He then fled to Sparta, where he attempted to gain popularity by adopting the temperate habits of the Spartans, whom he wished to rouse against the Athenians. Finding this of no avail, he went to Tissaphernes, the

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satrap of Lydia. He was afterward recalled by the Athenians, and having compelled the Spartans to sue for peace, and been successful in Asia, was welcomed to Athens with high honors. The failure of an expedition, with the command of which he was intrusted, again aroused the resentment of the people, and Alcibiades fled to Pharnabazes, satrap of Bithynia. Lysander, the Spartan general, induced Pharnabazes to assassinate him. The attendants sent for that purpose, found him in a castle in Phrygia, in company with his favorite Timandra. They set the building on fire, and the warrior rushed out sword in hand. Dreading his valor, the cowardly assassins retreated to a safe distance, and shot him with their arrows. Thus perished Alcibiades, in the forty-fifth year of his age, about 404 B.C. Though he wanted firm moral principles, he was generous, brave, persevering, and gifted with distinguished qualities. His eloquence won the hearts of men imperceptibly and unostentatiously; although it is said that he stuttered, and was unable to pronounce the letter 'r.'

ALEMANNI, the ancient inhabitants of Suabia and Switzerland, united in a league, from whence Germany derives its French name of Allemagne. They were the determined opponents of the Romans. They finally submitted to the Franks.

ALEXANDER THE GREAT, son of Philip of Macedon, was born at Pella, B.C. 356. Olympias, daughter of Neoptolemus of Epirus, was his mother. At an early age, he showed a veneration for great deeds and a determination to achieve them. Hearing of the victories of Philip, he exclaimed, "My father will leave nothing for me to do." Aristotle instructed him in the most elegant as well as the most profound branches of knowledge, and never for a moment forgot that it was his duty to fit him for governing a great kingdom. That he might become acquainted with military virtues and ambition, Aristotle put the "Iliad" into the hands of his noble pupil. Alexander was so fond of this, that he never lay down without having read some pages in it. His exclusive ambition is well illustrated by the letter which he wrote his preceptor on the publication of his "Metaphysics." "You did wrong in publishing those branches of science hitherto not to be

acquired but from oral instruction. In what shall I excel others, if the more profound knowledge I gained from you be communicated to all? For my part, I had rather surpass the majority of mankind in the sublimer branches of learning, than in the extent of power and dominion."

It was no part of the ancient Grecian plan of education, to permit the culture of the mind to supersede that of the body. The instructors of the young trained the intellectual and corporeal powers at the same time. Alexander was early accustomed to gymnastic exercises, and at a tender age, displayed his strength and skill in an extraordinary manner. His father had been presented with a superb charger (Bucephalus), which no one dared to mount. Alexander sprang upon his back and succeeded in completely taming him, after which the steed would permit none but the noble youth to mount him. He bore him through some of the most perilous scenes of his career, and, when he died, was honored by a splendid memorial, the erection of a city called Bucephalia. At the age of sixteen years, Alexander was appointed by his father, regent of Macedon, when the latter departed on his expedition to Byzantium. In 338, at the battle of Chæronea, he so distinguished himself, that Philip, embracing him, exclaimed, "My son, seek another empire, for that you will inherit is unworthy of you."

When Philip married Cleopatra, and divorced, or at least disgraced, Olympias, Alexander, having taken the part of his mother, incurred the displeasure of his father, and was forced to fly to Epirus, whence, however, he was soon recalled. Soon after this he saved his father's life in an expedition against the Triballi. Philip was assassinated, B.C. 336, when preparing to make war upon Persia, at the head of all the Grecian forces. Alexander, then twenty years of age, ascended the throne, and soon gave proof of talents to govern and to conquer. He conquered the Illyrii and Triballi, and forced a triumphant passage through Thrace. Urged by the eloquence of Demosthenes, the Athenians were about to join the Thebans, who had taken up arms, to throw off the yoke of Macedon. Alexander promptly repaired to Thebes, and on the refusal of the citizens to surrender, took it and destroyed it, with the exception

of the poet Pindar's house. Six thousand individuals were put to the sword, and thirty thousand reduced to captivity. The Athenians, although punished, were not so severely handled, and the fate of Thebes had the intended effect of striking terror into all Greece. The general assembly of the Greeks confirmed Alexander in the chief command against Persia, and he determined to leave Antipater, who had been a minister of his father, at the head of the government. The confidence reposed in this man was great, as appears from the following anecdote. Philip was fond of wine, and occasionally indulged himself to excess. One night, observing one of his companions unwilling to drink deeply, "Drink, drink," said he, "all's safe, for Antipater is awake."

In the spring of 334, Alexander crossed into Asia with 30,000 foot and 5,000 horse. In the plains of Ilium, he offered sacrifices to Minerva, and crowned the tomb of Achilles. Approaching the Granicus, he learned that Persian satraps, with 600,000 foot and 20,000 horse, were prepared to oppose his progress. The passage of the river was effected in the teeth of this force, and Alexander was completely triumphant. During the heat of battle, the Macedonian monarch was a mark for the weapons of the enemy, by the splendor of his equipments, and the conspicuous beauty of his superb charger. The cities of Asia Minor, with few exceptions, now opened their gates to the youthful conqueror. In passing through Gordium, Alexander cut the Gordian knot. Lycia, Ionia, Caria, Pamphylia, and Cappadocia, were successively conquered. The conqueror was seized with a severe illness in consequence of imprudently bathing in the Cydnus, which proved a check to his career. While in a dangerous state, he received a letter from Parmenio, his general, warning him against his physician Philip, whom Parmenio accused of the design of poisoning his master. Philip was at that time preparing a potion for the king; and Alexander, handing him the letter, looked steadily in his face while he drank off the draught. He recovered.

Darius, instead of waiting for Alexander on the plains of Assyria, had advanced with an immense army to the defiles of Cilicia, whither the Macedonian followed, defeating the Per-

sians in the battle of Issus, which placed the treasures, and the mother, wife, and children of Darius in the hands of the conqueror. His generous treatment of the family of Darius conferred as much honor upon Alexander, as the victory which preceded it. He turned toward Coelosyria and Phœnicia for the purpose of cutting off Darius, who had fled toward the Euphrates. The Persian monarch sent a letter to Alexander suing for peace, and the latter answered him, that if he would come to him, he should receive his mother, his wife, his children, and his empire; but no notice was taken of this liberal proposal. Damascus, and all the towns along the Mediterranean, were entered and taken possession of by Alexander. The resistance of Tyre was severely punished; it stood a siege of seven months; the inhabitants were massacred or sold as slaves. This is one of the blackest acts in Alexander's career. In Palestine, Gaza, which resisted the conqueror like Tyre, shared a like fate. Gaza was the emporium for the productions of Arabia, and a place of considerable wealth and importance. Among the plunder, the conqueror gained great quantities of frankincense, myrrh, and other aromatics, the sight of which recalled a long forgotten incident of his juvenile days. His governor, Leonatus, observing him one day at a sacrifice throw incense into the flame by handfuls, remonstrated, and said, "Alexander, when you have conquered the spice countries, you may be thus lavish of your incense; meantime use what you have more sparingly." Alexander now sent his governor several large bales of spices, with the following note: "Leonatus, I have sent you frankincense and myrrh in abundance; so be no longer a churl to the gods." On his way through Palestine it is said that Alexander marched against Jerusalem to destroy it; but when he saw Jaddus the high-priest clad in his solemn robes, he declared he had seen such a figure in a vision in Macedonia, inviting him to Asia and promising to deliver the Persian empire into his hands. The holy city was spared, and in the temple Alexander offered sacrifices to the God of the Jews.

He proceeded into Egypt, and founded the city of Alexandria. The Egyptians, to whom the Persian yoke had been a galling burden,

were well pleased with the arrival of Alexander, whom they gratefully regarded as a deliverer. His next expedition was a visit to the temple of Jupiter Ammon, in the deserts of Libya, where, having consulted the oracle, the crafty god is said to have acknowledged him as his son. In the ensuing spring, learning that Darius had gathered an immense force in Assyria, and was determined to fight to the last, rejecting all proposals for peace, Alexander marched in that direction. In 331, a furious battle was fought at Gaugamela, not far from Arbela, in which the army of Darius was not less than 500,000 strong. Notwithstanding this overwhelming force, the Macedonian was irresistible, and scattered the thronged Persians like leaves before the tempest. Alexander's principal object was to capture the Persian monarch, or prevent his flight by death. In the midst of the crowd and crush of battle, Darius was no inconsiderable figure, for he was mounted on a chariot of great height, and surrounded by guards splendidly armed and equipped. These, however, no sooner perceived the extraordinary success of Alexander, than, forgetful of their duty, they took to flight. Darius was saved by the speed of a horse upon which he hastily threw himself.

The immense wealth of the East was deposited in Babylon and Susa, both of which opened their gates without hesitation to the mighty victor, who continued his march toward Persepolis, then the capital of Persia. Ariobarzanes, with 40,000 men, had thrown himself into the only passage which opened on Persepolis, to defend it as long as he was able. He did not hold out long, for the troops of Alexander, flushed with success, and impatient of opposition, swept away all obstacles. Persepolis, with all its wealth and luxury, was won. In Persepolis, Alexander forgot his duty and his interest in unexampled riot and dissipation. He was intoxicated with success, and inclined to believe himself the god which his flatterers would have made him. In a moment of intoxication and unbridled pleasure, Alexander, yielding to the persuasions of an abandoned woman, Thais, the Athenian, fired the capital of Persia, which was soon reduced to ruins. On the right bank of the Medus and Araxes, near Istakar, the ruins of the royal

palace of Persepolis are still visible; tall columns yet attesting its former magnificence, before the vengeance of the Greek was wreaked upon the pride of art.

The burning of Persepolis filled Alexander with remorse, and he set forth in pursuit of Darius. He soon learned that Bessus, the perfidious satrap of Bactria, kept his master in custody, but before he could save Darius, Bessus had the unfortunate monarch assassinated, B.C. 330. He was found lying in his chariot covered with wounds. The perfidy of Bessus was subsequently punished with death. Darius was interred with great solemnity, and Alexander caused himself to be proclaimed king of Asia. While occupied in the formation of plans of vast importance, a conspiracy broke out in the camp of Alexander, in which Philotas, the son of Parmenio, was found to be concerned. Philotas, though brave and hardy, was addicted to pleasure, to expensive amusements, and given to boasting. He frequently spoke slightly of Alexander to the companions of his pleasures, calling him the *boy*, and saying that the victories were rather the result of his own exertions and those of his father, than of the bravery and skill of Alexander. Parmenio endeavored to check his son, saying, "Make yourself less conspicuous," but his counsel was of no avail. Alexander heard of the boastings of Philotas with indignation; and when the conspiracy broke forth, his anger knew no bounds. Philotas was executed, and, by the orders of Alexander, the veteran Parmenio was secretly put to death, a criminal act which excited the displeasure of the whole army.

Meanwhile Agis, king of Sparta, threatened the destruction of the power of Alexander in Greece, and raised a powerful army to obtain independence, but he was defeated by Antipater, and the dissolution of the Grecian league ensued. Neither the severity of the winter nor the want of local knowledge prevented Alexander from marching into the north of Asia and reaching the Caspian Sea. He attacked the Scythians, urged on by an insatiable thirst for distinction. On his return to Bactria, he assumed the dress of the Persians, which disgusted the Macedonians, who thought the flowing robes of the orientals too effeminate. The Persians were dis-

pleased at beholding the Macedonian officers entering the royal presence without those tokens of respect, which the kings of their nation invariably exacted from their subjects. The low inclinations of reverence could only be claimed from the Greeks on the plea that Alexander, as a god, was entitled to them. A blunt Spartan once satisfied the master of ceremonies and his own scruples, by first dropping a ring and then stooping to pick it up in the presence of the king. Offended with the independence and freedom of Clitus, Alexander slew him with his own hand at a banquet. As soon as he saw the lifeless body of his most faithful friend and bravest general stretched before him, he was seized with all the agonies of remorse.

The next year Alexander subdued Sogdiana, and married the Bactrian Roxana, loveliest of Asiatic women. The Asiatic women, but particularly the ladies of Persia, were famous for the richness of their attire, and the art with which they heightened their native beauty. The Persian ladies wore the tiara or turban, richly adorned with jewels. They wore their hair long, and both plaited and curled it; nor, if the natural failed, did they scruple to use false locks. They penciled the eye-brows, and tinged the eye-lid, with a dye that was supposed to add a peculiar brilliancy to the eyes. They were fond of perfumes, and the delightful attar was the favorite. Their tunic and drawers were of fine linen; the robe or gown, of silk, with a long train that on state occasions required a supporter. Round the waist they wore a broad zone or cincture, flounced on both edges, and embroidered and jeweled in the centre. They also wore stockings and gloves, but history does not record their materials. They used no sandals; a light and ornamental shoe was worn in the house; and for walking they had a kind of coarse half boot. They used shawls and wrappers for the person, and veils for the head; the veil was large and square, and when thrown over the head, descended low on all sides. They were fond of glowing colors, especially of purple, scarlet, and light-blue dresses. Their favorite ornaments were pearls; they wreathed these in their hair, wore them as necklaces, earrings, amulets, bracelets, anklets, and worked them into conspicuous parts of their dresses.

Of the precious stones they preferred emeralds, rubies, and turquoises, which were set in gold and worn like the pearls. No fewer than ten thousand Greeks, captivated with their charms, married Asiatic brides, and each couple received a present from Alexander.

Soon after the marriage of Alexander with Roxana, a conspiracy was discovered among his troops, headed by Hermolaus. All were condemned to death but Callisthenes, who was mutilated and carried about with the army in an iron cage, until his tortures became insufferable, and he killed himself by poison. Alexander penetrated into India and was highly successful. His most determined enemy was Porus, an Indian king, whom he effectually subdued. When this warlike monarch was asked how he should be treated, he answered Alexander, "Like a king," and was consequently restored to his kingdom.

Alexander established Greek colonies in India, and is said to have built no fewer than seventy towns, one of which was erected in honor of his horse Bucephalus, killed on the banks of the Hydaspes. He would have penetrated as far as the Ganges, but for the murmurs of his fatigued army. He returned to the Hydaspes, and built a fleet upon its banks, dispatching part of his army by water, while the remainder marched down by land. His march through the country was not unopposed, and he himself received a severe wound, from which, however, he recovered, and sailing down the Indus, reached the sea. Nearchus, the admiral of Alexander, sailed to the Persian gulf, while the conqueror reached Babylon by land, in the spring of 324 B.C., after encountering incredible fatigues, which cost him the loss of many men. At Susa, he was married to two Persian princesses. At Opis, on the Tigris, he sent home the invalids with presents, and quelled a mutiny of his troops. Not long after this, his friend and favorite, Hephaestion, died. It is asserted that the fever of Hephaestion was brought on by hard drinking. Alexander's grief at the loss of his favorite was excessive, and even endangered his reason; for three days he tasted no food, and lay stretched upon the ground, either in silent sorrow or loud lamentation. The money expended on the funeral pile might have

erected a palace; and all the barbarian subjects of Alexander were ordered to go into mourning.

When Alexander went from Ecbatana to Babylon, which he meant to make the capital of his empire, he is said to have been warned by the astrologers that the latter place would prove fatal to him. Despising these warnings, he went to Babylon and gave audience to the several foreign ambassadors who awaited his arrival. His mind was engaged in forming vast plans of future conquest, when he was seized with sickness, after a banquet, and died in the spring of 323 B.C. Alexander had reigned twelve years and eight months, and was thirty-two years old at the time of his death. The vast possessions which he had acquired by force, were deluged by continual bloodshed when he was no more. When asked to whom he left his kingdom, he answered, "to the worthiest." The body of Alexander was interred with all the pomp and circumstance of regal burial at Alexandria, where Ptolemy inclosed his remains in a golden coffin. The Egyptians and other nations paid divine honors to him after his death. A modern writer has said: "The history of Alexander forms an important epoch in the history of mankind. Unlike other Asiatic conquerors, his progress was marked by something more than devastation and ruin; at every step of his course the Greek language and civilization took root and flourished; and after his death, Greek kingdoms were formed in all parts of Asia, which continued to exist for centuries. By his conquests the knowledge of mankind was increased; the sciences of geography, natural history, and others received vast additions; and it was through him that a road was opened to India, and that Europeans became acquainted with the products of the remote East."

ALEXANDER SEVERUS, a Phœnician by birth, related to Heliogabalus, who attempted his life, in consequence of which the prætorian guards slew the monster, and made Alexander emperor in his seventeenth year. He proved himself worthy of the sceptre, and having gained a great victory over the Persians, on his return to Rome was honored by a triumph. When he marched into Gaul, where an irruption of the Germans

required his presence, he fell, by a mutiny of his troops, in the year 235, after a reign of twelve years. He was temperate, frugal, humane, and so favorably disposed to Christianity, that he placed the statue of Jesus in his private chapel.

ALEXANDER, the name of seven popes, the first of whom introduced the use of holy water. The sixth was remarkable for his cruelty and the infamy of his son, Cæsar Borgia. He died in 1503, having greatly extended the papal dominions in Italy.

ALEXANDER NEVSKOI, grand duke of Russia, a hero and saint of the Russian church, was born in 1218, and died 1263

ALEXANDER I., of Russia. [*See* ROMANOFF.]

ALEXANDRIA was the Greek capital of ancient Egypt, and under the Ptolemies, whose favorite residence it was, was celebrated for its wealth, splendor, and arts. It was founded in 332 B.C. by Alexander, who employed the celebrated architect, Dinocrates, in beautifying and embellishing it, and sprang at once into beauty and importance. The situation of Alexandria, and the excellence of its fine harbors, appeared to adapt it to the rank which its founder hoped that it would hold among the cities of the world. Ptolemy Soter, or the Savior, and Ptolemy Philadelphus, conferred great benefits upon the city, which became the seat of literature, the resort of the learned of all countries, and an important mart. Its earliest inhabitants were Greeks and Egyptians. The population was augmented by colonies of Jews transported thither for that purpose. These people made themselves familiar with Grecian lore, and translated into the Greek language the whole of the Old Testament, a version called the Septuagint. Four hundred thousand volumes of the royal library were contained in a magnificent edifice belonging to the academy and museum, in which Euclid taught; 300,000 more were deposited in the temple of Jupiter Serapis. As all these works were in manuscript, their value was immense. The Ptolemies spared no pains to enrich their library, which became the finest in the world. When Julius Cæsar besieged Alexandria, 47 B.C., the library was injured by fire, but the loss was repaired by the library of Pergamus which Antony presented to Queen Cleopatra.



CLEOPATRA'S NEEDLE.

It was much injured by the Christians under Theodosius the Great, and the Arabs completed the devastation. When the division of the Roman empire was effected, Alexandria, together with the country of which it was the capital, was included in the Eastern empire. Alexandria came into the hands of the Arabs in 640. It received the attention of the Caliph Motawakel, who, mindful of its former state, restored both the library and academy, in 845. In 868, it was taken by the Turks, and under their sway, very rapidly declined. Still its commerce was in a flourishing state, and continued so until the close of the fifteenth century, when the Portuguese, by the discovery of the passage to the Indies by the Cape of Good Hope, altered the commercial channel, and enriched themselves at the expense of the Egyptians. The modern city of Alexandria occupies only a part

of the site of the ancient city. The remains of ancient Alexandria are unimportant, the red granite obelisks called Cleopatra's needles, and Pompey's pillar, being the most conspicuous. The latter was erected by a prefect of Egypt, in honor of the Emperor Diocletian; but the equestrian statue which formerly surmounted it, is gone. Some years past, a party of English sailors resolved to amuse themselves, and astonish the natives, by mounting to the top, and refreshing themselves at an elevation which should put them above the cares and turmoils of humanity. How to accomplish their purpose was the next question. This was soon settled. They raised a line by means of a kite, and dropped it over the pillar, and by this means drew up a rope, by which they gained the top, whence, looking down upon the spectators from a giddy elevation of eighty-eight feet, they con-

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gratulated themselves on their success. The island of Pharos yet bears the ruins of the light-house erected by the Ptolemies. This celebrated building was of white marble. Ptolemy directed his name to be inscribed upon the tower, but the cunning architect carved the name of his employer upon a tablet of plaster, which, decaying in time, displayed the name of the builder, with a dedication to the gods, claiming for himself all the honors due to his sovereign. One of Cleopatra's needles was presented to England by the pacha, but its weight, 400,000 pounds, was a serious bar to its transportation. The ancient Alexandria had a population of 600,000; the modern contains about 60,000. It is the seat of a patriarch. It is the only port of Egypt, and the ancient canal communication with the Nile has been reopened. This, and the establishment of the overland route to India, have increased its importance.

A battle was fought at Alexandria, March 21st, 1801, between the French under Menou and the British under Abercrombie. The latter gained the day. Abercrombie was mortally wounded.

ALFIERI, Victor, Count, was born at Asti in Piedmont, in 1749. His family was rich and distinguished, but, an orphan from childhood, his education was neglected, like that of most of the young Italian nobles of his age and rank. Thus he quitted the academy of Turin, with an undisciplined and uninformed mind, and joined a regiment in the hope of finding something exciting in military pursuits. But here he was disappointed: the regiment was mustered only a few days in the year, and he was compelled to seek some other mode of killing time. For several years he led a dissipated and wandering life through Italy, France, England, and Holland, but wanted the information to render his wanderings profitable. A love for horses and horsemanship was one of his two strongest passions. The other involved him in a swarm of profligate amours. Yet by one of these affairs, his poetical susceptibility and his literary ambition were for the first time aroused. Aware of his deficiencies, he resolved to educate himself. He studied assiduously Latin and Tuscan. In Tuscany, he became acquainted with the Countess of Albany, the unhappy wife of the Chevalier

Charles Edward Stuart. To her love he owed much of his inspiration. Settling his fortune on his sister, he resided alternately at Florence and Rome, until the death of Charles Stuart put an end to the woes of the Countess of Albany, and enabled her to marry him. They lived together in Alsace and at Paris, until the revolution in France drove Alfieri from a country he loved, to his native land, where he resided at Florence till his death, in 1803. Alfieri's talents were great, but misapplied, and his tragedies are rather valuable as indicating his powers, than as establishing his fame.

ALFRED THE GREAT, was born 849, and died 900. He was the youngest son of Ethelwolf, king of the West Saxons, and was born at Wantage, in Berkshire. He went to Rome at the age of five years, and was anointed by the pope, although he then had an elder brother. This brother, Etheldred, fell in battle with the Danes, and in 872, Alfred ascended the throne. This was an unpropitious time, for the power of the Danes was then great and employed in harassing the Saxons, whose country they ravaged in various directions. Alfred concluded some treaties with them, but they were not kept, and unable to make head against the invaders, he was compelled to fly, and in concealment to await a moment when his reappearance would be advantageous for his country. The old chronicles tell that he found refuge in a peasant's hut at Athelney in Somersetshire. The goodwife set the disguised monarch to watch the baking of cakes. His mind was busy with the Danes; the cakes burned to a coal; and the words of his mistress were loud and sharp. In the disguise of a harper, he penetrated the Danish camp to gain information of the strength and hopes of his foes. Having satisfied himself of both, he directed his nobles and their vassals to assemble at Selwood. Here he headed the troops, and, attacking the Danes at Eddington, gained a signal victory. A series of successes soon restored him his throne. He permitted those Danes who were willing to embrace the Christian religion, to remain in the kingdom of East Anglia, which he surrendered to them. He built forts to secure his subjects, augmented and strengthened his navy, and established the prosperity of London on a

firm basis. He defeated the Danes who still persisted in attempting to obtain footing in England, and made his name a terror to the pirates. He had fought fifty-six battles by sea and land, in every one of which he was personally engaged. His zeal for the reformation of laws and manners is as honorable to him as his military prowess. He composed a valuable code. By some he is said to have instituted the trial by jury, and to have divided England into shires, hundreds and tithings. But it is probable that the jury trial and these municipal divisions had previously subsisted among the Anglo-Saxons, and that Alfred confirmed them upon a surer basis. He so arranged the business of the nation that all measures passed through three councils. To the first of these only those high in the king's confidence were admitted, and here were debated all affairs that were to be laid before the second council, which consisted of bishops and nobles, appointed by the king. The third was a general assembly of the nation, called Wittenagemote, to sit in which quality and offices gave a right independent of the king. In these councils we discern the origin of the present cabinet, privy council, and parliament of England.

Alfred was an ardent lover of learning, and was himself a distinguished scholar. He invited learned men from all parts, and established schools throughout his kingdom. He is said to have been the founder of the university of Oxford, or, at least, to have exalted it to a height which it had never before attained. University College sprang from his liberality. He composed several works, and translated others into Anglo-Saxon for the benefit of his subjects. Among his translations may be mentioned the "Consolations of Philosophy" of Boethius, and perhaps the Psalms of David and the Fables of Æsop. He was industrious and fond of order, dividing the twenty-four hours into three equal portions; one devoted to religious duties, another to public affairs, and the third to rest. Alfred laid the foundation of the navy of England, by building galleys of a size superior to that of any of the age. In private life, he was distinguished by piety, affability, and cheerfulness. His person was commanding and stately.

ALGIERS. The state formerly known as

the regency of Algiers is now in possession of the French, and called by them L'Algerie. It comprises the territory of the kingdom of Numidia, which was reduced to a Roman province 44 B.C., and afterward subjugated by the Vandals, then by the Byzantine Greeks, and finally by the Arabs, who invaded the north of Africa at the beginning of the eighth century and established Islamism. The city of Algiers was founded by Zeiri, an Arab of distinction, in 944, and his family were endowed with hereditary power by one of the Fatimite caliphs.

The Zeirite dynasty ruled until 1148, when Roger, king of Sicily, and the Moravites, possessed themselves at different times of the whole of the territory of Hassad Ben Ali. Algiers was again an independent sovereignty after 1270. The regency of Algiers, tributary to the Turkish sultan, was founded about 1518, by Horush (nicknamed *Barbarossa*) and his brother Khair-ed-din, two Turkish corsairs who were summoned by the Algerines to beat back Ferdinand of Spain, and who usurped the government. It was about this time that the Christian knights, having warred against the Mohammedan states, and almost annihilated the Moorish commerce, the Moslem rulers exhorted their subjects to make reprisals, and to annoy their foes by extensive piracies. The call was obeyed without reluctance, and the Mohammedans, crowded beneath the crescent, spread the terror of their name upon the seas. The piratical republic founded by the fierce chieftains above named, was the stronghold of religious fanaticism and authorized piracy. The barks of the corsairs swept the seas in triumph, and the Algerines distinguished themselves above the inhabitants of the other Barbary states, by the fierce perseverance with which they pursued their career of crime.

Charles V. undertook the siege of Algiers, in the latter part of 1541, with an armament of two hundred sail and thirty thousand men. But his ships and camp were destroyed by storms of uncommon violence, followed by the ravages of earthquakes. He lost his cannon, military stores, and baggage, and was compelled to abandon some of his scattered troops, while fifteen ships of war, a hundred and forty transports, and eight thousand men perished in the storm. This success

inspired the Moors with the liveliest joy, but they attributed it entirely to the pious exertions of Sid-Atica, a marabout who employed himself diligently in beating the sea with his stick, until the waves lost all patience, and, rising in a body, destroyed the Christian fleet. The worthy old gentleman was buried with great solemnity, and his bones rested beneath a monument erected by his countrymen. They were said to be gifted with the magic power of his stick, and, employed upon the waves with proper emphasis, capable of raising the wind to an incredible extent. Antiquity furnishes precedent for a belief in the efficacy of chastising the waters, for Xerxes, enraged at the turbulence of the Grecian waves, caused them to be whipped with rods.

The corsairs continued the scourge of Christendom. On even the coasts of England and Ireland they swooped, and "took prey of men to be made slaves." "They carried their English captives to France, drove them in chains overland to Marseilles, to ship them thence with greater safety for slaves to Algiers," an old historian says. Admiral Blake taught the pirates to respect the flag of England, in 1653; but they repulsed later attacks of that and other European powers. Many nations paid tribute to the dey, and thus bought freedom for their flags. In 1815 Commodore Decatur compelled the Algerines not only to renounce their claim to black mail from our shipping, but to make indemnification for the losses which we had experienced from their piracies. The city of Algiers was vigorously bombarded by a British fleet under Lord Exmouth, Aug. 27th, 1816. The dey was forced to conclude a treaty, by which all Christian slaves were set free, and he promised that no more captives should be reduced to that ignominious condition. This last stipulation was afterward evaded. The Algerines claimed the right, as an independent power, of declaring war against any state they chose, and of seizing its merchantmen, and keeping the crews in prison till peace was agreed on. In 1817 their corsairs penetrated the North Sea, and there, with surprising audacity, captured ships which did not belong to tributary powers, or to those who were exempted from their depredations by treaty. Prisoners were only ransomed at

enormous prices. Their treatment, now, instead of being ameliorated was more harsh than ever, and the corsairs, although they respected the flags of America and other strong powers, warred with the ships of weaker states, and enforced the superiority of might over right. The jealousy of the European states for a long time favored the encroachments of the Algerines, until the French prepared for conflict with stern decision. One of the last events in the reign of Charles X., was the entire prostration of the power of Algiers. The dey, with his personal treasures and his women, was permitted to retire, and selected Italy as a retreat. The French took possession of the town, the castle, and all public property whatsoever. Among the spoil were twelve ships of war, fifteen hundred brass cannon, and forty-eight million francs in gold and silver. They secured their conquest, and since then Algiers has been a military province of France.

During the prosperity of Algiers, a struggle was kept up with the Sublime Porte about the appointment of the deys, till the sultan finally relinquished the claim of choosing them to the soldiery, and retained but a nominal authority over Algiers. The deys, whenever they displeased the ferocious soldiery they affected to rule, were deposed and put to death. The lives of these men were proverbially short, but we admit an exception in the person of Mohammed III., who died in 1791, after a reign of twenty-three years, at the age of ninety-three. Omar Pacha, the opponent of Lord Exmouth, was murdered in 1817. Ali Hodya, his successor, shut himself up in the castle of Casaba, where, by means of his fifty-six cannon, and a garrison on which he could rely, he maintained ascendancy over the city and the cruel Turkish troops, who had murdered Omar. Hussein, successor of Hodya, rendered cautious by experience, likewise occupied this strong castle. The government of Algiers was despotic, the dey possessing unlimited power, but being assisted by a divan composed of his chief officers of state and first ministers. The common soldiers elected the dey, but no election was permitted without unanimity in the electors. Therefore, when there was a difference, the majority compelled the weaker party to concur with them. The new dey espoused the principle

of proscription, and frequently put to death incumbents, for the sake of opening state offices to his partisans. He held a court of justice on four days in the week, where proceedings were summary, and condemnation was followed by punishment at no long interval.

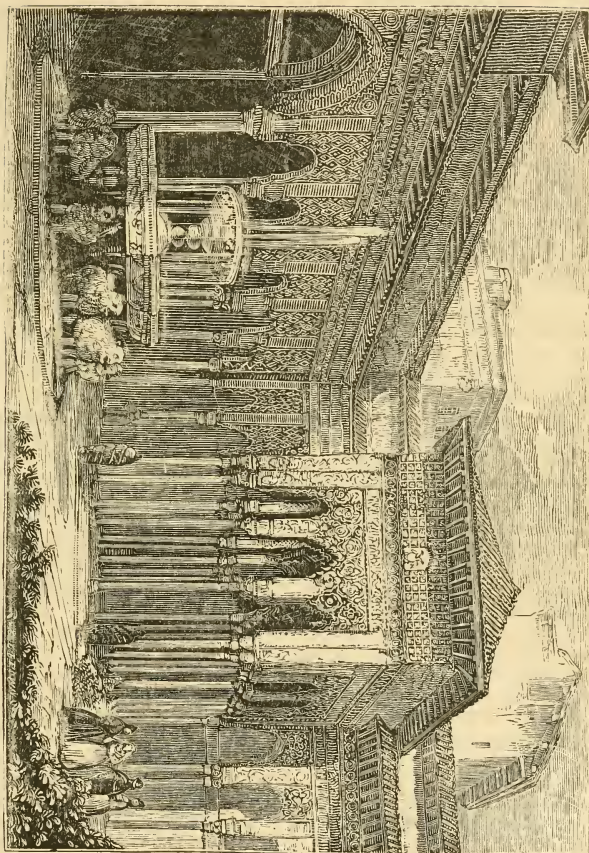
By the capitulation of the dey, the French became possessed "of the city of Algiers, and the forts and harbors depending on it." No mention was made of the provinces, or of the native tribes in the interior, over which the authority of the dey was little else than nominal. Ahmed Bey of Constantine and the Bey of Titteri refused allegiance, and were not subdued for several years. The grasping policy of the French alienated the Arab tribes moreover. In May, 1833, Abdel-Kader, the Emir of Mascara, took up arms against the invaders, and his leadership was soon recognized by all the Arabs. The contest between him and the French was not closed till December, 1847, when he surrendered and was sent with his family and attendants to France. There he remained a prisoner, treated however with much courtesy, till October, 1852, when he was released by Louis Napoleon. He swore upon the Koran never to disturb Africa again, and was to reside thenceforward at Broussa, in Asia Minor. In consequence of the earthquake at that place, Feb. 28th, 1855, he removed to Constantinople.

The French keep a large army in the colony. The European emigration settled in Algeria up to 1852, amounted to about seventy thousand, and it has since been rapidly augmented. The native races of the country consist of Berbers or Kabyles (the aboriginal inhabitant), Arabs, Moors, Kooloolis (descendants of Turks), Jews (who flocked hither when extirpated from Spain and Portugal), and negro slaves from Soudan. Slavery has been abolished by the French. The population of the city of Algiers in 1852 was 54,041, of whom 24,649 were native Mussulmans and Jews. The French have much improved its appearance; they have opened wide streets and squares, built fine houses in the European style, hotels, coffee-houses, a theatre, &c. The activity of the new settlers will soon change the look of the whole coun-

try. Constantine, the ancient Cirta, has a population of about 80,000.

ALHAMBRA was the fortified palace of the Moorish kings of Granada, a possession to which they clung with their latest grasp, and which was the best beloved spot in their terrestrial paradise. The meaning of the Moorish name is 'the red,' and it was so called from the deep red brick of which the pile is built. The Spanish term it the Sierra del Sol, because, from its situation on an eminence, it catches and reflects the first beams of the rising sun. The palace composes but a small portion of the fortress, whose walls encompass the crest of a lofty hill rising from the Sierra Nevada, or 'snowy mountain.' The fortress was at one time capable of containing forty thousand men. The Alhambra originally consisted of a summer palace and a winter palace. The latter was pulled down to make room for the palace commenced and never finished by Charles V. The pile that remains exhibits traces of the splendor of the arts among the Moors. A striking portion of the palace is the Court of Lions, which is a hundred feet in length, and fifty in breadth, surrounded by a beautiful colonnade seven feet broad at the sides, and ten at the ends. Two splendid porticoes, fifteen feet square, project into this court. The square is paved with tiles, the colonnade with white marble. The walls are covered with arabesques. The columns upon which the roof and gallery rest, are grotesquely ornamented and irregularly distributed. Over the columns is inscribed in Cufic characters, "And there is no conqueror but God." The capitals abound with curious devices. The fountain consists of twelve ill-shaped lions, bearing on their backs a large basin, out of which rises a smaller one. Here water gushed from the inner basin, and, passing through the lions, communicated by channels with other apartments. The fountain is of white marble and inscribed with Arabian distiches, like the following: "See'st thou how the water flows copiously like the Nile?" "The fair princess that walks by this garden, covered with pearls, ornaments its beauty so much, that thou mayest doubt whether it be a fountain that flows or the tears of her admirers."

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THE COURT OF LIONS. ALHAMBRA.

The hall beyond the colonnade on the south side was the place chosen by Boabdil for the execution of the chiefs of the Abencerrages, and their bleeding heads fell, as fast as they were decapitated, into the limpid waters of the fountain. The hall of the Two Sisters (*Torre de las dos Hermanas*) was named from two beautiful slabs of white marble, inserted in the pavement. *El Tocador*, or the Tiring Tower, was appropriated to the toilette of the sultana, who in one part had a marble slab in the floor perforated with holes, to admit vapor and perfumes for the purification of her person. The king's bed-chamber was furnished with fountains to cool the atmosphere, and the royal baths were commodious and superb. Beneath were vaults used as a cemetery by the Moorish monarchs. The regret of the Moors at leaving this place, which wealth, art, and taste had brought to such splendor, can easily be conceived. They never ceased to offer up prayers in their mosques for their restoration to Granada. After it fell into the hands of the believers, Alhambra continued to be a royal dmesne. Charles V. abandoned it as a residence in consequence of earthquakes; and Philip V., with his beautiful queen, Elizabeth of Parma, was the last royal tenant of this princely abode. Subsequently it became infested by a lawless population; this was expelled; but, owing to culpable negligence, the palace was permitted to fall into decay, from which the Moorish portion was partially rescued by the exertions of the French troops garrisoned in it from 1810 to 1812. The French, on their departure, blew up part of the walls of the fortress, and destroyed its importance as a military post. To the historian, the poet, the antiquary, and the artist, this relic of Moorish splendor possesses an indisputable interest. Nothing could be more plain and unattractive than its exterior, but within it was probably the most gorgeous specimen of Moorish architecture and decoration that has ever existed.

ALI, the cousin and son-in-law of Mahomet. When Mahomet, assembling his kinsmen, and making known to them his pretended mission, asked who would be his vizier, Ali, then only fourteen years of age, started up and exclaimed: "I will! Let but a man advance against thee, I will pluck out his

eyes, dash in his jaws, break his legs, and tear up his belly. O prophet, I am thy vizier." So well did he keep his word, that he was called the 'lion of the Lord,' the 'ever victorious.' He should have succeeded Mahomet, but being opposed successfully by Omar and Othman, he formed a sect of his own, and gained many followers. On the death of Othman, he was declared caliph, but was assassinated in a mosque, at Cufa, in the sixty-third year of his age, 669. The Persians belong to the sect of Ali.

ALI, Pacha of Janina, commonly called Ali Pacha, was born in Albania, in 1744, and at the age of sixteen, headed the followers whom the death of his father left with no other leader. In freebooting he was so unsuccessful, that he was forced to pawn his sabre to keep himself from starving. As he was sitting, ruminating upon his hard luck, and carelessly turning up the ground with his staff, he struck upon something hard. Curiosity induced him to search further, and he dug up a chest of gold! He now equipped a band of followers whose cruelty and rapacity made them formidable. Having rendered some service to the Porte, he obtained the pachalic of Janina in southern Albania, and maintained himself in almost independent sovereignty. He subjugated the Suliotes, became a formidable military potentate between 1790 and 1821, and raised Albania to power and renown that recalled the memory of its ancient Epirote princes. Having declared himself independent, and his capital, Janina, being taken, he was put to death by order of the sultan, in 1822. He was brave and able, but cruel, rapacious, false, ambitious, and suspicious. He had a Greek lady, Euphrosyne, and fifteen other women thrown into the sea, because he suspected that they exerted an undue influence over his son. If he wished to possess himself of a beautiful Greek girl, he sent his executioner to her parents, with this message, "Your daughter has found favor in the eyes of Ali." They were forced to surrender her, or fly.

ALLEN, ETHAN, brigadier-general in our revolutionary army, was born in Litchfield, Conn., Jan. 10th, 1737. His parents removed to Vermont, when he was quite young. In the contest between the settlers of Vermont and the colony of New York, which

began about 1770, he took so active a part that he was outlawed by New York and five hundred guineas were offered for his capture. Soon after the battle of Lexington, in compliance with the request of the legislature of Connecticut, he headed two hundred and thirty Green Mountain boys, and marched against the fortresses of Ticonderoga and Crown Point. At Castleton he was to have been joined by a reinforcement under Benedict Arnold, but the latter, unable to raise the proposed force, set forward with the Spartan band of Allen. On the night of the 9th of May, 1775, Allen landed eighty-three men near Ticonderoga, having with difficulty procured boats for that purpose. Day surprised him before his rear-guard was brought over, and he found himself compelled to attack the fort. He concluded an animated speech by saying, "I am going to lead you forward! The attempt is desperate. I wish to urge no man onward against his will. Those who will follow me, poise firelocks!" Every firelock was immediately poised. "On then, my boys!" said Allen, and led the central file to the wicket gate. He was opposed by a sentry, but brought his men through the covered way, and formed them on the parade. The huzzas of the assailants roused the commanding officer, Captain de la Place, from his slumbers. He awoke to find Allen holding a drawn sword over his head and demanding the surrender of the fortress. "In whose name?" asked the commander. "In the name of the Great Jehovah, and the Continental Congress." On the same day, by the capture of Crown Point, and the only armed vessel on Lake Champlain, that important lake was placed in Allen's power.

In the autumn, in conjunction with Col. Brown, he attempted the reduction of Montreal, but being attacked by the British before Col. Brown's troops came up, he was defeated and made prisoner. He was treated with great barbarity in his captivity; carried to England, and then to Halifax; thence to New York, where he remained a year and a half, before he was exchanged. His health having been greatly impaired, he returned to Vermont, where he was appointed to command the militia. He indignantly rejected the bribes offered by the British to attempt a union of Vermont with Canada. He died sud-

denly, at his estate at Colchester, Feb. 13th, 1789. He published some pamphlets, one of which contained an open declaration of infidelity. He adopted the most absurd ideas of the ancients, with regard to the transmigration of souls, often saying that he expected to live again in the form of a large white horse; but if we may believe the following anecdote, his atheism was insincere. When his daughter was dying, she sent for him, and said, "Father, I am about to die: shall I believe in what you have taught me, or in the Christian principles my mother teaches." After a moment of convulsive agitation, he replied, "Believe in what your mother has taught you."

ALLIANCES. Between the confederate Greeks, against Troy, B.C. 1194-84. Between the Romans and the Carthaginians, B.C. 508. Between the Athenians, Thebans, Corinthians, and Argives, against the Lacedæmonians, B.C. 395. It is not a little remarkable, that in the long course of Roman conquest, not one well arranged and conducted alliance was formed and contributed to restrain her power. In modern ages, alliances in the true sense of the term, are recent. The crusades were really a species of alliance, but with very little of the system of modern alliances. The league of Cambray, formed Dec. 10th, 1508, between Louis XII. of France, Maximilian of Germany, Pope Julius II., and Ferdinand of Spain, against the Venetians, was the first of those coalitions so disastrous or beneficial, as the case may be, which have so deeply influenced modern European policy. By it Venice was forced to cede to Spain her possessions in the kingdom of Naples. Those of most importance since have been, a league between Henry VIII. of England and the Emperor Charles V., against Francis of France. The league of the princes of Germany in favor of Protestantism, at Smalcald, Dec. 22d, 1530. Between Francis I. of France and Sultan Solymán, against Charles V., 1536; renewed in 1542. Between Charles V. and Pope Paul III., against the Protestants, 1546. Between Spain, Venice, and Pope Pius V., against the Turks, 1570. Between England and the states-general of Holland, against Spain, 1578. Union of Utrecht, whereby began the Dutch republic of the Seven United Provinces, 1579. Evangelical league,

formed in 1626, between the Protestant princes of Germany and Denmark (Sweden afterward acceded), against the Emperor Ferdinand I. Triple alliance between England, Sweden, and the states-general of Holland, against France, 1668. Alliance of the empire and Holland against France, July 15th, 1672. League of Augsburg against France, July 11th, 1686. Grand alliance between Emperor Leopold I., the states-general of Holland, and William III. of England, against France, May 12th, 1689. First treaty of partition, between England and Holland, for regulating the Spanish succession, 1698. Second treaty of partition, between France, England, and Holland, declaring the Archduke Charles heir presumptive of the Spanish kingdom, 1700. Alliance of Germany, England, and Holland, against France, Spain, and Portugal, 1701. Barrier treaty of Antwerp, between Germany, Holland, and England, by which the Low Countries were ceded to the empire, Nov. 15th, 1715. Quadruple alliance between Great Britain, France, Germany, and Holland, to guarantee the succession of the reigning families in Great Britain and France, and to settle the partition of the Spanish monarchy, Aug. 2d, 1718. Defensive alliance between Great Britain and Prussia, 1742. Between Great Britain and Prussia, Feb. 16th, 1756; renewed April 11th, 1758, without any regular compact. France, Austria, Russia and Sweden, were at the epoch of the last mentioned alliance between Great Britain and Prussia, actually in the field against Prussia. To the United States, if not to the world, the most important of all alliances or confederations was that of the British North American colonies. This great union, not for war, but defense, after many incipient steps, was formed in 1775; announced to the world as free and independent, July 4th, 1776; received the general name of the United States, by a resolution of Congress, Sept., 1776, and was consummated by the adoption of a federal constitution of government, March 3d, 1789. First coalition against France, by Great Britain, Prussia, Austria, Sardinia, &c., 1793. Second, by Great Britain, Germany, Russia, Naples, Portugal, and Turkey, June 22d, 1799. Third, by Great Britain, Austria, and Naples, Aug. 5th, 1805. Fourth, by Great

Britain, Russia, Prussia, and Saxony, Aug. 6th, 1806. Fifth, by Great Britain and Austria, April 6th, 1809. Sixth, by Russia and Prussia, March 17th, 1813. Sweden joined the grand alliance against Napoleon, March 13th, 1813. Alliance of Toplitz between Austria, Russia, Prussia, and Great Britain, Sept. 13th, 1813. Holy Alliance, between Austria, Russia, and Prussia, 1815. Alliance of England, France, and Turkey, against Russia, signed at Constantinople, March 12th, 1854; ratified by the first two powers, April 3d, 1854; joined by Sardinia, Jan. 26th, 1855.

ALLSTON, WASHINGTON, was born in Charleston, S. C., Nov. 5th, 1779. He fitted for college at Newport, R. I., and entered Harvard University in 1796, graduating four years after. He had inherited a handsome patrimony, and he determined to devote himself to art. For this purpose he repaired to London in 1801, and entered as a student in the Royal Academy. Benjamin West, who had just succeeded Sir Joshua Reynolds as president of the institution, warmly welcomed his young countryman. Two years were well spent in London; then Allston enriched his pencil awhile amid the rich collection of the Louvre, richer than ever with the spoils that Napoleon had borne there; and soon after we find him settled in Rome, where he dwelt four years. There he formed an acquaintance with Coleridge, which became a close friendship. He studied his art diligently, and by fellow-artists was held in high esteem. He returned to America in 1809. The public mind was absorbed in politics, and Art could not gain its attention. Allston had married, and needed that the profession in which his genius and skill were so great, should support him. After two years' trial he repaired to London again. There he was embarrassed by the hostilities which arose between the two countries. He lost heart, was laid low by a long and serious illness, and had but a little while recovered when he was bereft of his cherished and lovely consort. When again he resumed the pencil, he found his pictures sought for by the most approved judges, and he was no less beloved for the qualities of his heart than admired for his genius. He returned to America in 1818, and for the remaining

twenty-five years of his life Boston or its vicinity was his residence. Here he found cordial welcome from a wide circle of friends, and a patronage only limited by his power of producing. His great historical painting, "Belshazzar's Feast," unfinished as it is, furnishes decisive proof that in the highest branch of the art he has had no equal in the present century. His relative, Mr. Dana, in the preface to Mr. Allston's "Lectures on Art," thus describes his last hours: "His death occurred at his own house, in Cambridge, a little past midnight, on the morning of Sunday, the 9th of July, 1843. He had finished a day and week of labor in his studio, upon his great picture of 'Belshazzar's Feast;' the fresh paint denoting that the last touches of his pencil were given to that glorious but melancholy monument of the best years of his later life. Having conversed with his retiring family with peculiar solemnity and earnestness upon the obligation and beauty of a pure spiritual life, and on the realities of the world to come, he had seated himself at his nightly employment of reading and writing, which he usually carried into the early hours of the morning. In the silence and solitude of this occupation, in a moment, 'with a touch as gentle as the morning light,' which was even then approaching, his spirit was called away to its proper home." Allston was an author as well as an artist, and published a volume of poems and several works of fiction.

ALMA, BATTLE OF THE. The English and French armies moved out of their first encampment in the Crimea, Sept. 19th, 1854, and bivouacked for the night on the left bank of the Bulganac. The Russians (commanded by Prince Menschikoff) mustering 40,000 infantry, had 180 field-pieces on the heights of the Alma, and on the morning of the 20th were joined by 6,000 cavalry. The English force, under Lord Raglan, consisted of 25,000 men; the French, under Marshal St. Arnaud, of 23,000. At twelve o'clock the signal to advance was made, and the river Alma crossed under the severe fire of the Russian batteries. After four sanguinary hours the allies were completely victorious. The Russians flung away their arms and knapsacks in their hasty flight, having lost about 5,000 men, of whom 900 were made

prisoners. The loss of the English was 353 killed, 1,612 wounded; that of the French, 236 killed, 1,087 wounded.

ALPS, the loftiest system of mountains in Europe. Mont Blanc, the highest, is 15,777 feet high, Monte Rosa, 15,206 and Monte Cervin, 14,835. Separating Italy from Spain, France, and Germany, it would seem as if they opposed an insurmountable barrier to the march of conquest; but they have been several times crossed by large armies, the expeditions of Hannibal and Bonaparte being the most celebrated. Bonaparte passed the Great St. Bernard, in the year 1800, and swooped like a hawk upon the plains of Italy. His army met with obstacles which only genuine enthusiasm enabled them to surmount. They had to draw their artillery along narrow paths, in many places almost perpendicular, and over mountains of snow. A very small force would have arrested their progress, but they met no opposition. They reached St. Peter, near the Great St. Bernard, on the 15th of May, General Berthier acting as Bonaparte's lieutenant. Here the whole park of artillery was collected. The mountain they had to pass over was wild and barren, with a vast extent of snow and ice, mingled with terrific silence. Over this frightful route the mind of Bonaparte had conceived the possibility of passing his army with all its artillery, baggage, &c. The cannon, caissons, forges, &c., were immediately dismantled, piece by piece; a number of trees were hollowed like troughs, in which the pieces of cannon might safely slide, and five or six hundred men drew them up these tremendous heights; the wheels were carried on poles; sledges conveyed the axle-trees; and empty caissons and mules were loaded with the ammunition-boxes made of fir.

The consul took no more baggage than was absolutely necessary. Five hours were consumed in climbing as high as the monastery of the Bernardines, where the good fathers gave each individual a glass of wine; this, though frozen, was to them delicious, and not one would have exchanged it for all the gold of Peru. There were still six leagues to go, and the rapidity of the descent made that distance truly terrible; men and horses constantly falling, and often recovering with the greatest difficulty. The march commenced



MONT BLANC.

at midnight, and did not finish till about nine o'clock the next evening. For nearly fourteen leagues the army had scarcely had a meal, or any repose, and at the end of the journey, sleep hung so heavily even upon the most robust of them, that they resigned themselves to it without a struggle, or a thought of their evening repast. Bonaparte traversed a portion of the way attended only by a peasant. He was dressed in the little gray surtout and cocked hat, in which artists delight to represent him. He conversed with his companion, and learned that his wishes centered in the possession of a little farm. The farm was afterward presented to the peasant, whose delight and surprise may be readily imagined.

Over the pass of the Simplon a magnificent road leading from Switzerland into Italy was constructed by order of Napoleon in 1801-6.

It winds up passes, crosses cataracts, and tunnels through solid rock. It has eight principal bridges. Between thirty and forty thousand workmen were employed upon this undertaking at once.

ALVA, FERDINAND ALVAREZ, Duke of, descended from a high Castilian family, born in 1508, distinguished himself in the career of arms at the age of seventeen, and was at the siege of Pavia. Charles V. made him a general, and he was commander at the siege of Mentz, where he fought with desperate but unavailing valor, for the siege was raised. He was noted for excessive cruelty and superstition. In the campaign against the pope, Alva compelled the pontiff to sue for peace, and then went to Rome to supplicate pardon for the offense. In 1567, he was sent to the Netherlands by Philip II., to reduce them more completely to the Spanish yoke, and

ALV

extirpate the Protestant heresy. The trucity of the Council of Blood, a military tribunal which he established, deluged the United Provinces in their best blood. At first the arms of Alva were successful, but the maddened malcontents afterward gaining head, he was recalled. In Portugal, he acquired renown by his success in driving Don Antonio from the throne. He died in 1582.

AMADEUS, the name of several of the Counts of Savoy, of whom Amadeus VI. was the most famous. He lent his powerful aid to John of France, against Edward of England, and was the ally of John Paleologus (Emperor of Greece), in 1365. His reign of forty years was glorious, and his death in 1383, deeply lamented.

AMAZONS, a fabulous race of female warriors in antiquity. They are said to have been the descendants of Scythians in Cappadocia, whose husbands were all slain in war. The widows resolved to form a female dominion. Having firmly established themselves, they decreed that matrimony was a shameful state. They were said to have been conquered by Theseus about 1231 B.C. These warlike women burned their right breasts off, that they might hurl the javelin with more force; whence their name, from the Greek *a* (no) and *μαστος* (*breast*). Orellana, the discoverer of the river Amazon, saw bands of armed women on its banks, whence he gave the stream that name.

AMBASSADORS and ministers plenipotentiary, have been from time immemorial, considered in some measure, privileged characters. Those of King David, about 1030 B.C., being insulted by the king of the Ammonites, led to a war destructive to the aggressors. The Roman ambassadors at Clusium, B.C. 390, mixing with the inhabitants in battle with the Gauls, Brennus, king of the latter, considered their conduct an act of hostility on the part of their country, raised the siege of Clusium, marched toward Rome, defeated the Romans at the Alia, and took, plundered, and burned Rome. In modern times the privileges of ambassadors have been more distinctly defined. In England during the protectorship of Oliver Cromwell, Don Pantaleon Sa, brother to the Portuguese ambassador in London, committed a murder in open day, and sought refuge in his brother's house; but the pro-

teCTOR refused to sanction such an asylum in a case of murder, and Sa was seized, tried, and hanged, 1653. About twenty years afterward, the Prince of Furstenburg was arrested at the diet of Ratisbon, for murder, by order of the Emperor of Germany, and the case of Sa given as a justification. In 1709, in England, the Russian ambassador was arrested for debt by a lace merchant, which led to an act of parliament exempting ambassadors, or their immediate suit, from arrest in civil cases.

The first ambassador from Russia to England, arrived in London, 1556. First from India to any part of Europe, was from Tippoo Saib to France, 1778. First from the United States was Silas Deane to France, 1776. First from the Ottoman emperor to Great Britain, 1793. The first from the United States to England was John Adams, presented to George III. June 2d, 1785. The first from England to America was Mr. Hammond, in 1791.

AMBROSE, St., was born at Treves about 340. He was Bishop of Milan, and died in 397. He introduced anthems into the church service, and the glorious "*Te Deum Laudamus*" is ascribed to him and Augustin, although some say a later date belongs to it.

AMERICA, one of the twin continents of the earth, including a vast extent of territory, embracing every variety of climate, and bearing within it, besides its precious ore and gems, the germs of immense wealth, remained undiscovered until the 11th of October, 1492, when Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, who had sailed from Spain with three small vessels under the patronage of Ferdinand and Isabella, seeking a westward way to India, first beheld a light on the shores of the new world, two hours before midnight. On the ensuing day he set foot in the virgin isle. Columbus felt the importance of the discovery, as, erecting the cross, and surrounded by his crew and the wild and wonder-stricken natives, he took possession of the new country in the name of the sovereigns of Spain. The Christian adventurers did not fail to kneel upon the sand, and offer up their thanks for having been preserved through the perils of a long voyage, and favored with such brilliant success to compensate for all their perils. This island was called Guanahani by the na-

tives, a name which Columbus altered to St. Salvador, and was one of the Bahamas. He then visited other adjacent islands, and proceeded to Cuba and Hayti; the latter he called Hispaniola. In subsequent voyages he discovered Jamaica and Trinidad, and landed on the coast of South America near the mouth of the Orinoco.

It is worthy of remark, that the vast continent which Columbus discovered was not called by his name, but derived its appellation from Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine navigator, who made some subsequent discoveries, in company with Alonzo de Ojeda, in 1499, and was the first to publish an account of the new countries. The work which he issued became very popular and was soon translated into several different languages. Thus Amerigo Vespucci attained a greater degree of celebrity than he merited, and, by the concurrence of all classes, gave his name to that extensive and important country which another had discovered. Neither was Columbus the first to reach the continent. He did not touch upon South America till May 30th, 1498. Almost a year sooner, June 24th, 1497, Sebastian Cabot had reached the coast of North America.

The wondrous field for exploration and discovery that Columbus had opened was soon thickly occupied. In 1498, Cabot in a second expedition visited Newfoundland. In 1500, Pedro Alvarez Cabral, admiral of a Portuguese fleet bound for the East Indies around the Cape of Good Hope, blundered upon Brazil. Nunez de Balboa saw the Pacific Ocean from a mountain near Panama, in 1513. He was transported with delight as he beheld its waves sparkling in the light of the sun, and appearing to glitter with that gold which the natives told him abounded in the country to the south. He imagined that he had found the Indies, a region then the greatest ambition of European adventurers to reach. He acquainted the Spanish court with his discovery, and solicited an appointment proportionate to the extent of his services. He was, however, grievously disappointed; the government of Darien was obtained by Davila, and this rival, finding a pretext for wreaking his vengeance upon Balboa, had him executed publicly in 1517. In 1513, Diaz de Solis landed on the south-east coast of South America, about the mouth of the Rio de la Plata, where he and several of

his crew were killed, roasted, and eaten by the savages. In 1520 Magellan passed through the straits that bear his name and crossed the Pacific.

The Spaniards entertained the most exaggerated ideas of the wonders of the New World. To most of them, it appeared a realm of magic, a fairy-land, in which supernatural occurrences were by no means infrequent. Thus Juan Ponce de Leon, in 1512, fitted out three ships from Porto Rico, of which he was governor, and set forth in search of a fountain which was fabled to restore all who bathed in it, even if they were tormented by the infirmities of extreme old age, to the freshness, vigor, and beauty of youth. Although he failed to find the fountain, he made the discovery of Florida. As the Spaniards had been foremost in American discovery, so they were first in conquest and settlement. Early in the sixteenth century Cortez conquered Mexico, and not long after Pizarro subjugated Peru. More than a hundred years elapsed after North America was first visited by Cabot, before an English colony was established in the country.

The external appearance of the New World has much which presents a very marked contrast to the superficial features of the Old. A stupendous chain of elevated mountains traverses the whole continent, running from north to south, and even under the equator, where, upon the low lands the most intense heat is felt, these tall mountains elevate their heads into the region of intense cold. Everything in the New World appears to be of greater magnitude than the corresponding objects in the Old. The lakes are vast inland oceans, exhibiting in storms the striking and sublime aspects of the great deep, rolling as mighty waves, and shaken by an equal convulsion. The rivers are of prodigious size, and the plains of extraordinary extent. Over those of South and North America, countless herds of wild cattle roam at will. The American continent stretches from the icy ocean of the north to the cold regions of the south. It is composed of two great peninsulas linked by an isthmus. The Atlantic washes its eastern coast, the Pacific its western. Its length, from 80° N. lat. to 55° S. lat., exceeds 9,000 miles; its greatest breadth is between Cape St. Roque in Brazil and Cape Parina in Peru, where it is upward of 3,250 miles wide. The

narrowest part is the Isthmus of Panama, which divides it into North and South America; the isthmus is only twenty-eight miles wide. The area of North America, not including the West Indies, may be estimated at 7,779,218 square miles, and its population at 35,774,498; the area of South America at 6,199,080 square miles, and its population at 18,033,465. About half the population of the continent are whites; the other half, native Indians, negroes, and mixed races.

The New World was inhabited by a race of men differing, in many respects, from the natives of the eastern hemisphere. The Indians of North America varied, in many particulars, from those of the southern portion of this vast continent, and the aboriginal inhabitants of Mexico, at the time when they were first visited by the Spaniards, had attained a greater degree of refinement than was found by the Europeans in any other quarter of the New World. Malte Brun has thus described the general personal appearance of the aborigines: "The natives of this part of the globe are in general large, of a robust frame, well proportioned, and without defects of conformation. They have a bronzed or coppery red complexion, as it were ferruginous, and very like cinnamon or tannin; the hair black, long, coarse, shining, and scanty; the beard thin, growing in tufts; the forehead short, the eyes elongated, and having the corners pointing upward to the temples; the eyebrows high, the cheek bones projecting, the nose a little flattened, but marked; the lips wide, the teeth serrated and sharp; in the mouth an expression of mildness, which is contrasted with a sombre, and severe, and even hard expression of countenance; the head rather square, the face large without being flat, but diminishing toward the chin; the features taken in profile, projecting and strongly marked; the belly high, the thighs large, the legs bowed, the foot large, and the whole body squat." Such are said to be the general characteristics of the aborigines of this continent, with perhaps two exceptions, the Esquimaux at the northern extremity and the Patagonians at the southern. The copper or bronze hue of the skin is, with some slight exceptions, common to almost all the native nations of America, whatever the climate, the situation, or the mode of living.

In regard to the peopling of the continent, various conjectures have been formed, and nothing is known. Some have supposed that the lost tribes of Israel wandered hither; others that the Mexicans were of Egyptian ancestry; some that the Carthaginians, and others that the ancient Celts, made expeditions to America. What surmise too fanciful to meet with supporters, when facts are few and doubtful. Perhaps the theory of the Asiatic origin of the Americans has been most generally accepted. The question is buried in obscurity. The great number of separate languages goes to show that the American tribes must have long existed in the savage solitude in which the Europeans found them plunged. There are scattered over the continent traces of the labor of man that belong to no race known since its discovery by Europeans. The mounds in our western states, overgrown with primeval trees; the teocallis of Mexico, the strange remains of Central America, and the ruins of Peru; these, their buried trinkets and utensils, their hieroglyphics, idols, ornaments, and sculpture, speak variously of arts, religions, civilizations, and races that were above the savage, and were gone before the European came.

North America is politically divided into the republics of the United States, Mexico and Central America, the British and Russian possessions, and the tracts still possessed by native tribes. The north-western coast has been discovered and held by the Russians. Greenland is subject to Denmark. The population of Danish America is stated at 10,000, that of Russian America at 66,000. Over the broad tract usually called British America the Hudson's Bay Company have control. The British provinces lie between this territory and the United States. They consist of Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland. The extent of these, in square miles, is about 2,425,000, and the present population may be computed at 2,515,000. [See CANADA, UNITED STATES, MEXICO, CENTRAL AMERICA.] The Bermudas are under the control of England, and the West Indies are possessed by various European powers. [See WEST INDIES.]

South America is thus divided. The northern portion, formerly Colombia, is now cut into the three republics of New Grenada, Ven-

ezucla, and Ecuador. To the south of these on the western coast, lie the republics of Peru, Bolivia, and Chili. The states of the Argentine Confederation, formerly known as the United Provinces of La Plata, lie between the two last-mentioned states and the Atlantic. Buenos Ayres once belonged to this confederacy, but is now a distinct republic. The empire of Brazil is the largest of South American states. South of it lies the republic of Uruguay. Paraguay lies south-west of Brazil, between the rivers Paraguay and Parana. Guiana is a tract on the north-eastern coast between the mouths of the Amazon and the Orinoco. The southern part of the continent is called Patagonia. Further information concerning the countries of America will be found under the articles devoted to them separately.

AMERICUS VESPUCCIUS, a Florentine navigator, of an ancient family, born 1451. His first voyage to America was made under Ojeda, a year after its discovery by Columbus, and yet the vast continent bears his name, while that of the great discoverer is applied to it only by poetical courtesy. In the glowing narrative which he wrote, he appropriated the laurels of Columbus to his own brow, and strengthened his claims by a tale of a voyage made before that in which Columbus touched South America. This was afterward proved a falsehood, but the old world had already named its new-born sister America. Vespucci died in Spain in 1512 or 1514.

AMES, FISHER, was born in Dedham, Mass., April 9th, 1758. He was educated at Harvard College, which he left with high character. After instructing a school for some years, in 1781 he commenced the practice of law, and becoming distinguished for his oratorical powers, and his success as a political essayist, was chosen member of the legislature. He was the first representative of the Suffolk district in the Congress of the United States, in which he remained during Washington's administration. On the retirement of Washington, Mr. Ames, whose health had been impaired, occupied himself in farming at Dedham, and practicing law. But although his voice was unheard in public, his pen was not inactive, and the publication of various essays proved the interest which he continued to take in politics until the time of his death,

July 4th, 1808. Fisher Ames had fine features, and a commanding person, and his manner in speaking was expressive, although not characterized by studied grace. His conversational abilities are said to have been of the highest order. His father, Nathaniel, was a physician, and well versed in astronomy.

AMHERST, JEFFERY, Lord, was born in 1717. He commenced his military career in 1731, and regularly rose to the rank of field-marshal. He was at Dettingen, Fontenoy, Rocoux, commanded at the siege of Louisburg, and reduced the Canadas. He was successively governor of Virginia, and of the isle of Jersey, and commander-in-chief of the British army. He died in 1798.

AMIENS, an ancient city of the old province of Picardy in France, ninety-two miles north of Paris, having a population of 47,000. Its cathedral is one of the most magnificent Gothic edifices in the world. Here, March 27th, 1802, peace was concluded between Great Britain, Holland, France, and Spain.

AMPHICTYONIC COUNCIL, established at Thermopylae by Amphictyon, for the management of all affairs relative to Greece, 1498 B.C. It consisted of twelve delegates. Other cities in process of time sent also some of their wisest and most virtuous men, till the number was increased to thirty. This is the first instance on record, of a free representation of independent states, meeting to deliberate and settle their concerns by the force of reason, in place of arms.

ANABAPTISTS, a fanatical sect which arose about 1525 in Germany. They taught that infant baptism was a contrivance of the devil, that there is no original sin, and that men have a free will in spiritual things. Munster in Westphalia they called Mount Zion, and one Mathias a baker was declared to be the king of Zion. Their enthusiasm led them to the maddest practices, and at length they rose in arms under pretense of gospel liberty. Their fanatical leader, John of Leyden, a tailor, defended himself in Munster for a whole year. After this, the execution of the leaders quelled the insurrection. Munster was taken, June 24th, 1535.

ANACREON, a Greek lyric poet of Teos, in Ionia, who flourished in the sixth century B.C. Polycrates, King of Samos, was his patron until his death. At Athens he was en-

couraged by Hipparchus, but the fall of the latter drove him from Athens, and he passed an old age of gayety at Abdera, where he was choked by a grape-stone in his eighty-fifth year. He was the poet of love and wine, practiced what he praised, and was much honored by the Greeks. Verse of a jovial or bacchanalian strain is called Anacreontic.

ANAXAGORAS, one of the Ionic philosophers, born at Clazomene, in Ionia, 500 B.C. died at Lampsacus at the age of seventy-two. Anaxagoras is celebrated as the friend of Pericles, and for his trial and condemnation at Athens for alleged impiety and a suspicion of favoring the interests of Persia. The intercession of Pericles softened his sentence from death into banishment. The researches of the Ionic school were confined to the nature and laws of physical phenomena, and Anaxagoras in his investigations groped near the thought of a great First Cause.

ANAXIMANDER, a disciple of Thales, whose chief study was mathematics and astronomy, born at Miletus, 610 B.C., died 546 B.C. He is said to have been the first who constructed maps and spheres.

ANDRE, JOHN. Among the various events which contributed to give a distinctive character to the war of our Revolution, the fate of Major Andre, a young English officer, can never be forgotten, nor the sad story of the close of his life ever read without a deep and painful interest. This young man was handsome, talented, brave, enthusiastic, generous, and accomplished, beloved by all his acquaintance, without distinction of country. He was born in England in 1749, entered the royal army with high hopes in 1771, and was well fitted to adorn an elevated station. His history is connected with that of the worst traitor who ever disgraced the name of America. This man was Benedict Arnold. His unrepressed extravagance had led him to incur heavy debts which he saw no means of discharging but by accepting the gold of the British as the price of treason to his country. In September, 1780, Arnold was in command of West Point, a post on the Hudson, of vast importance to the Americans. Arnold had selected for betrayal this fortress, which was almost impregnable from natural defenses, and from fortifications on which no care or expense had been spared. Arnold had opened

a correspondence with Sir Henry Clinton, under fictitious names and the pretense of mercantile business, through Major Andre, then holding the rank of adjutant-general. The young officer was conveyed up the river in the Vulture sloop-of-war, and, under a pass for John Anderson, came on shore in the night, and had an interview with Arnold. Morning surprised them before their business was transacted, and, as it was impossible for Andre to get on board the Vulture by daylight, he consented to remain hidden till the next night. In the course of the day, the Vulture altered her position, in consequence of a gun being brought to bear upon her, and the boatmen, at night, refused to take Andre on board.

The young officer found himself compelled to attempt to get to New York by land. Arnold gave him a pass, granting permission to John Anderson "to go to the lines of White Plains, or lower if he thought proper, he being on public business." Changing his uniform, which he had previously worn under a surtout, for a plain coat, he mounted a horse, passed the American guards in safety, and was congratulating himself on his escape, when three militia men, suddenly appearing, seized his bridle-rein, and demanded his business. Surprised, and off his guard, he did not produce his pass, but hastily asked the men where they belonged. "Down below," was the answer. "So do I," replied Andre, rejoiced to find them friends. But he was mistaken, and being pressed, he finally declared that he was a British officer. He begged them to suffer him to pursue his way, offering them gold, and a watch of great value. John Paulding, David Williams, and Isaac Van Wert were poor men; their dress bespoke it; but they loved their country, and despised a bribe. They might have answered Andre, in the words of another American, on another occasion, "Your king has not gold enough to buy us." They carried Andre before Lieutenant-Colonel Jameson, who commanded the troops on the lines. The captors of Andre were rewarded by Congress with an annual pension of two hundred dollars each, and a silver medal bearing on one side a shield inscribed "Fidelity;" and on the other the motto "Amor Patriæ."

Andre still passed as John Anderson. He

generously wished to save Arnold, and asked permission to write to him. This the commanding officer incautiously permitted, although in Andre's boots there had been found, in the handwriting of Arnold, returns of the state of the forces, and the condition of West Point, with other important papers. Arnold was at dinner when the letter arrived. Abruptly leaving the table, he ran down a steep bank, threw himself into a boat, and was rowed to the Vulture, which immediately got under sail, and carried the traitor to New York. Gen. Washington was soon apprised of the circumstances, and the same express which conveyed the intelligence, carried a letter from the prisoner, frankly avowing his name and the circumstances under which he had been forced to appear as an impostor. All the American officers who saw Andre, were struck with his candor and manliness, and there was not one who did not feel for his situation.

The consideration of his case was referred by Gen. Washington to a board of fourteen general officers, of which Gen. Green was president, and Steuben, Knox, and La Fayette were members. It was decided that he ought to be regarded as a spy, and the stern rules of war, and the necessity of an example, required that he should die upon the gibbet. He begged of Washington to be allowed to die as a soldier, but the patriotism of the general refused what his feelings would have granted. Led to the place of execution, Andre, surveying the instrument of his fate, asked with concern, "Must I die by this? I am reconciled to my death, but oh! not to the mode." Recovering his composure, he added, "It will be but a momentary pang." His countenance was unruffled and calm, to the very last moment of his life; the instant before he was launched into eternity, it exhibited a sunny serenity and high magnanimity which touched the hearts of all! At the last moment he was asked if he wished to say anything. "But this," he replied: "You will witness to the world, that I die like a brave man."

The kindest attentions were bestowed on Andre by the American officers, particularly by Alexander Hamilton, who did all in his power to soothe him. Far different was the treatment of the pious and patriotic Captain

Hale, a young American officer, who was taken as a spy, and ordered to be executed the next morning. He begged the use of a Bible, which was refused; to be allowed to write a letter to his mother, which poor privilege was also denied him. "The Americans," said the British commander, "shall not know that they have a rebel in their army who can die with so much firmness." On the occasion of the capture of some young American officers upon Long Island, they were brought before Sir Henry Clinton, who thus addressed them: "Gentlemen, do you know that I can hang every man of you as rebels, taken in arms against the king?" "Hang and be hanged!" bluntly exclaimed Lieut. Dunscomb, with the energy of a rough soldier; "I have lived for my country, and I am not afraid to die for her."

Andre's ashes, several years ago, were secured by the British, and conveyed to England, where a monument was erected to him in Westminster Abbey.

ANDROCLUS, a Dacian slave, of whom a story is told that he was exposed in the arena of a Roman circus, to fight a lion; but the animal forbore to injure him, because he had formerly extracted a thorn from his foot while in the Dacian wilds. Androclus was released, and used to lead the friendly lion about the city.

ANDROMACHE, the faithful and affectionate wife of Hector, prince of Troy, of whom she was so fond, as to feed his horses with her own hands. After his death, she was married to Neoptolemus, to whose share the lovely captive fell, and afterward to Helenus, son of Priam.

ANDROMEDA, daughter of Cepheus, king of Ethiopia, by Cassiopeia. She is fabled to have been exposed by Neptune to a sea-monster, from which she was delivered by Perseus. An explanation of the fable is offered in the supposition that she was courted by the captain of a ship, who attempted to carry her away, but was baffled by the enterprise and activity of a more faithful lover.

ANDROS, Sir EDMUND, royal governor of New York from 1674 to 1682, of New England from 1686 to 1689, and of Virginia from 1692 to 1698. His tyrannical administration in New England rendered his name obnoxious. His failure to seize the charter of Connecticut

AND

is told in another place. [See CHARTER OAK.] In April, 1689, the people of Massachusetts, irritated by his exactions, deposed Andros, put him in prison, and declared for William and Mary. The subsequent career of Andros in Virginia was more moderate. He died in England in 1714.

ANGLES, a tribe which occupied the country between the Weser and the Elbe, now a part of Prussia. In the fifth century, uniting with the Saxons, their powerful neighbors of the north, under the name of Anglo-Saxons, they effected the conquest of England. A small tract of land near the Danish peninsula, where some of them remained, is called at the present day Angeln.

ANGLESEY, HENRY WILLIAM PAGET, Marquis of, was born May 17th, 1768, the eldest son of the Earl of Uxbridge. At an early age he entered the army, and his first active service was in Flanders under the Duke of York in 1794. Toward the close of the year 1808, having been raised to the rank of a major-general, he joined Sir John Moore, and took a brilliant share in the Peninsular campaign. On his return to England he was a member of the Commons from 1806 to 1812. On the death of his father in the latter year, he took his seat in the upper house, as Lord Uxbridge. When Napoleon returned from Elba, Lord Uxbridge was given the command of the British cavalry in Flanders, and fought with great gallantry at Waterloo, where he lost a leg. Five days after the battle he was created Marquis of Anglesey. During the trial of Queen Caroline, the wife of George IV., he took the unpopular side in favor of the king, and when he was surrounded by a crowd who insisted upon his hurrahing for the queen, he cried out at last, "Well then, the queen! may all your wives be like her!" In April, 1827, he held office under Canning, and in 1828 was lord-lieutenant of Ireland under Wellington. Having expressed a strong sympathy with Catholic emancipation, he was recalled from Ireland and resumed his place in parliament, where he continued to advocate the Irish cause. The bill of Catholic emancipation having passed, Lord Anglesey was restored to the lord-lieutenancy of Ireland, and continued at that post until his resignation in 1833. He died in 1854.

ANHALT was an ancient principality in the north of Germany. The house of Anhalt traced their origin to Ascanius, grandson of Japhet the son of Noah! whose descendants were reputed to have migrated from the marshes of Ascania in Bithynia, and at last to have settled among the forests of Germany. Whether this somewhat lengthy pedigree be correct or not, it is certain that no family in Germany has produced a greater number of brave and skillful warriors than the house of Anhalt; beginning with Bernhard, who declined the imperial sceptre in 1198, because he deemed himself "too corpulent" for such a dignity; or from Wolfgang, one of the staunchest soldiers of the Reformation, who on being reinstated in his possessions exclaimed, "Old and poor as I am, I would give a thousand florins could I gibbet a pope;" down to Leopold, at the beginning of the last century, who led the Brandenburg troops to victory in the Low Countries and Italy, created the Prussian infantry, and invented the iron ramrod. The principality is now divided into three duchies, the former two of which are under the same monarch: Anhalt-Dessau, area 360 square miles, Anhalt-Köthen, area 318 square miles, population, of the united duchies in 1855, 114,850; Anhalt-Bernburg, area 339 square miles, population in 1855, 53,475.

ANNA, a heathen goddess, in whose honor the Romans instituted festivals. Several fabulous explanations of the origin of these celebrations have been given, but the most probable is the least poetic; that Anna was an industrious old lady of Bovillæ, and her apotheosis the reward of her kindness in daily supplying the Romans at Mount Sacer with cakes.

ANNA COMNENA, daughter of Alexis I., Emperor of the East, celebrated for her beauty and acquirements, born in 1083. Being defeated in a conspiracy for placing the crown on the head of her husband, she devoted her life to letters, and wrote the history of her father's reign. She died in 1148.

ANNE of Austria, was daughter of Philip III., of Spain, and was born in 1602. She became the wife of Louis XIII. of France, in 1615, but lived upon bad terms with him. On the death of Louis, she became sole regent during the minority of her son, Louis XIV., but made herself unpopular among her sub-

jects by reposing unbounded confidence in Cardinal Mazarin. Affairs assumed so threatening an aspect, that she was compelled to leave Paris. Tranquillity was restored at length, and when her son assumed the reins of power, in 1661, she went into retirement, in which she lived till her death, in 1666.

ANNE, daughter of John III., Duke of Cleves, was married in 1540, to Henry VIII. of England, who had fallen in love with her picture. He was soon, however, disgusted with the Flanders mare, as he coarsely termed her, and she quietly returned to her native land, where she died in 1557, happy in escaping the dangers by which Henry's queens were beset.

ANNE, Queen of England. [See STUART.]

ANSON, GEORGE, Lord, was born in 1697, in Staffordshire, and entered the navy at an early age. In his twenty-seventh year he gained the rank of post-captain, and when, in 1739, a war with Spain appeared inevitable, he was made commander of a squadron for the South Pacific. He sailed Sept. 18th, 1740, but encountering a violent storm, was prevented, for three months, from doubling Cape Horn, and was rejoined at Juan Fernandez, by only three of his eight vessels, in a wretched condition. He sailed for the coast of Peru, made some prizes, and burned the town of Paita, but found himself compelled to destroy all his disabled vessels but one. Having equipped this one, the *Centurion*, he retreated to Tinian, one of the Ladrone Islands. He refitted at Macao, and there formed the plan of taking the *Acapulco* galleon, which brought every year treasure from Mexico to exchange for goods at Manilla. To accomplish this bold purpose, he gave out that he had returned to England. Meanwhile, he directed his course to the Philippines, cruising in the vicinity of Cape Espiritu Santo. After about a month, the long expected galleon appeared, and, confident in her superior strength, eagerly commenced the fight. The British fought with cool, dauntless valor, and succeeded in making a prize of the galleon, whose gold and precious wares some have estimated at the worth of a million sterling. The whole amount of the booty previously taken was £600,000. Anson then returned to Macao, where he disposed of his prize. The Chinese were inclined to insult

his flag, but he maintained his rights with his characteristic pertinacity. From Macao, he sailed for England, which he reached June 15th, 1744, having escaped the French fleet which lay in the channel. Anson's perilous voyage threw new light upon the geography and navigation of the southern ocean.

He was liberally rewarded for his bravery and perseverance, being made, soon after his return, rear-admiral of the blue, and at no great distance from that period, rear-admiral of the white. In 1747, he gained a brilliant victory over the French under Admiral Jonquiere, off Cape Finisterre, and was consequently raised to the peerage with the title of Baron Anson of Soberton. *L'Invincible* and *La Gloire*, two French vessels, were taken by Anson on this occasion, and the captain of the former, on surrendering his sword, said, "Monsieur, you have conquered the *Invincible*, and *Glory* follows you."

Lord Anson was made first lord of the admiralty, four years after his elevation to the peerage. In 1758, he commanded the fleet before Brest, protecting the landing of the English, and receiving them after their repulse. He died in 1762.

ANTEUS, the fabulous son of Neptune and Terra (the Earth), of a gigantic stature. He resided in Libya, where he challenged every stranger to single combat. What made him peculiarly formidable, was the circumstance of the renewal of his strength by his mother, every time he was thrown to the earth. Hercules, having found out the secret of his prowess, overcame him by lifting him in the air, and crushing him in his iron grasp. The dwelling of this monster was adorned with the skulls of his vanquished adversaries.

ANTARCTIC OCEAN, a name properly applied to the seas between the Antarctic Circle and the South Pole, and used to denote generally those cold oceanic regions without strict regard to the limits of the Antarctic Circle. It was long considered beyond the pale of navigation because of the ice, which extends much farther than in the polar regions of the north. During the present century important discoveries have been made in these high southern latitudes. The South Shetland and the South Orkneys were discovered, and various navigators saw bits of apparent coast. The expedition under

Capt. Wilkes, sent out by the United States in 1839, found a coast line in $154^{\circ} 27'$ E. long., and in a westward course as far as $97^{\circ} 30'$ E. long., had either always a coast in sight or unequivocal indications that land was not far. The same year (1840), a French expedition under d'Urville reached this coast in $140^{\circ} 41'$ E. long., traced it to 130° E. long., and called it Adélie Land. This coast, as well as Trinity Land, Palmer's Land, Graham's Land, and Alexander's Land, points previously seen between 36° and 70° W. long., and Enderby's Land (between 49° and 51° E. long.), all lie close upon the Antarctic Circle. In January, 1841, Sir James Clarke Ross discovered a mountainous coast, on which he landed, trending to the southward, near $70^{\circ} 41'$ S. lat. and $170^{\circ} 36'$ E. long. He traced a continuous shore over six hundred miles as far as 78° S. lat. To this tract he gave the name of Victoria Land, and he supposed it to be a continent. In $77^{\circ} 30'$ S. lat. and 167° E. long., he placed Mount Erebus, an active volcano, about 12,400 feet high, and an extinct crater of somewhat less elevation, to which he gave the name of Mount Terror. A main object of his expedition was to seek the position of the south magnetic pole. This he found to be $75^{\circ} 5'$ S. lat., $154^{\circ} 8'$ E. long. No traces of vegetation have been observed on these far southern coasts, and no quadrupeds. Some birds, whales, and seals are found.

ANTHONY, St., the Great, first institutor of the monastic life. His native place was Coma, a town of Upper Egypt, where he was born, A.D. 251. In 285, he retired into solitude from a devotional spirit, and in 305, established the first community of monks. Being disappointed in his attempts to gain the honor of martyrdom at Alexandria, he left the cottages of his monks to the care of his pupil Pachomius, and, in company with two of the brethren, retired to a very remote desert, where he died, A.D. 356. The disease, called from him St. Anthony's fire, is a malady of peculiar violence with frightful accompaniments, in which every limb attacked, becomes withered, shrunk, and blackened, as if under the influence of flame. The life of St. Anthony in the wilderness, was believed to have been fearfully eventful, in combats with devils.

ANTIGONE, a daughter of Œdipus, king of Thebes, by his incestuous connection with Jocasta. Antigone was the faithful guide of Œdipus, after his loss of sight; having buried the corpse of her brother Polynices, against the express commands of Creon, the tyrant ordered her to be buried alive, but she killed herself before the execution of the sentence. [See ŒDIPUS.]

ANTIGONUS, 'the Cyclops,' one of the generals of Alexander the Great, after whose death he attempted to gain the sovereignty of Asia, but was defeated by Seleucus, Ptolemy, Lysimachus, and Cassander, at Ipsus, 301 B.C. In this battle Antigonus fell. The first profile on record is that of this Antigonus, whose likeness was thus taken because of the loss of one of his eyes.

ANTINOUS, a Bithynian youth, of whom the Emperor Adrian was excessively fond. When the latter was on his travels, Antinous threw himself into the Nile and was drowned, A.D. 132, but whether the act was committed with the intention of saving the life of the emperor, or from weariness of existence, has not yet been decided. The grief of Adrian was intense, and the honors of divinity were, by his command, paid to his young and unfortunate favorite. He named a newly discovered star Antinous, and gave this name to cities, while various images of the lost youth emanated from the hands of different artists. Those which have come down to us bearing the name of Antinous, are distinguished for a languid loveliness, and a roundness of contour, which resemble the traits of female rather than manly beauty.

ANTIOCHUS. Several distinguished kings of Syria bore this name. [See SYRIA.] The first was the general of king Philip, a Macedonian by birth, whose fame was eclipsed by that of his son Seleucus. ANTIOCHUS SOTER, the son of Seleucus, was unsuccessful in war, but is chiefly distinguished by his passion for his step-mother, the beautiful Stratonice. His struggles to quell his misplaced affection, threw him into a lingering disorder, the cause of which he was unwilling to divulge. Erasistratus, the king's physician, penetrated his secret in the following manner. As he was holding the hand of his patient, he perceived by the accelerated motion of his pulse on the entrance of Strat-

once, that love for her was the cause of his disorder. The king, to save the life of his son, relinquished to him his young and lovely bride. ANTIOCHUS THE GREAT succeeded his brother, Seleucus Ceraunus, 223 B.C. Molo, governor of Media, felt the power of his arms, and Ptolemy Philopater was by him compelled to give up the whole of Syria. Over the Parthians, also, he was completely triumphant, and favoring the cause of Hannibal, he made war upon the Romans. He was, however, dispirited by ill success in the commencement of this contest, and not fully comprehending or seconding the views of the Carthaginian general, was several times defeated, but signally at Magnesia, the consequence of which was the conclusion of a peace disgraceful to the Syrian monarch. He was killed in an attempt to plunder a temple of Jupiter.

ANTIOCHUS EPIPHANES, second son of Antiochus the Great, oppressed the Jews cruelly and laid siege to Alexandria. He was compelled to desist by the interference of the Romans in behalf of their ally Ptolemy. Nothing can show in a more striking light the terror of the Roman name, than the following anecdote. When Antiochus was on the point of marching against Ptolemy, Popilius Lænas arrived at his court as ambassador from the Roman senate. He was instructed to command Antiochus to relinquish his hostile project. Any other but a Roman citizen would have been awed at the presence of the courtiers and army of the king, sitting as he was, surrounded by all the imposing splendors of a regal camp. But Popilius sternly delivered the message of the senate, and with such an air of haughty authority, that Antiochus was embarrassed. He endeavored, however, to satisfy the ambassador with an evasive answer; but Popilius, with his staff, drew a circle around the king's seat, and said sternly, "Pass not that boundary, I command you, O king, until you have given a plain answer to the senate's demand." The king overawed by this boldness, promised to sacrifice his project to the wishes of the Romans.

ANTIPATER, a Macedonian, the faithful minister of Philip and Alexander, and pupil of Aristotle. He obtained the European provinces on the death of Alexander. His

war with the states of Greece terminated successfully. He died, B.C. 317.

ANTISTHENES, founder of the sect of the Cynics, was born at Athens between 424 and 421 B.C. From Socrates he imbibed an enthusiastic love of virtue. He thought that virtue consisted in independence of circumstances, and to maintain this, he thought it requisite that our wants should be reduced to the smallest number. He affected a contempt for wealth, honor, the delights of the senses, and knowledge, and sturdily walked the streets, in the ragged garb of a beggar. Plato was one of the first to penetrate his whims, and guess at their design, and his brilliant remark to the Cynic, has not escaped oblivion: "I see your vanity," said the sage, "through the holes of your coat." Antisthenes is worthy of high praise, if it be true that he attacked the accusers of Socrates, and by his perseverance obtained the banishment of one, and the death of another.

ANTIUM, a city of the Volsci on the Tuscan Sea, traces of which are still visible in Porto d'Anzo. Camillus took it, B.C. 337, and carrying the beaks of the vessels to Rome, employed them in ornamenting a tribunal in the forum, thence called the *Kostra* (beaks). The city was dedicated to the goddess of Fortune, whose statue nodded answers, when consulted as an oracle, being probably formed upon some simple mechanical principle. In Antium Coriolanus sought refuge. It became a favorite residence for the opulent Romans. Cicero had a splendid villa here, Augustus a palace, and here Caligula and Nero were born. In the excavations made among the ruins of the imperial villa, two of the noblest works of ancient sculpture were found, the Apollo Belvidere and the Fighting Gladiator.

ANTONINUS, ANNIVS VERUS, best known by the name of MARCUS AURELIUS, born A.D. 121, assumed the imperial dignity, A.D. 161, on the death of Antoninus Pius. He chose for his colleague, Lucius Verus, but the latter, dying a few years after, left the government solely in the hands of Antoninus. In the prosecution of the war against the Quadi, his army was on the point of perishing of thirst, when there fell an abundant shower of rain, which was attributed to the prayers

of the tenth (a Christian) legion, and they were thenceforth termed the 'thundering legion.' Though justly celebrated for beneficence and equity, Antoninus was not free from religious fanaticism, and authorized a persecution of the Christians in Gaul. His want of foresight in introducing the profligate Commodus, his son, into the government, was productive of most unhappy consequences. After his death, which took place in the fifty-ninth year of his age, and the nineteenth of his reign, he was deified by the Romans.

ANTONINUS PIUS, TITUS AURELIUS FULVIUS, originally of a Gallic family, was born near Rome, A.D. 86. He succeeded to the consulate in A.D. 120, and was adopted by, and succeeded Adrian in 138. He was tolerant to the Christians, humane, dignified, and just, and his reign was one of undisturbed tranquillity. He was wont to say, with Scipio, "I had rather save the life of a single citizen, than destroy a thousand of my enemies. He died A.D. 161.

ANTONY, MARK (MARCUS ANTONIUS), the triumvir, was born 86 B.C. He attracted notice at an early age by his bravery and dissipation. He attached himself to the party of Cæsar, whose favor he gained by the employment of all the arts of which he was master, and was appointed by Cæsar his colleague in the consulship, B.C. 44. After the fall of Cæsar, Antony obtained from the senate a confirmation of the acts of his colleague, and a public funeral, at which he delivered an harangue so eloquent and stirring that he roused the indignation of the people, and forced Brutus and Cassius to fly. Octavius, the heir of Cæsar, was supported by the enemies of Antony, who wished to curtail the authority of this ambitious man, but Antony, uniting with Lepidus and Octavius, formed the triumvirate, which speedily manifested the most sanguinary designs. Each of the triumvirs agreed to sacrifice his friends, and their alliance was cemented by the blood of Rome's bravest and best citizens. Antony affixed the head and hand of Cicero to the rostrum dignified by his eloquence. Brutus and Cassius being defeated at Philippi, Antony went to the East, and surrounded by Asiatic luxuries, forgot the manliness he had once possessed. Captivated by Cleopatra, his ambition was lost in the indulgence of his

passions. Fulvia, his wife, having taken up arms against Octavius, the latter quarreled with Antony, but a reconciliation was effected, and Antony, on the death of his wife, married Octavia, the sister of his colleague, to strengthen the bonds which united them. His renewal of the amour with Cleopatra drew down upon him the vengeance of Octavius, and war was declared against Egypt by the Romans. How Antony fought and fled at Actium has been described. [See ACTIUM.] Finding himself deserted on all sides, and hearing of the death of Cleopatra, Antony desired his slave Eros to slay him. This humble friend, affecting to consent, requested his master to turn away his face, and then falling on Antony's sword, died at his feet. Antony, touched at this heroism, snatched the weapon, and gave himself a mortal wound, but had strength enough left to be carried into the presence of Cleopatra, in whose arms he died, B.C. 30.

APELLES, a celebrated painter of antiquity, was born about 365 B.C. at Cos, or at Colophon in Ionia. The date of his death is unknown. He seems to have earned skill and reputation by his unflagging industry, which became proverbial among the Romans, and their saying, *Nulla dies sine linea*, "no day without a line," is reported to have had its origin with Apelles. His most celebrated work was "Venus Anadyomene," (Venus rising out of the ocean), which centuries after was such a favorite with the Romans, that Ovid says but for this picture, Venus would still have remained buried beneath the waves of the sea. He received the patronage of Alexander the Great, and for a painting representing the Macedonian monarch as Jupiter hurling his thunderbolts, he is said to have received twenty talents of gold, about \$250,000. Having limped Campaspe, a beautiful slave and favorite of Alexander, he had her in recompense for the picture. The pictures of Apelles were probably mostly painted upon panels of larch, in distemper. They were celebrated for the beauty of the horses introduced in them. It is said that he had painted a horse which was severely criticised by a person who examined it, and in such a manner that the pride of the artist was wounded. Resolved to put his performance to the test, he had a horse led into his paint-

ing-room, where the animal, on beholding the picture, neighed, and thus secured the triumph of Apelles.

APOLLO, the fabled son of Jupiter and Latona, and twin brother of Diana, born on the island of Delos. He was the god of all the fine arts, of medicine, music, poetry, and eloquence, and considered by physicians, shepherds, and founders of cities, as their patron. A few days after his birth, he killed the serpent Python with an arrow, and is generally represented with a bow and quiver. He fought bravely against the Titans, under Jupiter. When his son Æsculapius was killed by Jove's thunder-bolt, Apollo slew the Cyclops, who forged the thunderer's weapons. Having conquered the satyr Marsyas, in a musical dispute, Apollo flayed him alive. Pan having disputed the superiority of Apollo in music, a day was appointed for deciding their merits, and Timolus and Midas were judges. The latter, denying the merit of Apollo, was punished by having a pair of ass's ears affixed to his head. When he built the walls of Megara, he laid his lute upon a stone, which ever afterward sent forth a strain of music upon being touched. The Romans celebrated games in his honor which were called Apollinaria, and consisted of bull-fights, contests of athletæ, and theatrical shows. Temples and statues were erected to him in Egypt, Greece, and Italy. The most splendid shrine of Apollo was at Delphi, built 1263 B.C. The laurel was sacred to Apollo, and from the earliest times was used for crowning successful poets and victorious generals.

APOLLÓDORUS, of DAMASCUS, one of the most celebrated architects of antiquity, built the forum and column of Trajan at Rome, of which there are still magnificent remains, A.D. 113. His most remarkable work, however, was the great bridge over the Danube in Bulgaria. It stood on twenty piers, one hundred and fifty feet high above the foundations, sixty feet wide, and one hundred and seventy feet apart. It was built for the emperor Trajan; the bridge was of wood, the piers of stone. The woodwork was afterward destroyed by Hadrian, as it gave the barbarians too great facilities for crossing the Danube. Remains of the piers are still standing. Apollodorus is said to have fallen a

victim to the jealousy of Hadrian, who dabbled in architecture as well as in other arts.

APPIUS CLAUDIUS CRASSINUS, the profligate decenvir, who attempted to destroy the virtue of Virginia. His conduct produced a revolution, and he killed himself in prison, according to Livy. He was at the height of his power about 450 B.C.

AQUINAS, THOMAS (often called the Angelic Doctor), was a younger son of the Count of Aquino, and was born at the castle of Rocca Sica in Italy, in 1227. From his earliest years he was smitten with a love for solitary study. Force was used to prevent his becoming a monk, but in vain; he entered the Dominican order when a very young man. So much was the youthful scholar wrapt up in his own cogitations, that when he studied under Albertus Magnus at Cologne, his fellow-pupils nicknamed him *Bos Mutus* (mute ox) on account of his taciturnity and apparent stupidity. He received a doctorate in theology from the university of Paris in 1255, and lectured with brilliant success in Paris, in several Italian universities, and afterward at Naples. Being summoned by the pope to attend a general council at Lyons in 1274, he died at Merracina on his way thither. He was canonized by Pope John XXII. in 1323. His works are numerous, but his mental vigor surpassed even his amazing industry. He is the most famous of the medieval schoolmen and divines.

ARABIA has an area about four times that of France. It presents the form of a vast peninsula, lying between 12° and 30° N. lat., and 32° and 59° E. long., partly within and partly north of the tropical region. Arabia is mostly populated by independent tribes each governed by its own sheikh. Muscat or Oman is quite an important state. The following are the other principal divisions now generally adopted: *Yemen*, bordering upon the Red Sea and upon the territories of Hejaz, Nejd, and Hadramaut. It includes the towns of Sana, Mocha, and Aden, which is now in the hands of the British as a depot for the overland mail to India. *Hadramaut*, on the southern coast, a country once famous for its trade in frankincense. *Hejaz* is the holy land of the Mohammedans, and contains the cities of Mecca and Medina [which see]. The greater portion of Arabia is occupied by long, dreary

deserts of sand; while, in some parts, as on the western side of the Arabian desert, the soil is rendered fertile by the irrigation of rivulets, and various flowers, both indigenous, and transplanted from India, spring up, bud, and blossom, filling the air with their ravishing perfume. Some precious stones are found in Arabia, but its principal riches are flocks and herds. Of the natural history of Arabia we can say but little. Ferocious animals pursue their prey in the deserts, which they render terrific by their presence and ferocity, while the mountains produce animals yielding many and great advantages to commerce. Of these we may mention the civet-cat, the bezoar-goat, the musk-rat, and others of domestic habits and importance.

Concerning the old Arabians, who are now destroyed, or merged and lost in other tribes, there is no distinct history extant. Kahtan or Joktan, son of Eber, and Adnan, the direct descendent of Ishmael, were the ancestors of the present races of Arabians. The posterity of Joktan are termed genuine or pure Arabs, that of Ishmael, naturalized Arabs, or Mostarabi. More than thirty-six hundred years ago, Yarab, Joktan's eldest son, is said to have succeeded his father in the kingdom of Yemen, while Jorham, the younger, founded the kingdom of Hejaz, which his posterity possessed until the time of Ishmael. In the time of Alexander the Great, the inundation of Arem overwhelmed with misery the tribes settled in Yemen, eight of which were forced to fly their dwellings and migrate to other lands. Ishmael, marrying the daughter of Modab, one of the princes of Hejaz, had twelve sons. The descendants of Ishmael, driving out the Joramites, took possession of their country. The government appears to have been in the hands not of one ruler, but of the leaders of the different tribes. An aristocracy prevailed at Mecca until the time of Mahomet. Sesostris, of whom Josephus speaks under the name of Sesac, conquered Arabia. Yet this conquest was but in name, for the Arabs were too proud and independent to bow their necks beneath the tread of the conqueror, and subsequent events show, that even during his reign, they made themselves formidable to the Egyptians, and Sesostris was forced to erect a wall between Heliopolis and Pelusium, to guard his native subjects against the attacks

of the Arabs. Although he had a powerful fleet upon the Red Sea, he did no more than skirt the shores of Arabia Felix, or at most, take possession of some of its maritime provinces. It may safely be asserted that the whole peninsula of Arabia never was, or at least never for any length of time, subjected to the Egyptians.

The Hycsos or Shepherd Kings, who invaded Egypt, and for a long time held undisputed sway in that country, were Arabians. Neither the Assyrians, the Medes, nor the Persians, ever obtained firm footing in Arabia. The Persian monarchs were regarded by the Arab chiefs in the light of friends, and received annually a voluntary present of frankincense as a tribute of respect, but other ties than those of the heart never bound the free dwellers of Arabia to the proud potentates of Persia. Cambyzes, when flushed with ambitious pride, and rushing forward to the conquest of Egypt, paused in his impetuous career, and respectfully asked of the Arabians permission to pass through their country. The Spartans, warlike and daring as they were, had reason to repent of an incursion which they made upon the Arabs. Alexander the Great, when inflated with the success of his arms, was surprised to find that the Arabs so little dreaded his tremendous power, as to neglect sending ambassadors to him. This gave the Macedonian a high opinion of them as "warriors worthy of his steel;" but death put an end to his hostile projects. His successors attempted the conquest of Arabia, but were completely defeated. The Romans made different incursions into Arabia with but partial successes to compensate for heavy losses, until Ælius Gallus, in the reign of Augustus, penetrated into the interior of the country, and gained victories which the deadly heats his army encountered rendered unavailing. The Arabs were not again disturbed by the Romans until the reign of Trajan. The north-western part of Arabia, the country of the Nabachæi, was called Arabia Petræa, from their chief town, Petra. In the reign of Trajan it became a Roman province. Petra sunk into insignificance; its dwellers forsook it for the freedom of the deserts; even its site was forgotten till Burckhardt discovered the ruins of its temple and tombs in the Wady Musa.

At the commencement of the seventh cen-

tury a few small provinces in the north were subject to the Byzantine empire, while those bordering on the Euphrates acknowledged Persian supremacy, and an Ethiopian dynasty ruled temporarily at Yemen. This latter fact had a melancholy importance for the world, through the small-pox which the victors brought into Arabia and which, by the conquests of the Mohammedans, was soon carried far and wide. But the great mass of the land was possessed by wandering tribes whose freedom, even of each other, was unbounded. The union of these tribes into a nation, a nation which conquered old empires and founded new, dates from the day of Mohammed. Before the close of the century the Saracens had overcome a large part of Europe, Asia, and Africa. Disunion had heretofore weakened their forces, but now, uniting, they showed their power was indeed formidable. If they had no knowledge of those military arts by which alone the strongholds of power are prostrated, they possessed that wild and desperate valor which carried them triumphantly through their predatory expeditions. Mohammed, and after him the caliphs, called forth the energies of the Arabs and the display of every quality which fitted them to bear arms, but that of implicit obedience. The Arabs were too proud of their hereditary independence to submit blindly to the yoke of any man or combination of men, and they accordingly, for the most part, acknowledged only the spiritual authority of the caliphate. When the power of the Turks gained the ascendant, the Arabs shook themselves free from fetters, rejoicing in the chainless spirit of liberty. It is not difficult to conceive the wild delight of roaming the desert on a fleet horse, and beholding all around a plain which seems interminable, and presents to the Arab horseman the idea of solitary existence in a world of his own.

In the sixteenth century, during the war between the Turks and Portuguese, Solyman Pacha seized upon all the towns on the Arabian Gulf. His successors also were victorious, and almost all Arabia became subject to the Ottoman empire. These events occurred between 1538 and 1568. Still all the sheikhs and princes were not subdued, but many of them, remaining independent, continued to harass the Turks, until, about the middle of the seventeenth century, the latter were forced

to relinquish all the conquered places on the coast of Arabia. The independent spirit of the Arabs has gained them great celebrity.

Arabia is celebrated as being the scene of many of those wonderful events which are commemorated in the Holy Scriptures. It was for a long time the dwelling-place of Moses, who married the daughter of Jethro and fed his flocks upon Mount Horeb. The children of Israel, under the guidance of the Lord, passed into Arabia, when they went from the grinding bondage of the Egyptians. In the desert of Sinai, rises that lofty mount which was clad in thunder and lightning, when God gave his commandments to the people. Mount Sinai commands a view of Mount Horeb, where again the Lord appeared in the burning bush to Moses. There is still to be seen that rock, which, when the people thirsted for water, Moses smote; where, from twelve mouths, the living waters gushed profusely. Again, when they were in want of water, in the wilderness of Paran, Moses smote a rock twice before the water flowed. That rock also remains at the present day, an impressive memorial of the miracle, exhibiting the various fissures whence the clear element gushed forth, cheering, by its presence, the many hearts of those who had panted for the succor.

The Bedouin Arabs, although possessed of not a few good qualities, are inveterate robbers. When a Bedouin describes a traveler at a distance, he puts his horse to his speed, and rides furiously up, exclaiming loudly, "Undress thyself, thy aunt [my wife] is without a garment." There is no way to avoid death in this case but submission, as the possession of the meanest article of wearing apparel is an object important enough to warrant the shedding of human blood, in the eyes of the Arabs. There are many singular contradictions in the character of these wild people. A stranger who confides his safety to their honor will be treated with the utmost kindness, and share the wealth or poverty of his entertainer, who bids him welcome to what is his. The patriarchal form of government has ever subsisted among the Arabs. The dignity of grand sheikh is hereditary in certain families, but the inferior sheikhs choose a successor out of his family, on the death of a grand sheikh. The greater portion of the inhabitants are ill fed and clad, simply because they prefer a

wandering life of freedom, to one of confinement and restraint, even if it bring the greatest luxuries. These they profess to despise. One trait in their character is highly praiseworthy; their extreme kindness to the domestic animals to which they owe so much. They free these creatures from work in their old age, and permit them to die a natural death. The Arab horses are reared with extreme care; spirited, docile, fleet, handsome, and hardy, they always command the highest prices. The Arabs, proud of the antiquity of their own origin, are no less careful of the fame of their horses, of which they preserve authenticated pedigrees. For chargers, the Arab horses are unrivaled. A war-horse of this country appears delighted with the din of battle. His spirit rises with the ardor of the conflict, and he dashes into the "current of a heady fight," reckless of the volleys of musketry and cannon pealing around him, even when struck with shot,

"Staggering, yet stemming all, his lord, unharmed he bears."

He will watch his master if he falls from his saddle in the fight, and not only shield him, but neigh for assistance. The price in England for an Arabian horse has been 1,000, 2,000, or even 3,000 pounds sterling. Sometimes even the poorest Arabs will not part with their faithful chargers, even though the most tempting offers be held out. "No, my jewel, was the affectionate exclamation addressed to his mare by that Arab who, after he had agreed to relinquish the beautiful creature to grace the stud of the King of France, at an enormous price, could not find it in his heart to tear himself from his faithful servant: "No, my jewel! they shall never part us! we have lived and we will die together." Saying this with tears in his eyes, he sprang upon her back, and rushed back to the desert, happy in having escaped the temptation and the sacrifice. The camel, which the natives call the ship of the desert, is also an invaluable treasure. Like the Bedouins themselves it learns from early youth to endure hunger, thirst, and fatigue.

ARAGO, FRANÇOIS DOMINIQUE, was born in Estagel, in the south of France, Feb. 26th, 1786. His father had originally intended him, in accordance with his humble position, for a simple agricultural life. But the taste

and aptitude he evinced for the natural sciences were such, that he was presented for admission into the Polytechnic school of Paris. His examiner sent him to the institution, with high compliments of his ability and attainments. He distinguished himself by the ardor and success of his studies while a student of the Polytechnic, and was attached to the observatory of Paris. Such was the rapid acknowledgment of his ability, that in 1806 he received the appointment of assistant to M. Biot, in the scientific commission for the measurement of an arc of the meridian in Spain. While Arago was at Galazo in the island of Majorca, engaged in this scientific duty, war broke out between France and Spain. The fires which he made, to aid his observations, excited the suspicions of the ignorant populace, who, fancying them beacons to guide the French in their march, attempted to seize the young philosopher. He escaped to the coast in disguise, could not get off, and sought security for his life by yielding himself to the authorities. On his way to the prison he was beset by a rabble, and his life put in great danger. By the connivance of the Spanish captain-general he escaped to Algiers. There he embarked on an Algerine vessel for Marseilles. In sight of that port the vessel was captured by a Spanish privateer, and Arago was thrown into prison at Rosas. An attempt was made to frighten him, by the show of preparation for his execution, into a confession that he was a renegade Spaniard, that the government might confiscate the vessel. He lay in a loathsome dungeon, overrun with vermin, and almost starved to death. Two lions had been sent by the Dey of Algiers as a present to Napoleon, in the vessel in which Arago had taken passage and which had been captured. One of these animals had died, and Arago bethought himself of writing word to the dey that it had been starved to death by the Spaniards. He succeeded in sending off a letter to that purport, which was received by the dey, who, much enraged at the treatment of his beast, called the Spanish government to account, and demanding compensation for the seizure of the vessel, threatened war if the demand was not instantly complied with. Arago was now permitted to set sail for Marseilles, but under the guidance of an ignorant pilot, his

vessel drifted about for several days, until by hazard the coast of Africa was made. The vessel had been so much damaged that it was determined to abandon her. Arago resolved to make his way to Algiers by land, and disguising himself as an Arab, he succeeded in reaching that place with safety. He found that the dey had just died, and a revolution resulted in the death of the legitimate successor. The usurper made a demand upon France for a pretended debt, and as the French government positively refused compliance, the names of the French residents were placed on the list of slaves. The galleys threatened the philosopher. After much suffering and anxiety, Arago, in 1809, obtained permission to leave Algiers with a convoy of Algerine vessels and a corsair of that nation, in which he himself embarked. The convoy had not sailed out of sight of Algiers when they were pounced upon by a brace of English frigates. The corsair, on board of which Arago had taken passage, succeeded in eluding the English, and landed him in safety on the French coast.

On his arrival at Paris he was welcomed with great enthusiasm and elected with acclamation a member of the institute. It is impossible here to enumerate all the brilliant discoveries with which Arago has illuminated natural science. The determination of the diameters of the planets, the discovery of colored polarization of light, and of magnetism by rotation, are among the most remarkable. The "Transactions of the Academy of Sciences," of which society he was secretary, are enriched by his scientific contributions; and various published memoirs testify to his industry and philosophical genius. Arago always advocated the cause of progress, and in the revolution of 1830 he boldly presented himself as a champion of democracy. During the reign of Louis Philippe he was a member of the chamber of deputies and sat on the extreme left. His interest in politics was never allowed to interfere with his philosophic pursuits. He was appointed head of the Paris observatory, and directed with undiminished ardor its astronomical observations. In the provisional government of 1848 he held the office of minister of marine, and fulfilled its duties to the manifest advantage of the republic, of which he was an ardent supporter. On

the violent accession of Louis Napoleon to the imperial throne, Arago refused to take the oath of allegiance to the usurper, but in consequence of his fame and the glory he had shed over his country, he was left undisturbed in his position at the head of the observatory, and continued to devote himself with exclusive ardor to his scientific pursuits until his death in the year 1853.

ARAM, EUGENE, whose erudition and fate have rendered him remarkable, was born in Yorkshire, England, in the year 1704. His father was forced to contend with depressing poverty. Eugene was sent to school, and learned to read the New Testament in English; but from that period, with the exception of a month's tuition from a clergyman, Aram owed nothing to teachers, all his learning being self-acquired. His father was gardener to Sir Edward Blackett, at Newby; and, when about thirteen or fourteen years of age, Aram joined him. In the house of the baronet, Eugene first displayed his love of literature and science. Apart from the bustle and turmoil of the world, he passed his solitary hours in incessant study. Mathematics early engaged his attention, and he became a proficient in the exact sciences; indeed, his fondness for mathematics recommended him to Mr. Christopher Blackett, of London, whom he served for some time in the capacity of book-keeper, commencing his London life at sixteen years of age. After residing with Mr. Blackett for a year and a half, he was taken with the small-pox, and suffered greatly from the terrible disorder.

He afterward returned to Yorkshire, where he pursued his studies with increasing avidity, but with altered views, having discovered that polite literature possessed greater charms for him than mathematics. He made himself acquainted with the works of the most celebrated poets, and went through a course of historical reading. He went to Netherdale for the purpose of engaging in teaching, and here, considering himself satisfactorily settled, he married. His marriage proved unhappy, and to his matrimonial connection he afterward attributed the evils which befell him, and the crime which he committed. Finding himself deficient in classical learning, he resolved to master the learned languages and applied himself to the study of the Latin and Greek

grammars with great spirit. He soon perused the Latin classics, poets, and historians. He next read the Greek Testament, and finished his course with Hesiod, Homer, Theocritus, Herodotus, and Thucydides, with the Greek tragic poets.

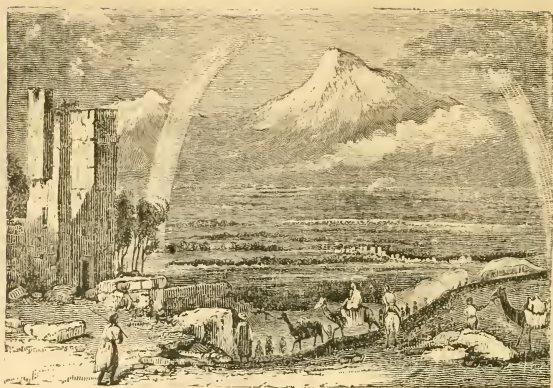
At the seat of his friend, William Norton, Esq., of Knaresborough, he learned the Hebrew language, and read the Pentateuch, in 1734. In 1744, he was engaged in London, as usher, and gave instruction in Latin and writing. Here he became acquainted with the French language. Afterward, he was employed as usher and tutor in various seminaries in England, and never suffered a single opportunity of making new acquisitions to escape. He was acquainted with the voluminous and quaint details of heraldry, and with the gentle lore of flowers. He acquired the Chaldee and Arabic languages, and investigated the Celtic dialects. Having discovered an affinity between the Celtic, English, Latin, Greek, and Hebrew tongues, he was employed upon a comparative lexicon of these languages, when a frightful event arrested his literary progress. Aram was accused of having murdered Daniel Clark, a shoemaker. The murder had been concealed for nearly fourteen years, when the discovery of a skeleton, at first supposed to be that of Clark, set on foot investigations which resulted in the arrest of Aram. At the time of his being taken into custody, he was usher of a school at Lynn, in Norfolk. The murder was committed on the 8th of December, 1744-5. Its object was a little paltry gain, although the murderer assigned jealousy as the motive. Remorse had preyed upon the spirits of Aram from the time of the commission of the deed, and he is said to have conversed with the boys at Lynn on the subject of murder, and related to them tales of murders, commencing with the crime of Cain.

Upon his trial at York assizes, on the 3d of August, 1759, he displayed great calmness and self-possession. The principal evidence against him was his wife, from whom he had been a long time separated. Circumstantial evidence, in addition to that of Richard Houseman, helped to convict him. His defense displayed talent and consummate address acknowledged by the judges. He was found

guilty. He subsequently confessed his crime, and acknowledged the justice of his sentence. While in prison, he attempted to commit suicide by opening his arm in two places with a knife which he had concealed for the purpose. He almost succeeded, and was in a state of excessive weakness, when conducted to the scaffold. Standing beneath the fatal tree, he was asked if he had anything to say, but he silently shook his head. He was instantly executed, and his body hung in chains in Knaresborough forest.

ARARAT, a mountain in Armenia, where it is supposed Noah's ark rested. It rises majestically from a fertile plain in two conical peaks, one of which rises far above the limits of perpetual snow, and is the highest point in western Asia. The whole country is full of traditions about the ark and the flood. Various attempts have been made to gain the top of Ararat; none of which were successful till July, 1856, when the toilsome and perilous ascent was achieved by five Englishmen. The dwellers about its base regard the snowy summit with mingled awe and veneration, and as a spot not to be profaned by the impious tread of man. None had stood there since the days of Noah. Ararat shows traces that at some period it has been subjected to violent volcanic action. Major Stuart, one of the party mentioned above, pronounces the summit an extinct crater filled with snow. The highest peak of Ararat is 17,323 feet above the sea, and 14,300 feet above the table-land on which it stands.

ARCADIA, a mountain country in the heart of the Peloponnesus. Originally called Pelasgia, from the Pelasgi, its first inhabitants, it received its name of Arcadia, from Arcas, grandson of Lycaon. The shepherds inhabiting the sequestered valleys were for a long time rude and uncivilized, but when they cultivated the arts of agriculture, and sweetened their labors by occasional intervals of relaxation, in which they occupied themselves with music and dancing, they became famous in song, and Arcadian felicity was a phrase expressive of unalloyed enjoyment. But Arcadia was far from being a paradise, and its inhabitants were not so devoted to pastoral pursuits, that they forgot the excitements of war. On the contrary, when no quarrels of



MOUNT ARARAT.

their own occupied them, they engaged in the service of other states. It was finally united to the Achaian league.

ARCHIMEDES, the most celebrated geometrician of antiquity, born at Syracuse, 287 B.C. He was famed for the mechanical contrivances which he employed to defend his native city, when besieged by the Romans (212 B.C.), whose fleet, Lucian says, he set on fire with burning-glasses. Marcellus, who took the city, wished to spare the life of Archimedes. When the Romans entered the city, Archimedes was found by a soldier, poring over some figures which he had drawn in the sand. He begged the Roman to spare his circle, but the man heedless of his request, rushed forward and killed him with a blow. He was then seventy-five years old. He is said to have declared that he could move the globe, if he only had a place to stand upon. To Archimedes we ascribe the discovery of the fundamental properties of the lever, inclined plane, and pulley, of the screw for raising water, which yet bears his name, and much advancement in geometry and mensuration.

ARCOLA, BATTLE OF. Between the French under Bonaparte, and the Austrians under Marshal Alvinzy, fought Nov. 19th, 1796. This bloody conflict continued eight successive days and resulted in a disastrous defeat to the Austrians, who at the outset had the advantage.

ARGENTINE CONFEDERATION, comprises an area of 927,000 square miles, and has a population of 800,000. This estimate does not include Buenos Ayres, which is now a distinct republic. [*See* BUENOS AYRES.] The population consists of descendants of Spaniards and wandering tribes of Indians. There are twelve states in the confederacy, Santa Fe, Entre Rios, Corrientes, Cordova, Santiago, Tucuman, Salta, Catamarca, La Rioja, San Luis, Mendoza, and San Juan. Diaz de Solis visited the mouth of the La Plata in 1512, but formed no settlement. Before the end of the century the Spaniards founded the towns of Salta, Tucuman, Cordova, Buenos Ayres, &c. These regions formed a part of the viceroyalty of Peru till 1777, when they were made into the separate viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres. Like the other colonies of Spain in South America, these provinces did not submit to the authority of Joseph Bonaparte, and in 1810 they organized an independent government in the name of Ferdinand VII. In 1816 they threw off Spanish dominion altogether. Since then they have been torn by intestine commotions. Rosas was placed at the head of affairs in 1835. His commercial policy had for its object to secure Buenos Ayres the monopoly of the trade of the Plata; his political policy was to obtain a similar superiority. His sway was marked by cruelty and despotism, and his ambitious designs against Paraguay, Uruguay, and Bra-

ARG

zil, interfering with commerce and the rights of European merchants, caused the interposition of England and France. Buenos Ayres was blockaded by their fleets from 1845 to 1847, and the free navigation of the Parana thus maintained. Rosas was at last deposed in 1851, and fled to Europe. Civil war continued between Buenos Ayres and the other states, which resulted in the establishment, in 1856, of the Argentine Confederation and the distinct republic of Buenos Ayres. In 1865 the Confederation under President Mitré, took sides with Brazil and Buenos Ayres, against Paraguay, after having long endeavored to remain neutral. The seat of government for the confederation is Parana, the capital of Entre Rios, population, 6,000.

ARGOLIS lay in the eastern part of the Peloponnesus, bounded on the north by Achaia and Corinth, on the north-east by the Saronic gulf, and on the west by Arcadia, and on the south by Laconia. The Argolic gulf lies upon the south-west. Fertile plains and swelling hills vary the surface of this region. Pelops, who reigned over Argos, gave his name to the peninsula. It was the kingdom of Atreus and Agameinnon, Adrastus, Eurystheus, and Diomedes, the birth-place of Hercules, and the scene of his victory over the Lernaean Hydra. The fine arts, and music in particular, were successfully cultivated by the Argives. The modern Argolis is but a shadow of the ancient city. Argos was anciently divided into small, independent states. These were Argos, Mycenæ, Tirynthus, Trœzen (now Damala), Hermione (now Castri), and Epidaurus.

ARGONAUTS. The story of the expedition of Jason and his adventurous companions, to procure the golden fleece of Colchis, is chiefly fabulous, and has probably little connection with any known facts. Jason was not permitted to ascend the throne of his father by Pelias, who filled it, except on condition of bringing from Colchis the golden fleece of the ram, which bore Phryxus and Helle away from their cruel step-mother, Ino. Most of the heroes of Greece embarked with Jason in the Argo, a splendid vessel built for the adventure, and superior to any which had previously floated on the waves. After encountering many vicissitudes, they came to the country of Æetes. This monarch,

whose life depended on the preservation of the golden fleece, without refusing to surrender it, first imposed upon Jason three labors which he hoped would destroy him. He was to yoke the bulls of Vulcan to a plough of adamant, and turn up a field consecrated to Mars, which had never been opened; in the furrows thus formed, he was to sow the serpent's teeth of Cadmus, which would instantly start forth as armed men, whom he was to slay; and finally, he was to kill the dragon that was the watchful guardian of the golden fleece. The magical arts of Medea, who had fallen in love with the young hero, assisted him to achieve these enterprises with success, and when the king determined on the murder of the Argonauts, enabled him to possess himself of the fleece, and escape with the enamored lady and all his companions. The king soon missing the fleece and the fleet, pursued and came in sight of them; Medea then murdered her brother Absyrtus, whose limbs she strewed upon her father's path. The afflicted old man, by staying to collect them, gave the fugitives time to escape. After many adventures, the Argo returned safely. The time of the undertaking is placed in the middle of the thirteenth century B.C.

ARGUS, the fabled son of Arestor, whose hundred eyes caused him to be selected by Juno as the keeper of Io. Having been slain by Mercury, he was changed into a peacock, and his eyes were placed in his tail.

ARION, a musician and poet, born at Methymna, in Lesbos, and flourished B.C. 625. His fabulous fate has been often celebrated. When at sea with all his treasures, the mariners sought his life; but he leaped overboard, and it is related that a dolphin, charmed with his music, carried him safe to land.

ARIOSTO, LUDOVICO, the author of the celebrated "*Orlando Furioso*," was born at Reggio, Sept. 8th, 1474, and died at Ferrara, in 1533. Having lost the favor of Cardinal d'Este, he entered the service of Duke Alfonso of Ferrara, whose rewards, however, were but trifling. He experienced many vicissitudes. His minor works alone would entitle him to high rank in Italian literature.

ARISTIDES, son of Lysimachus, a noble Athenian, surnamed, from his high integrity,

ARI

the Just. He was instrumental in gaining the battle of Marathon. There were ten generals, of whom he was one, each having the command of the army for one day. Thinking this arrangement injurious to the troops, Aristides prevailed on the other generals to give up their days of command to Miltiades, and this measure secured the triumph of the Greeks. Becoming obnoxious to the party of Themistocles, he was banished by ostracism. Each person wrote the name of the man he wished banished, on a shell (*ostrakon*); these were then counted, and the person whose name occurred most frequently was banished. An ignorant fellow, in the public assembly, not knowing him, turned to Aristides, and asked him to write Aristides. "What reason have you for disliking him?" asked Aristides. "Oh," replied the fellow, "I am tired of hearing him called the Just." When the Athenians were alarmed by the approach of Xerxes, they recalled Aristides, who, casting away the remembrance of former wrongs, assisted Themistocles in the public cause. At the battle of Salamis his services were eminent. Aristides refused to countenance the banishment of Themistocles, when he incurred the displeasure of his countrymen. Nothing displays more clearly the reputation of Aristides, than his being appointed to apportion the contributions to be paid by the several states of Greece toward the expenses of the war. This delicate duty he discharged to the satisfaction of all. He died poor about 467 B.C. His countrymen bestowed a magnificent funeral upon him, pensioned his son, and portioned his two daughters.

ARISTIPPUS of Cyrene, a pupil of Socrates and founder of the Cyrenaic, 392 B.C. This sect, which flourished for several ages, maintained that the supreme good of man in this life is sensual pleasure, and that virtue ought to be commended only so far as it conduces to delight. He had no sternness. Gay, brilliant, careless, and enjoying, Aristippus became the ornament and delight of the court of Dionysius, already made illustrious by the splendid genius of Plato and the rigid abstinence of Diogenes. The grave deportment of Plato and the savage virtue of Diogenes had less charms for the tyrant than the easy graces of Aristippus, whose

very vices were elegant. His ready wit was often put to the test. On one occasion three *hetere* were presented for him to make a choice: he took them all three, observing that it had been fatal even to Paris to make a choice. On another occasion, in a dispute with Æschines, who was becoming violent, he said, "Let us give over; we have quarreled, it is true; but I, as your senior, have a right to claim the precedence in the reconciliation." Scinus, the treasurer of Dionysius, a man of low character, but immense wealth, once showed Aristippus over his house. While he was expatiating on the splendor of every part, even to the floors, the philosopher spat in his face. Scinus was furious. "Pardon me," exclaimed Aristippus, "there was no other place where I could have spat with decency." One day, when interceding with the tyrant for a friend, he threw himself on his knees. Being reproached for such a want of dignity, he answered, "Is it my fault if Dionysius has his ears in his feet?"

ARISTOGITON, and HARMODIUS, two of the most famous patriots of Athens; finding their country oppressed by Hipparchus and Hippias; sons of Pisistratus, they formed a conspiracy against them. Hipparchus was slain 514 B.C., but owing to the backwardness of the people, Harmodius was killed by the guards, and Aristogiton seized. Being tortured to make him disclose the names of his accomplices, he named the friends of the tyrant, and they were put to death in rapid succession. "Now," said Aristogiton to Hippias, "there only remains yourself worthy of death." Hippias was expelled three years afterward, and the Athenians paid the greatest honors to the memory of the two friends. Praxiteles executed their statues, which were erected in the forum, their praise was sung in hymns, and it was forbidden to give the name of either to a slave.

ARISTOPHANES, a celebrated Greek dramatist, author of numerous comedies equally remarkable for the beauty of their composition and their pungent satire, flourished in the fifth century B.C. But little is known of his life. Out of forty-four compositions of his, only eleven are extant.

ARISTOTLE, the most famous philosopher of Greece, founder of the Peripatetic sect, was



born at Stagira, a city of Thrace, 384 B.C. He died 322 B.C., having taken poison to avoid the persecution of his enemies. He enjoyed the instructions of Plato. He was selected by Philip of Macedon as the preceptor of Alexander. When the latter went forth on his Asiatic campaign, Aristotle repaired to Athens. There in the charming retreat of the Lyceum, he delivered his teachings to a throng of pupils, while walking amid the groves and fountains. Envy of his fame rankled into persecution, and he was forced to flee to Chalceis, where he died. He is considered the founder of the philosophy of botany; he was the first to write of mechanics; and with him the term 'metaphysics' originated. His writings, on various branches of science, have been of great value to the world, although much of his philosophy has been supplanted in the progress of truth.

ARIUS, the noted schismatic, was born about the middle of the third century. His entire life was embroiled with disputes, principally with Bishop Alexander and with Athanasius, on the divinity of Christ. He held that God created the Son, that the Son had not existed from eternity, and was not in dignity and essence equal with the Father. This doctrine was condemned by the great council which met at Nice in 325. After numerous vicissitudes, intrigues, and strifes, Arius was in the act of celebrating a triumph

at Constantinople, and suddenly died at a very advanced age.

ARKANSAS derives its name from a tribe of Indians now extinct. It is between 33° and 36° 30' N. lat., and 89° 40' and 94° 40' W. long., having an area of 52,198 square miles. By the U. S. census of 1860, the state had a population of 324,191 whites, 111,115 slaves, and 144 free negroes, in all 435,450. This was a very rapid increase since the year 1854, when the whole population was only 251,458. The land on the Mississippi, and from forty to fifty miles back from it, is low, interspersed with lakes and swamps, and, with few exceptions, annually overflowed by that river and its tributaries. West of this tract, the ground rises, and near the centre of the state, becomes hilly, and farther west, mountainous. Its rivers are the Arkansas, which has a course of 2,000 miles and traverses the whole state, the Mississippi, which washes its eastern side, the Red River, which furnishes steamboat transportation to the southern section, the St. Francis, the White River, and the Washita.

The Ozark Mountains run through the western part of the state. The soil on the river bottoms is fertile, the other parts generally are sterile. Cotton and Indian corn are the staple productions. Wild fowls and animals are abundant. A variety of minerals are found in the state, such as iron, gypsum, coal. Some salt is obtained. The

country is well adapted for raising horses and cattle. Considerable quantities of wheat, oats, sweet potatoes, and tobacco are raised. The peach is cultivated with success, but the apple does not flourish.

Arkansas was included in the Louisiana territory purchased from France in 1803. Settlements were made within its limits by French adventurers as early as 1685. It was organized as a territory in 1819, and was admitted into the Union in 1836.

Arkansas seceded March 20, 1861, and was during the rebellion more or less penetrated by Union troops, several desperate battles having been fought in the rugged, mountainous country in the north-west corner of the state, the north-eastern part having been long held by the Union forces, and the Union navy controlling the chief rivers and their banks. The state returned to the Union apparently with readier and kinder feelings than most of the seceding states. A loyal state government was early organized with Isaac Murphy at its head, and at an election held March 16, 1864, this government was confirmed and a new constitution adopted abolishing and prohibiting slavery. Tracts of land have been set apart for school purposes, but an indifference on the subject of education has pervaded the public mind. The prevailing religious denominations in Arkansas are Methodists and Baptists, while there are also considerable bodies of Episcopalians, Presbyterians, and Roman Catholics.

Little Rock, the seat of government, is on the Arkansas, about a hundred and fifty miles from its confluence with the Mississippi. The river is navigable for steamers to this point at all stages of water. The rocky bluff on which the town stands is the first stone met on the Arkansas west of the Mississippi. The town was founded in 1820, and in 1850 had 2,167 inhabitants. None of the other towns are very populous. Among the chief are Fulton, on the Red River, Helena, on the Mississippi, and Fort Smith, a government post on the western frontier.

ARKWRIGHT, Sir RICHARD, was born in Preston in 1732, and in early life was a barber. He became interested in machinery for spinning cotton, and in 1769 obtained a patent for an improvement upon Hargreaves' spinning-jenny. Combinations were formed

against him, and his patent was set aside in 1785. His business energy was equal to his mechanical skill; he could not be crushed. When he died in 1792, he had accumulated a property of £500,000, which his heirs, in their generation, increased to one of the most colossal fortunes ever realized in the kingdom.

ARMADA, THE INVINCIBLE, a famous armament fitted out against England in the time of Elizabeth (1588), by Philip II. of Spain. It consisted of one hundred and fifty large ships, with 20,000 soldiers, 8,250 seamen, and 2,000 volunteers, under the Duke of Medina Sidonia. The number of guns the ships bore was 2,650, some of them of extraordinary calibre. The English navy at that time consisted of but thirty ships of war. It was reinforced, however, by volunteers. The proud armament was shattered by storms. The size of the Spanish vessels prevented them from acting with advantage on the seas in which they were engaged. Admiral Howard, ably seconded by the officers under him, attacked and beat the fleet for several days, and very few of the Spanish vessels entered port again. Sir Francis Drake, Captain Hawkins, and others, greatly distinguished themselves at this time. The preparations on land, superintended by the queen herself, were fully commensurate to those at sea.

ARMENIA, a country of western Asia, lying south of the Caucasus, in ancient times a powerful kingdom. The name lingers merely in geography; the greater portion of the territory is in the hands of the Turks, the eastern part belongs to Persia, the northern to Russia. The early history of Armenia is not well known. The Assyrians, Medes, Persians, and Macedonians by turns possessed it. After the death of Alexander, it was united to Syria, of which it formed a part until it revolted from Antiochus the Great, when it was possessed by two different rulers and divided into Armenia Major and Minor. Tigranes, king of the former in 95 B.C., reduced Armenia Minor, and other provinces, and united the two countries. Under him it became tributary to Rome, in 63 B.C., and Trajan made it a Roman province in 106. After Sapor of Persia vainly attempted its conquest from the Romans, it was governed by native princes, until the Arabians

conquered it in about 650. It was conquered by the Seljukian Turks about 1046, after which it suffered many changes, till it was reduced by the prince of Kharasm in 1201, who was driven out of it by Genghis Khan in 1218. In 1335, the Ilkhanian dynasty began here, and continued till 1385, when Armenia was conquered by Tamerlane, from whom it was soon after recovered by the Ilkhanian princes. On the death of Ahmed Jalayr, the last of the line, in 1405, Kara Yusef, the chief of the Turcomans, got possession of it. This dynasty had the name of the Black Sheep, and in 1488, it fell by conquest to the family of the White Sheep. In 1500, it was conquered by Ishmael Sosi, and reduced by Selim I. in 1514. During the late war between Russia, and England, France, and Turkey, Armenia was a seat of hostilities, and the siege of Kars attracted much interest. The population is scanty, considering the extent of the country, and consists of Armenians, Turks, and the wild Kurds. Oppression has driven the Armenians somewhat widely from the land of their fathers. They have much aptitude for business, and Armenian merchants are now established in nearly all the countries of Europe and Asia. At almost every great fair or mart, from Leipzig and London to Bombay and Calcutta, they are to be seen. Originally the Armenians were worshipers of fire, but toward the close of the third century they became converts to Christianity. To their fidelity to their faith they owe their existence as a separate people through long centuries of servitude. The Armenian church is a corrupt form of the Roman Catholic. It does not acknowledge the supremacy of the pope, and is governed by patriarchs.

ARMINIUS (VAN HARMINE) was born at Oudewater, South Holland, in 1560. After studying at Leyden, he went to Geneva and enjoyed the prelections of Beza. His mind seems to have had an early itching to oppose established forms of thought and belief, and he became a romantic supporter of the philosophy of Peter Ramus. At twenty-six he was ordained minister of one of the churches in Amsterdam, and there preached with great acceptance. He was soon entangled in controversy. In 1603 he succeeded Junius in the chair of theology at Leyden. There he

attacked the doctrine of predestination, and based it upon foreknowledge of faith and merit. From this a hot theological war grew. Arminius died in 1609. His candor is unimpeached and his ability undoubted. The system that bears his name, was elaborated after his death, several of its distinctive tenets not being held by Arminius.

ARMSTRONG, JOHN, a native of Pennsylvania, was a brigadier-general in the Continental army, and fought well at Fort Moultrie, Germantown, and Brandywine. Piqued at certain promotions, he resigned his commission in 1777, and afterward sat in Congress. He died in 1795.

ARMSTRONG, JOHN, son of the former, was the author of the celebrated "Newburgh Addresses." He was aid-de-camp to Gates. He was United States senator from New York, and minister to France from 1804 to 1811. Mr. Madison made him secretary of war. The capture of Washington by the British, led to his retirement from office. He died in 1843, in his eighty-fifth year.

ARNE, THOMAS AUGUSTINE, was the son of an upholsterer, and born in London in 1710. His father educated him at Eton and placed him in an attorney's office; but such was his love for music, that he had no relish for the quiddities of law. After a few lessons from a German violinist, he made such progress with the bow, that he left his master the attorney, and took music for a profession. His father happening accidentally to call at the house of a neighboring gentleman, was amazed and consternated to find his Thomas Augustine playing the leading violin. But the old gentleman acquiesced. The world gained an excellent musician and lost a discontented pettifogger. Arne became a popular lyrical composer, writing several pleasing operas, many charming songs, besides a large number of fine glees, catches, and canons. His song and chorus, "Rule Britannia," has been said "to have wafted his name over the greater half of the habitable world." In 1769, the university of Oxford conferred upon Arne the degree of doctor in music. He died March 5th, 1778. His last moments were cheered by a Hallelujah sung by himself.

ARNOLD, BENEDICT, was born in Norwich, Conn., Jan. 3d, 1740, and before the outbreak of the Revolution was a druggist and book-

seller in New Haven. He engaged early in the struggle between the colonies and the mother country, espousing the cause of the former. His reckless bravery gained him general applause. He was at the taking of Ticonderoga, and his expedition to Canada has been celebrated as a great military enterprise. The troops marched to Canada by the way of Maine, encountering the severity of midwinter, threading tangled forests, and suffering every hardship. In 1777, Arnold displayed great gallantry, and bore a conspicuous part in those efforts which led to the capitulation of Burgoyne. Being unfitted for active service by a severe wound received in the battle of Stillwater, he was placed in command of Philadelphia. He plunged into expensive pleasures, soon became involved in debt, and saw no means of escaping from his embarrassments, but by flying into the arms of the British, and earning their gold by treason to his country. Having been reprimanded by Washington for misbehavior, he solicited and obtained the command of West Point, for the basest of purposes. The ill success of his traitorous scheme to yield this important fortress to the British has been told in our sketch of Andre. Arnold escaped to the British camp. After joining the enemy, he published two manifestoes, in which he attributed the change in his opinions to the declaration of independence, and the alliance of America with France, although long after the adoption of these measures, he had fought beneath the colonial colors, had been wounded at Quebec, and was pledged to support the cause of his country. A large sum of money, and the rank of brigadier-general in the British army, were the rewards of his apostasy. After his treason, he made war upon his former friends more after the manner of a bandit chieftain, than that of a high-souled warrior. Upon the recognition of the independence of the United States, Arnold retired to England, where he died in June, 1801. In the country for which he had given up his own, his reception was anything but flattering. On one occasion the British monarch desired to make Arnold known to the high-minded Earl of Balcarras. After the usual form of introduction, Arnold extended his hand to the earl. "What, sir!" said the latter to the king, drawing himself up

to his proudest height; "is this the *traitor* Arnold?" He walked haughtily away.

"The hand of Douglas was his own."

Arnold challenged the earl. They met, and Arnold missed his antagonist. The proud nobleman, instead of discharging his pistol, dashed it to the ground. "Stay, my lord," exclaimed Arnold, "you have not had your shot!" "No," replied the earl indignantly, "I leave you to the hangman."

ARNOLD, THOMAS, D. D., was born at West Cowes in the Isle of Wight, June 13th, 1795. After completing his collegiate studies at Oxford, and receiving deacon's orders, he was for nine years the principal of a private school of high repute, at Laleham near Staines. His success as a Christian teacher caused him to be chosen head-master of Rugby school in 1827. It was Dr. Arnold's aim to combine Christian with secular instruction.

He taught the upper classes, governed and guided the whole great school, edited classics and wrote histories, and yet found time to watch over the careers of all his pupils, without taking the least credit to himself, or seeming to know, or let any one else know, that he ever thought particularly of any boy at all. It is related by an old Rugby pupil that one of the boys died, on a bright Saturday afternoon, while the cricket was going on as usual. The doctor coming from the death-bed, passed the merry crew cheerfully, and no one knew what had happened till the next day. His allusion, in the afternoon discourse, to the fact that while they were at their sports, their playmate was dying, was at once cheerful, grand, and impressive. "When I came yesterday from visiting all but the very death-bed of him who has been taken from us, and looked around upon all familiar objects and scenes within our own ground, where your common amusements were going on, with your common cheerfulness and activity, I felt there was nothing painful in witnessing that; it did not seem in any way shocking or out of tune with those feelings which the sight of a dying Christian must be supposed to awaken. The unsuitableness in point of natural feeling between scenes of mourning and scenes of liveliness did not at all present itself. But I did feel that if at that moment any of those faults had been brought before me which

sometimes occur amongst us; had I heard that any among you had been guilty of falsehood, of drunkenness, or of any such sin; had I heard from any quarter the language of profaneness, or of unkindness, or of indecency; had I heard or seen any signs of that wretched folly, which courts the laugh of fools by affecting not to dread evil and not to care for good, then the unsuitableness of any of these things with the scene I had just quitted would indeed have been most intensely painful. And why? Not because such things would really have been worse than at any other time, but because at such a moment the eyes are opened really to know good and evil, because we then feel what it is so to live that death becomes an infinite blessing."

He is known as an author by several volumes of discourses and by a "History of Rome" written on Niebuhr's plan. He was appointed to the chair of modern history at Oxford; but he had only given his inaugural lecture, when a spasmodic affection of the heart cut him off suddenly at Rugby, June 12th, 1842.

ARTHUR, a mythical prince of ancient Britain, whose story Hume thinks has some foundation in fact. He is said to have been born about 501, and died 542. The institution of an order of chivalry, called the Knights of the Round Table, is attributed to him, and also the establishment of Christianity at York.

ARUNDELIAN MARBLES, containing a chronology of ancient history from 1582 to 355 B.C., and said to have been sculptured 264 B.C. They consist of thirty-seven statues and one hundred and twenty-eight busts, with two hundred and fifty inscriptions in Greek characters. They were found in the isle of Paros about 1610, purchased by the Earl of Arundel, and given to the university of Oxford, 1627.

ARUSPICES, or HARUSPICES, priests among the Romans who foretold future events by observing the entrails of the animals sacrificed, and the manner in which the victim behaved. They existed from the time of Romulus to that of Constantine (337 A.D.), when all soothsaying was prohibited on pain of death. Their number at this time was seventy.

ASBURY, FRANCIS, a Methodist preacher who came hither from England in 1771, and

was one of the first bishops of the Methodist Episcopal church in the United States. His labors were crowned with great good. He died suddenly at Spotsylvania, Va., March 31st, 1816, aged seventy.

ASCALON. In this battle, Sept. 7th, 1191, Richard I. of England, commanding the crusaders, reduced to 30,000, defeated ten times that number of Saracens under Saladin. It is said that 30,000 of the paynim foe were left dead on the field of battle.

ASHANTEE, a nation of negroes, on and near the Gold Coast of Guinea. They are in the vicinity of Cape Coast Castle, the British settlement at Sierra Leone. Warlike and unyielding, they carried on a bloody war with the English from 1807 to 1826. The kingdom of the Ashantees has been in existence more than a hundred years. The king has a band of devoted attendants, one hundred in number, who are slain upon his tomb, that he may be properly accompanied on his arrival in the infernal regions. His 3,333 wives are regarded with reverence, and on that mystical number the safety of the state depends. The empire of Ashantee, consisting of several conquered states, has a population of three million souls. The Ashantees display some ingenuity and taste in their architecture, and manufacture cloths which are skillfully dyed in brilliant colors. Coomassie, the residence of the king, has been forcibly described by an intelligent traveler. "A prospect of the capital (if such it may be called) at last opened in front of us; it was a partial glimpse, at the distance of twenty or thirty paces, of a few mud-built hovels, surrounded in part by plantations, and some straggling walls of the same material, covering a contracted space gained from the surrounding waste."

ASIA is the largest of the great divisions of the earth. Hesiod and Herodotus give a mythical origin of the name from the nymph Asia, daughter of Oceanus and Zethys, and mother or wife of Prometheus. Strabo preserves an old statement that Asia was the original name of Lydia. Orientalists have concluded that the root-syllable in 'Asia' means the 'Sun,' especially as an object of religious worship; that the Asians are 'the people of the Sun,' or 'the people from the east;' and that 'Asia' is thus the correlative of 'Europa,' which is derived from the Phœ-

nician or Hebrew word 'Ereb' or 'Oreb,' signifying 'evening,' 'sunset,' and hence the 'West.' The ancient Greeks were acquainted with little more than Asia Minor. The establishment of the Persian empire, B.C. 550, advanced geographical knowledge, because many nations and extensive regions being gathered under one rule, the intercourse between them, which before had been difficult, was much facilitated. The conquests of Alexander brought still farther advance. He had almost reached the valley of the Ganges, when a mutiny in his wearied army forced him to give over his scheme of penetrating India. He founded the city of Alexandria at the mouth of the Nile; the commerce of Tyre and the Phenicians was diverted thither; and Egyptian vessels pushed from the Red Sea as far as the shores of Malabar and the isle of Ceylon. The extreme eastern boundary of the Roman empire was formed by the Tigris, the Euphrates, and the mountains of Armenia. In one instance their armies passed beyond the limits of the known world. When warring with Mithridates they arrived at Mount Caucasus, and on the shores of the Caspian Sea they learned of a commercial road through Bactria, by which an active traffic was had with India. Shortly after another route was discovered, leading over the high table-land of upper Asia to the Seres, or Chinese; probably the road which still passes through the town of Kashghar. Though the Roman eagles did not swoop in victory over these regions of the remote East, the wealth of the imperial city caused a demand for the productions and the luxuries of the orient; so that these newly discovered paths were much frequented by merchants, while the maritime trade was also duly enhanced. The dominion of the Saracens cut off the intercourse of Europe with Asia, and till the time of the crusades no new knowledge was gained by Europeans of its geography. The Arabians, however, began to nourish geography among other sciences. To them we owe its establishment upon mathematical and astronomical principles. They renewed trading intercourse with India, and extended it to the Chinese seas. Zeal for propagating their creed inspired them, as well as the love of gain.

In the thirteenth century, Genoa, Venice, and Florence commenced their lucrative trade

with the East. In this century too, the Mongols under Genghis Khan crossed the Volga, subjected Russia, and laid prostrate the power of Poland. All Europe trembled, but the death of Genghis stayed the Tartars in their western march. The policy of Innocent IV. and of Louis IX. of France suggested the plan of turning the Mongols against the Saracens. For this it seemed necessary to convert the barbarians to the Christian faith. Friars were accordingly sent among them. They did not succeed in their mission, but their journeyings made Europeans for the first time acquainted with the immense extent of those regions vaguely known as Scythia, which thenceforth were called Mongolia or Tartary. Genghis Khan had extended his dominion over all inland Asia, from the boundary of Siberia to that of India and Thibet. After his death the Mongols continued in their career of victory, and at length in the reign of his most able successor, Kublai Khan (1259-1294), China came under their sway. At the court of this monarch at Pekin, Marco Polo dwelt from 1275 to 1292, and under his favor had the best opportunities for visiting the wide Mongol realm. The account which he published of his travels added more to geographical knowledge of Asia than all that was previously known. It very materially influenced the views of Columbus, and directed the course of Vasco de Gama. [See *POLO*.]

After the circumnavigation of Africa by Vasco de Gama in 1498, the Portuguese rapidly explored the Indian seas, founded many colonies, and carried on a rich commerce. At the close of the sixteenth century, Portugal passed under the yoke of Spain; and one result of the struggle of the Netherlands against Philip II., was the gradual transfer of the Portuguese possessions in the Indies into the hands of the Dutch. About this time Siberia was subjected by Russia, and the Jesuits obtained a footing at the Chinese court which gained them considerable knowledge of that vast empire. India was longer involved in obscurity than almost any part of Asia. The progress of the East India Company of England during the last two centuries, has rapidly opened its recesses.

Yet this quarter of the world, concerning which modern civilization has so slowly and imperfectly gained any information, was the

first peopled; here the law of God was first promulgated; here many of the greatest monarchies of the world have had their rise; and hence most of the arts and sciences have been derived. To its immensity of extent, the importance of its history, and the vastness of its monumental remains, justly correspond. It has been the theatre of some of the most important events which history records, the clime of wonders and of wealth, the chosen region of romance. If we search for the fate of proud monarchies, for the tale of powerful dynasties, for the doom of splendid cities, we shall find the name of Asia constantly recurring, and the fame of Asia the theme of unfailing wonder and of praise.

Its extent is estimated at 17,500,000 square miles, and its population set down at more than 600,000,000. We give a summary of the principal divisions of Asia. More detailed accounts may be sought in the appropriate place. Siberia, a division of the Russian empire, occupies the north. The Chinese empire comprises one-fourth of the surface of Asia, and one-half the inhabitants. The British dominions are for the most part in India, the peninsula within the Ganges, but their rule has extended over a great number of dependent native sovereigns. Nepal and Ava are the only important states of India that have remained independent of the British. The Portuguese have saved from the wreck of their once mighty possessions little more than Goa on the Malabar coast, Daman, a small portion of the peninsula of Guzerat, the island of Macao in the bay of Canton, and some districts in the island of Timor. These are supposed to contain about 60,000 square miles and 600,000 inhabitants. The French have a small foothold in Asia at Pondicherry, at Chandernagore in Bengal, and at Nahé on the coast of Malabar. The Dutch have been driven from the mainland. Their power begins on the west with Sumatra, and extends beyond Java to the Moluccas or Spice Islands. Their possessions are roughly guessed to comprehend about 612,000 square miles, with 16,500,000 inhabitants. In the south-eastern corner of Asia lie the empires of Birmah, and the kingdoms of Siam and Annam, which latter comprehends the ancient sovereignties of Camboja, Cochin China,

and Tonkin. East of China is the insular empire of Japan. In the west we have Afghanistan, Beloochistan, Arabia, Turkey in Asia, and Persia. The tract between Persia and China, sometimes called Independent Tartary, is inhabited mostly by nomadic tribes. Here are the states of Bokhara and Khiva, and many petty sovereignties in the mountain regions. But none of these have any fixed government.

The islands in the Asian seas are many and important. Besides those belonging to Japan, the larger are Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Celebes, the Philippines, the Moluccas, Ceylon, and Formosa.

ASPERNE, BATTLE OF. Between the Austrian army under the Archduke Charles, and the French; fought on the 21st, 22d, and 23d of May, 1809. In this very sanguinary fight the loss of the Austrians exceeded 20,000, and that of the French was more than 30,000. It ended in the defeat of Bonaparte, who commanded in person, and was the severest check that he had yet received. This success, however, benefited the Austrians but little in the end.

ASSASSINS, the followers of an Arab chief in the time of the crusades, who professed a blind devotion to his will. When Henry, Count of Champagne, was passing through the dominions of their chief, Aloadin, the "Old Man of the Mountains," he boasted of his power at home. "Are any of your vassals as devoted as my followers?" asked the chieftain. On this he gave a signal to ten young men, clad in white, standing on the top of a tall tower, and they instantly threw themselves from it and were dashed to pieces! To the stealth with which they took the lives of those they hated, the word 'assassin' owes its adoption and its meaning in European languages.

ASSAYE. The British army under Gen. Arthur Wellesley (afterward the Duke of Wellington), entered the Mahratta states on the south, took the fort of Ahmednugger Aug. 12th, and defeated Scindiah and the Rajah of Berar at Assaye, Sept. 23d, 1803. This was the future Wellington's first great battle, and the opposing force was ten times his own. The enemy retired in great disorder, forsaking all their artillery, ammunition, and stores.

ASSYRIA, a kingdom of Asia, said to have been founded by Asher, whose boundaries varied greatly at different times. It was anciently bounded as follows: north by the mountains Niphates, and Armenia Major, east by Media, south by Susiana, and west by Mesopotamia. Ninus, the son of Belus, (2069-2017), subdued the Babylonians and Medes, and Semiramis, his wife and successor, increased the fame of the kingdom. The kings of Assyria degenerated from this renown. Such were the indolence and voluptuousness of Sardanapalus as to encourage the successful revolt of Arbaces the Mede, and Assyria was then divided into the Median, Assyrian, and Babylonian kingdoms. It was over this second Assyrian kingdom that Sennacherib reigned, whose great army besieged Jerusalem and was swept away in a single night by the angel of the Lord. Nineveh was razed by the Medes and Babylonians, 621 B.C., and the Assyrian monarchy divided by the conquerors. Through the conquest of Cyrus these countries became one of the most important satrapies of the Persian empire, sometimes called Babylonia and sometimes Assyria.

ASTRONOMY. The history of the science of the heavens dates backward into the morning of time. Observations on the apparent and real revolutions of the stars must have been made, and a really great advance attained in the science, long before any form of record preserved the fruits of discovery. Some of the principal constellations, as they are now named, are mentioned in Job. The earliest accounts we have of the science are those of Babylon, about 2234 B.C. The study of astronomy was much advanced in Chaldea under Nabonassar. It was known to the Chinese about 1100 B.C., some say many centuries before. One tradition is that the Chinese knew the periods of the sun, moon, and planets, and were acute astronomers, in the reign of Jao, which is set down 2357 B.C. Lunar eclipses were observed at Babylon with exceeding accuracy, 720 B.C. Thales taught the spherical form of the earth, and the true cause of lunar eclipses, 640 B.C. Pythagoras, who made further discoveries, taught nearly the true doctrine of celestial motions and believed in a plurality of habit-

able worlds, 500 B.C. Hipparchus began his observations at Rhodes, 167 B.C., and continued them thirty-four years, making great advances. He began his new lunar cycles from the new moon of Sept. 28th, 143 B.C. The precession of the equinoxes was confirmed, and the places and distances of the planets discovered, by Ptolemy, A.D. 130. The system he taught, in which the earth was made the immovable centre of the universe, remained in vogue till the time of Copernicus. After the lapse of nearly seven centuries, during which astronomy was neglected, it was resumed by the Arabs, about 800, and was brought into Europe by the Moors of Barbary and Spain, about 1200, geography being introduced at the same time. The celebrated tables known as the Alphonsine, were composed by command, and under the direction, of Alphonsus X. of Castile, at an expense of four hundred thousand crowns, in 1284. Alphonsus was justly surnamed the Wise. Clocks were first used in astronomy about 1500. In 1530 Copernicus completed his immortal work, "*Astronomia Instaurata*," although it was not published until the year of his death, 1543. This treatise, in which the true doctrine of the motions of the planetary bodies was revived, did more for astronomy than was ever done for any other science by a single production. The science was also greatly advanced by Tycho Brahe in the latter part of the same century. Kepler discovered the true laws of the planetary motions in 1619. Nearly a century before Copernicus had shown that the planets moved round the sun; now Kepler showed in what manner and by what laws they moved: it was left for Newton to show why they moved. Kepler had before found that the planetary orbits were elliptical, and had demonstrated the equality of the spaces described by the *radii vectores* in equal times; and now he enunciated the important law that the square of the periodic times of the planets' revolutions are as the cubes of their distances. Telescopes and other instruments were used about 1627. The discoveries of Galileo were made about 1631. Horrox, an Englishman, was the first who ever observed a transit of Venus over the sun's disk, Nov. 24th, 1639 (o.s.) Hor-

rebow, in 1659, discovered the aberration of the light of the fixed stars. Hevelius constructed a map of the moon, 1670. Halley demonstrated the motion of the sun round its own axis, 1676. Huygens discovered the rings of Saturn, 1686. In 1687 Newton's "Principia" was published, and the system initiated by Copernicus and confirmed by Kepler, was incontrovertibly established. Flamsteed catalogued the stars, 1688. La Grange demonstrated the harmony of the perturbations of the solar system, 1780. Herschel discovered Uranus, 1781. The "*Mécanique Céleste*" of La Place was published in 1796. Ceres was discovered in 1801; Pallas, in 1802; Juno, in 1804; Vesta, in 1807. [For the several planets recently discovered, see PLANETS.]

The distances of the fixed stars is supposed to be about four hundred thousand times greater from us than we are from the sun; that is to say, thirty-eight millions of millions of miles; so that a cannon-ball would be nine millions of years in reaching one of them, supposing there was nothing to hinder it from pursuing its course thither. As light takes about eight minutes and a quarter to reach us from the sun, it would be about six years in coming from one of those stars: yet the calculations of later astronomers prove some stars to be so distant, that their light must take centuries before it can reach us, and the light by which we now see these started on its journey three or four hundred years ago.

ATHANASIUS, a great theological champion in the fourth century, was born about 296. He was an active member of the council of Nice. His rising fame led to his elevation to the see of Alexandria, upon the death of his patron, Bishop Alexander. He was immediately involved in contests with the Arians concerning the divinity of Christ, that ended only with his life. Deposed most unjustly in 335, he was reinstated in 338. Deposed again in 340, he was reinstated in 342. The unscrupulous charges of his foes he refuted with overwhelming proof and eloquence. But in 355 he was again sentenced to be banished, when he retired to the deserts, till again he was welcomed back to the Egyptian capital. Once more, Julian the apostate exiled him, and once more he was restored. A fifth time was he banished by

the Emperor Valens, who soon recalled him, however, and Athanasius, after holding the primacy for the long space of forty-six years, passed into peace in 373. He was a man of devout life, an orator of ready and forcible eloquence, and a prelate of heroic and indefatigable activity.

ATHENS. The early period of Athenian history is so far beyond our ken as to be but dimly discerned. It is not till the time of Solon that the story becomes definite. Something is said of Ogyges, who reigned in Bœotia, and was master of Attica, then called Ionia. In his reign a deluge took place (by some supposed to be no other than the great flood), that laid waste the land, and so it remained until the arrival of Cecrops and his colony, by whom it was peopled, 1556 B.C. Originally Athens was called from its founder, Cecropia, but in time his name was only retained by the citadel, the Acropolis, while the Greek name of Minerva (Athena) was applied to the city. The position of Athens is peculiar, and the surrounding scenery luxuriant and interesting. The blue Saronic Gulf, so often swept by victorious navies, the opposite shore of the Peloponnesus, the rocky steep of the Acropolis, and the beauty of the surrounding plains, are prominent features in a landscape which antiquity has made interesting, and fame immortal. Nor were the natural beauties of the scene its chief recommendation. Art here successfully vied with nature, and erection of most noble edifices bore witness to the taste, industry, skill, and public spirit of the Athenians. Cecrops, the founder of Athens, was an Egyptian, skilled in the arts of his countrymen, and possessing more than their customary enterprise; he founded the kingdom of Athens, dividing the country into twelve districts, over which he ruled for a long time with the title of king. He instituted the senate called the Areopagus, which met upon a hill in the vicinity of the citadel, dedicated to Mars. This court acquired an active influence in the affairs of government. To it the examination of the laws and state of public morals was committed, while crimes against religion and the state, required its peculiar attention. In 1498 B.C., Amphietyon, one of the successors of Cecrops, established the Amphietyonic council, an



THE HILL OF THE AREOPAGUS.

assembly which ultimately attained a high degree of celebrity. At first they assembled at Delphi, where was the oracle of Apollo, but finally at Anthela, a village in the vicinity of the famous Thermopylae.

To both of these monarchs the Athenians owed much. If Cecrops softened the manners of the inhabitants of Attica, taught them how to clothe their lands with the verdure of the olive and the vine, and instructed them in the love of order, the worship of the gods, the rites of Hymen, and those of sepulture, Amphietyon strengthened and secured the advantages which his subjects had begun to reap. No longer they feared the incursions of predatory neighbors, but sat in the shade of their vineyards, enjoying the happiness which security and peace bestow. Theseus was the greatest warrior among these early kings of Athens. He is said to have united in one confederation the hitherto independent twelve states of Attica founded by Cecrops. Codrus was the last of the line. In a battle with the Heraclidæ, 1068 B.C., he sought and found death, for the oracle had promised that victory should rest with the side whose leader was slain. The government assumed a republican form. The

change was but in name, for the archon had nearly all the power of the king, whose place in the state he filled. The archon was originally chosen for life. After a lapse of little more than three centuries, the term of office was curtailed to ten years, and less than a century afterward, the number of archons was increased to nine, and they served for a term of one year only.

Originally all the Grecian states had a regal government, which was abolished in consequence of the tyranny of the various princes, and supplanted by republican forms. Recovering their liberty at an early period, the Greeks acquired that love of freedom which characterized them throughout their long career, and it was only when luxury and wealth had banished the temperate and unostentatious life of their ancestors, that the Greeks found themselves unable to contend against the encroachments of hostile power, and fell beneath the arms of more enterprising rivals. The rivalry of Athens and Sparta produced, together with much good, an infinity of evil. The Spartans were of a sterner cast than the Athenians, and even more distinguished for their love of freedom and their invincible courage. They

despised those triumphs of the arts which the Athenians made their glory, and relied for fame on stern contempt of the elegancies and the common comforts of life.

What their Lyncurgus was to them, Solon was to the Athenians. Solon was one of those great characters whom their countrymen regard with veneration for ages, and whose memory they recall even in the midst of oppression, and the darkness of disgrace; one of those rare spirits whose virtues and self-possession are most conspicuous when most needed, and whose knowledge, like the lamp of the glow-worm, shines brightest when the darkness is most heavy. At a time (B.C. 594-578) when the turbulence and ambition of the archons threatened the Athenians with a multitude of evils, all eyes were turned upon Solon, as the pilot who alone could guide the vessel of state through the rocks and surges that surrounded it. He was at once created archon extraordinary with unlimited power, for his high character and calm demeanor inspired confidence among the people he was destined to assist. Solon introduced a mild code of laws, in opposition to that of Draco, his predecessor in legislation, whose appalling severity had raised him many enemies. The government was placed in the hands of a senate of four hundred members chosen by the people. After an acquittal of their debts, the people were divided into four classes. The members of the three first classes were eligible to office, while those of the fourth, whose poverty was thought to incapacitate them from serving, were yet allowed the privilege of voting in the popular assemblies. The power of the commonwealth was vested in these assemblies, but there was a restrictive influence in the senate.

Whatever merit we may be disposed to allow the constitution of Solon, framed as it was at a very early period, it was much too artificial to be permanently successful. Solon lived to see this. During his retirement from Athens, factions disturbed the peace of the people, and Solon, after having vainly endeavored to stem the current, retired to the isle of Cyprus, where he died, B.C. 560. A change of government was effected by Pisistratus, a popular but ambitious man, who headed the poorer class of

people (a class who considered themselves peculiarly oppressed by the constitution of Solon) and gained possession of the supreme power. The plans of the usurper possessed plausibility and brilliancy. His benevolence was undoubted; he governed with equity and moderation. At his death Pisistratus bequeathed his power to his two sons, Hipparchus and Hippias, who, for a long time, by a liberal patronage of the arts and of learned men, gave a brilliancy to their administration which was unhappily not destined to endure. Among the most brilliant ornaments of the court was Anacreon, the elegant though effeminate poet of love and wine. The cruelty of Hippias at length roused the spirit of the Athenians, who broke forth into an open revolt, in which Hipparchus was slain, and Hippias banished. Pisistratus and his sons governed under the title of tyrants, a term at that time not necessarily implying an abuse of power. They held the tyranny for thirty-six years, during which time we may naturally infer that all tendency toward a democratical form of government was suppressed, but under their rule the arts began to flourish. Upon the downfall of Hippias, two factions contended for the mastery in Athens; the one headed by Cleisthenes, of the aristocratical family of the Alcmaeonidae, the other by Isagoras, son of Tisander. Cleisthenes effected some changes in the laws of Solon, increasing the number of the divisions of the people to ten, and of the members of the senate to five hundred, and by these and other measures he gained the favor of the Athenians. His rival called in the aid of Cleomenes, the mad king of Lacedæmon. But Cleomenes was baffled, his allies the Bœotians and Chalcidians defeated by the Athenians, and the territory of Chalcis in the fertile isle of Eubœa colonized by four thousand Athenians. Athens lent some aid to the Ionian Greeks, who were in revolt against Darius. Hippias had finally sought refuge at the Persian court, and when the Athenian force burned Sardis he easily excited the hostility of Darius against the city of his former rule. But the bravery of the Athenians was not wasted in words, and they joined against the invaders with heart and hand. When the heralds of Darius came with the insolent demand of earth and water,

the usual signs of submission, they were seized and thrown, the one into a ditch and the other into a well, whence they were contemptuously told to satisfy their wants. The troops of Darius entered Attica, encamping at Marathon, a small town upon the sea-coast. Against an army of 500,000 horse and foot, the brave Miltiades led forth a band of 10,000 Athenians, who were victorious in the most sacred of causes, 490 B.C. Ten years afterward when Xerxes poured his forces into Greece, the Athenians, under Themistocles, were triumphant, and the victory of Salamis bore witness to the terrible energy and roused spirit of freemen. Yet it is painful to mark the fickleness and ingratitude of the Athenians. One would think that while Marathon was remembered, the services of Miltiades could not be forgotten. Yet the noble Athenian, in consequence of misfortune, was thrown into a prison where he perished. Aristides, whose virtue procured him the surname of "the just," was banished by ostracism, without any adequate cause. The practice of ostracism was so called, because the citizens wrote upon a tile or shell (*ostrakon*) the names of those who were obnoxious to them. The shells being counted, the person whose name occurred most frequently, was banished. Themistocles was also persecuted and forced to seek refuge at the Persian court; yet so fond was he of his ungrateful country, that rather than serve against her, he killed himself. It was men like these who reflected a lustre on the Athenian name.

Xerxes in his march through Attica had entered Athens. After his defeat at Salamis he hastily retreated into Asia, leaving his general Mardonius with 300,000 men. Mardonius re-entered Athens, applied the torch, and reduced the city almost utterly to ruins. His defeat at Plataea, B.C. 479, by the combined Greeks, rid the land of its invaders.

When the Persians, humbled to the dust, no longer had the audacity to threaten Greece, the glory of the Athenians brightened, day by day. The people saw with delight the extension of their privileges. All orders, feeling the benefit of equal institutions, labored in common for the aggrandizement of their country. Members of all classes were now made eligible to office, and the poor felt that they stood upon an equal footing with

the rich, and might, by exertion, rise superior to them. The period from the close of the Persian war, B.C. 479, to the time of the Peloponnesian war, B.C. 431, includes days of uncommon splendor in the history of Athens. The naval supremacy of Attica arose. Cimon and Pericles introduced elegance into Athens, and the age of the latter is commonly quoted as the golden era of the country. The arts under his liberal patronage, flourished to a great degree. In his time, that glorious temple to Minerva, the most perfect example of Grecian art, the Parthenon, was erected. Magnificent temples sprang up in every direction, the marble breathed, the pencil glowed, and the lips of the orator and poet were gifted with kindling eloquence. To this age belong the tragic verse of Æschylus, the lofty dramas of Sophocles and Euripides, and the biting satire of Aristophanes. In this time, too, Herodotus read his history publicly in the Athenian council. Yet, in the midst of much apparent prosperity, the foundation of misfortune was laid. The abundance of wealth was not without deteriorating influence, and the Athenians became so enamored of the elegances of life, that they began to prefer them to manliness and independence. Pericles was at the zenith of his greatness B.C. 444. He engaged in the Peloponnesian war, B.C. 431, the end of which, after twenty-seven years, was that the Lacedæmonians, ever more hardy if not more brave than the elegant Athenians, made themselves masters of Athens, and granted peace to the vanquished on the most humiliating conditions. For eight months the Athenians groaned under the yoke of the thirty magistrates, or, as they were called, the thirty tyrants, whom the Lacedæmonians imposed upon them, and kept under the protection of their garrison. The man who led to the overthrow of this oppression, was Thrasybulus. Again the star of Athens rose to the zenith, bright as if no cloud had ever covered it and hid its silvery brilliancy beneath a veil. The Athenians joined the Thebans against Sparta and were successful. They were yet to feel, however, the importance of a power hitherto unacknowledged or despised. Philip of Macedon descended from the north. In vain did Demosthenes urge the Athenians to die in defense of their liberty. In vain did this

extraordinary man hurl his tremendous anathemas against Philip. He was doomed to see the subjugation of his countrymen. Philip was neither daunted by eloquence, nor repulsed by bravery. The battle of Cheronæa, B.C. 338, struck a death-blow to Grecian liberty. Athens remained, with the other states of Greece, dependent upon the Macedonian power for existence. She did not sink without a struggle, but all her struggles were of no avail against the giant power which had prostrated her, and fettered her with bonds of adamant.

When Athens was taken by Cassander (B.C. 317), the oligarchy was restored, and Demetrius Phalerius, upheld by a Macedonian garrison, enjoyed the office of governor of the state for ten years. The Athenians entreated the assistance of Demetrius Poliorcetes, who, having taken the city, restored the form of the ancient constitution. To this dissolute ruler the corrupt Athenians paid the honors due only to the gods; temples were erected to his mistresses; nor did the abode of the Virgin Goddess herself, on the Acropolis, escape desecration from the unbridled licentiousness of the time. Demetrius was overthrown, 287 B.C. Antigonus Gonatas of Macedon conquered the Athenians, 268 B.C. After twelve years under his yoke they were delivered by Aratus, and joined the Achæan league. The Romans gladly availed themselves of the co-operation of the Athenians against the last Philip of Macedon. After having drawn down upon themselves the vengeance of Rome by espousing the side of Mithridates, 88 B.C., the Athenians trembled for the consequences. Sylla took their city, B.C. 86, and the show of liberty which it afterward retained, was but a bitter mockery. Yet under the Romans, Athens continued to be the centre of the arts, of philosophy, and of all the learning of the time. Vespasian made Athens a Roman province, and it was included in the empire of the east, after the division of the Roman empire. But it was destined to feel the terror of that power beneath which the queen of cities was prostrated to the dust. Alaric the Goth, A.D. 396, conquered and devastated the country. From this period, the liberty of Athens existed but in the recollection of the past. In 420, paganism was abolished in Athens, and

the Parthenon converted into a church of the Virgin Mary. In 1456, the Turks gained possession of the city. A black eunuch held the place which Pericles once adorned, and the Parthenon, no longer a Christian church, was forced to answer as a mosque. In 1687, the Venetians besieged Athens, and some of the works of the immortal Phidias, the sculptor, were destroyed by the explosion of a magazine, fired by a bomb thrown into the Parthenon by the besiegers. On the 29th of September, Athens came into the hands of the Venetians, after its inhabitants had suffered severely from the siege, but was again relinquished to the Turks in 1688. From the erection of many barbaric structures, some of the most valuable remains of antiquity have been covered and concealed, to be brought to light by the researches of the curious of later days. From the Turks, the Greeks of Athens experienced a milder treatment than many of their brethren, and were permitted to retain many of their ancient observances. In 1822, the Acropolis sustained a long siege, which was terminated by its falling into the hands of the patriots. News of this was heard with delight by all the Greeks, who loved their country, and rejoiced to behold

"The flag of freedom wave once more
Above the lofty Parthenon."

When at last Grecian independence was established, Athens was made the capital of the new kingdom.

ATHOS, a mountain of ancient Macedonia, now Agion-oros, or Monte Santo, in the Turkish province of Saloniki. On its sides are many hermitages, and twenty monasteries, with over eight thousand monks, chiefly Russians and Greeks, of the order of St. Basil. No female, even of the animal kind, is allowed to enter the peninsula on which the holy mountain stands. Some of the monasteries are said to contain very ancient and valuable manuscripts. Not long since, a manuscript of the eighth century, a translation of the Bible into the Georgian language by St. Euphemius, was discovered here. The summit of this mountain is about 6,350 feet above the level of the sea. At the foot of it, Xerxes caused a trench a mile and a half long, to be cut and filled with sea-water. This was for

the passage of his fleet, and of such width that two ships could sail abreast.

ATLANTIC OCEAN. There is not in the multitude of natural wonders, a more sublime spectacle than that afforded by the world of waters, under whatever view it is contemplated. Impressive and beautiful it is, when stretched out in the tranquil repose of an unbroken calm, reflecting the still splendor of the heavens by day, or their diamond brilliancy by night. Far as the eye can reach, there is hardly a ripple on the wave, and at the horizon, the azure of the air and that of the ocean join in the bridal of the sea and sky. Yet more impressive is the aspect of the deep sea in a tempest; when the elements are awakened from their slumber, and abroad in their terrible strength, and the wild winds of heaven sport with gigantic mountains of water, heaving them to and fro, with the ease of zephyrs sporting with dew-drops.

The formation of the bed of the Atlantic, from latitude 20° S., up to the north pole, has been ascribed to the concussion of immense masses of water, produced by the deluge, when, it is conceived, the waters of the great southern ocean below the equator, rushed upon the northern hemisphere. From Cape Frio to the river of the Amazons, in South America, there is a vast protuberance answering to the incurvation of the African shore from the river of Congo to Cape Palmas; while, from the Straits of Gibraltar to Cape Palmas, there is an immense protuberance, corresponding to the incurvation between New York and Cape St. Roque. This conjecture is thought probable, since the depression caused by such an immense body of water could not be otherwise than enormous, considering the shock and weight of the opposing body.

Until the successful issue of the voyages of Columbus, it was imagined that there was one unbroken extent of water between the western shores of Europe and Africa, and the East Indies; and the great navigator himself imagined that he had reached the Indian realms, by a shorter route than that pursued by the Portuguese. The name of the Atlantic Ocean is connected with a tradition which is lost in the night of antiquity, and which, reaching the Greeks from the Egyptians, has been commemorated by Plato. It was said

that there originally existed an isle called Atlantis, which rose from the bosom of the ocean, and surpassed in extent Asia and Libya together. Plato's testimony has caused a controversy among modern authors respecting the situation and nature of Atlantis. Of course, it is impossible to determine the situation of an isle which existed before the ages of history, but still shall we disregard the truth of the tale? What interest had the Greeks in imagining a fable, which bore no relation to their history, and which was not calculated to affect their religious belief? Why should the Greeks have adopted it? "The islanders," says Plato, "subdued Libya, Egypt, and Europe, as far as Asia Minor; at last, Atlantis was swallowed by the waters, and for a long time afterward, the sea was full of earth and sand-banks, in the vicinity of the place which the island had occupied." This last passage proves the existence of a tradition of a terrible outbreak of the waters of the Atlantic Ocean, which overwhelmed Atlantis.

The depth of the Atlantic is various, being in some parts unfathomable. Its saltness and specific gravity diminish gradually from the equator to the poles. Near the British islands, the salt is said to be one thirty-eighth of the weight of the water. The temperature of the Atlantic is influenced, considerably, by the masses of ice which float from the northward toward the equator, reaching frequently the fortieth degree of latitude. Dangerous as are these icebergs to the mariner, they yet present a splendid appearance as they float onward to southern latitudes, gleaming in the sunbeams, which, while they impart dazzling brilliancy, hasten the dissolution of the floating masses. The continual melting gives a very fanciful appearance to the icebergs, which is heightened by the rivulets pouring from point to point, like the streams trickling down a cavern of stalactites. Passages between North America and Europe in the months of June and July, are sometimes rendered perilous by the frequency of icebergs from the northward.

Much important information concerning the currents and winds of the Atlantic has been gained by the observations planned and directed by Lieut. Maury. The waters of the tropical seas have a westward motion, known as the equatorial current. This oceanic stream

flows from the African coast to Cape St. Roque, where dividing, one branch sets southward along the coast of Brazil, while the larger branch rushes impetuously along the shore of Guiana, and through the Caribbean Sea. The Gulf Stream, the most famous of all the Atlantic currents, is described in a separate article. A powerful current takes its start from the sea between Ireland and Spain, and sweeps down the African coast as far as the shores of Guinea. The Arctic current has its origin in the polar seas of the north, skirts the coasts of Greenland and Labrador, and off the banks of Newfoundland is bifurcated by the Gulf Stream. The forks continue southward in deep submarine currents. These are the great arteries of the Atlantic. The heart of the ocean never ceases to beat. A strong current, far down in the depths of the sea, is supposed to flow from the Atlantic into the Arctic seas. Lieut. Maury tells us of a Grassy (Sargasso) Sea, midway the Atlantic, in the triangular space between the Azores, Canaries, and Cape Verde Islands. Covering an area equal in extent to the Mississippi valley, it is so thickly matted over with gulfweed that the speed of vessels passing through it is often much retarded. The comrades of Columbus thought it marked the limits of navigation, and were much alarmed. Patches of the weed are always to be seen floating along the Gulf Stream. Now, if bits of cork be put into a basin, and a circular motion given to the water, they will be found crowding near the centre of the pool, where there is the least motion. Such a basin is the Atlantic to the Gulf Stream, and the Sargasso Sea is the centre of the whirl. Columbus found this grassy sea, and there it is at this day.

The steady easterly breezes that prevail within the tropics are known as trade-winds. Without this region the winds are variable, but generally westerly. In the latitude of the equator and of the two tropics, calms prevail. Those of the tropic of Cancer have long been known as the 'horse latitudes,' from the fact that vessels carrying horses from New England to the West Indies were often becalmed here till their water was almost exhausted, and some of the cargo must be thrown overboard, to save the remainder. By taking advantage of the prevailing winds and currents, voyages have been almost incredibly

shortened, and the old adage made true, that "the longest way round is the shortest way home."

ATLAS is the historical and geographical name of the extensive mountain system whose ranges, branches, and table-lands cover the north-west of Africa, and form a barrier between the Barbary states and the sands of the Sahara.

ATTERBURY, FRANCIS, Bishop of Rochester, an eloquent English preacher, born in 1662, arrested on a charge of conspiracy in favor of the Stuarts, 1722; died in exile, 1732.

ATTICA, a country of ancient Greece, is a peninsula, united with Boeotia toward the north, and partially with Megaris on the west. At Cape Sunium (now Colonna), it projects far into the Ægean Sea. [See ATHENS.] Attica was once famous for its gold and silver mines, which constituted the best part of the public revenues, and were worked by twenty thousand men. The inhabitants were numbered, in the sixteenth Olympiad, at 31,000 citizens, and 400,000 slaves, in a hundred and seventy-four villages, some of which were considerable towns. The fragrance and abundance of flowers in Attica made the mountain slopes of Hymettus famous for their honey.

ATTILA, king of the Huns, ravaged Europe between 434 and 453. He rendered the Greek empire tributary, and invaded Gaul, but was defeated on the Maine. He threatened Rome, but was induced by a vast ransom to retire. Attila was given to excess, and died from the bursting of a blood-vessel on the night of his nuptials with the beautiful Ildico, 453. His body was put in three coffins, the outer of iron, the next of silver, and the inner one of gold. His personal appearance has been described by Jornandes. He had a large head, a flat nose, broad shoulders, and a short, misshapen body. The dread inspired by this fierce warrior, at the head of hundreds of thousands of barbarians, gained him the surnames of the 'terror of the world' and the 'scourge of God.'

AUDUBON, JOHN JAMES, born in Louisiana 1782, died Jan. 27th, 1851. His life was devoted to ornithology, and his great work, "The Birds of America," was pronounced by Cuvier, "the most gigantic and most magnificent monument ever erected to Nature." His parentage was French, and in youth he

enjoyed the tuition of the great painter David. His love of nature led him to the forest, and he had crowded portfolios with drawings of birds long before he had any thought of publishing. "The Birds of America" was a costly publication. There were one hundred and seventy-five subscriptions of a thousand dollars each, eighty of which were obtained in this country, and the remainder in Europe. The work was issued in Edinburgh.

AUERSTADT. In this bloody conflict between the French and Prussian armies, Oct. 14th, 1806, they were commanded by their respective sovereigns, and Napoleon gained a decisive victory. The Prussians, routed on every side, lost two hundred pieces of cannon, thirty standards, and 28,000 prisoners, leaving 30,000 slain upon the field. Napoleon at once entered Berlin.

AUGEREAU, PIERRE FRANCOIS CHARLES, Duke of Castiglione, was one of those men who emerged from obscurity, and obtained a high rank among the officers that surrounded Napoleon, giving such unrivaled brilliancy to his court and camp. Augereau was the son of a fruit-merchant, and was born at Paris, 1757; serving, as soon as he was able, as a carbineer in the French army. Having subsequently entered the Neapolitan service, he was banished from Naples, in 1792. He then served as a volunteer in the army of Italy, and attracted attention by his bravery and military talent. In 1794, we find him a general of brigade, and, in 1796, general of division. He distinguished himself, at the pass of Millesimo, at Lodi, at Castiglione, at Arcola, &c. In 1799, he was chosen member of the council of five hundred. He was intrusted by Bonaparte with the command of the army in Holland, joined Moreau, and fought with varying fortune, until the campaign was ended by the battle of Hohenlinden. In 1803, he was appointed to head the expedition against Portugal, which enterprise failed. Returning to Paris, he was named, in 1804, marshal of the empire, and grand officer of the legion of honor and the next year, Duke of Castiglione. In 1805, he was in Germany, contributing to the successes of the French. Wounded in the battle of Eylau, he was forced to return to France. In 1811, he had a command in Spain. In 1813, he was engaged in the battle of Leipsic. After the success of the allies,

Louis XVIII. named him a peer. In consequence of his speaking disrespectfully of Napoleon after his fall, the latter, on his return from Elba, declared him a traitor, although Augereau had again acknowledged him as emperor. Augereau took no active part in affairs until the return of the king, when he resumed his seat in the chamber of peers. He died of the dropsy, June 11th, 1816.

AUGSBURG, BATTLE OF. Between the Austrians and the French, the latter commanded by Moreau, who gained a victory so decisive, that Augsburg and Munich were opened to him; fought Aug. 24th, 1796. Moreau, Sept. 2d, again defeated the Austrians on the Inn, and again Sept. 7th, at Mainburg.

AUGUSTINE, Bishop of Hippo, eminent among the church fathers, was born in Numidia, A.D. 354. In early life he was loose, roving, and sensual, but he was rescued for a higher existence by the influence of his mother, Monica, and the preaching of St. Ambrose. When Hippo was menaced by the Vandals, the good bishop died in the third month of the siege, at the ripe age of seventy-six.

AUGUSTIN, or AUSTIN, St., has been surnamed the Apostle of the English. The time at which he flourished, was the reign of Ethelbert, toward the close of the sixth century. Ethelbert was then seated on the throne of Kent, to which he had succeeded on the death of his father Hermenric, about 560. After a determined struggle, he had mastered all the states of the heptarchy, with the exception of Northumberland. Ethelbert formed a matrimonial alliance with France, claiming in marriage the hand of Bertha, a Christian princess, from her father, Caribert, king of Paris. The princess, distinguished for her piety and virtue, exacted a promise from her husband that she should not be molested in the enjoyment of her religion, and that, on the contrary, she should be permitted to bring over to England with her a French bishop. Ethelbert, who was tenderly attached to her, made no objections, and the French bishop was received with every mark of respect. The conduct of the queen was such as to reflect honor on herself and the court of her husband, and excited the admiration of Ethelbert and his subjects. The king could not but perceive the salutary

influence of Christianity, and was strongly prepossessed in its favor. Pope Gregory the Great received the intelligence of the favorable disposition of the king with unfeigned gladness, and dispatched a mission of forty monks, headed by Augustin, A.D. 596.

Augustin found the king ready to lend a willing ear to his arguments, and displayed in a striking and happy light the truth and beauty of the gospel. The king was not long in avowing his belief in the doctrines of Christianity. With his subjects, Augustin was no less successful; they embraced the true religion with readiness, and crowded to baptism. It is said that Augustin baptized no fewer than ten thousand in one day. He desired to be made Archbishop of Canterbury, with supreme authority over all the churches in England. The pope was by no means disposed to refuse any of his requests, considering that he had fairly earned any distinction which it was in papal power to bestow. The archiepiscopal pall was granted him, with permission to establish twelve sees in the province. The British bishops in Wales refused to acknowledge the authority of the church of Rome, under whose jurisdiction they had never placed themselves. They were descendants of the British converts of the second century, and sternly resolved to maintain their independence. Augustin urged, then threatened. The bishops were neither pliant nor timid, and adhered to their original determination. A dreadful tragedy was acted, twelve hundred Welsh monks being ruthlessly put to the sword. Augustin was suspected not only of having sanctioned, but of having instigated the massacre. He had been irritated by the refusal of the Welsh ecclesiastics to unite with the English church, and he thought their contumacy deserving of the severest punishment. He died in 604 or 614, and his relics were deposited in the Cathedral of Canterbury.

AUGUSTUS, CAIUS JULIUS CÆSAR OCTAVIUS, son of Caius Octavius and Accia, niece of Julius Cæsar, was born during the consulate of Cicero, 63 years B.C. His education was carefully attended to, and he was adopted by Julius Cæsar. He was studying eloquence at Apollonia, when his grand-uncle was assassinated, and at nineteen years of age, placing himself at the head of the veterans, he

marched to Rome, which he found distracted by the republicans and the followers of Antony and Lepidus. Here he announced publicly his adoption, and took his uncle's name. Antony treated him with a contempt which the magistrates and leading men were far from feeling, and Octavius joined the army that was sent against Antony after his proscription. Thinking it politic, however, to conciliate him, he joined Antony, and they with Lepidus formed the triumvirate, which was to last for five years, each enjoying an equal share of authority. Octavius sacrificed Cicero to the malice of his associates, and Rome became the theatre of the most sanguinary tragedies. Brutus and Cassius having been defeated, a new partition of spoils took place, Octavius and Antony obtaining the Roman empire, while Lepidus was forced to content himself with the African provinces, and was finally deposed. Octavius gave his sister Octavia in marriage to Antony. The conduct and fate of Antony have been related. [See ANTONY.] Octavius was soon firmly established in the empire. The senate gave him the title of Augustus, and, finding his power confirmed, he seems to have endeavored strenuously to render his conduct worthy of his dignity. He made regulations for the safe conduct of the government; reducing the number of senators from a thousand to six hundred, and raising the degree of wealth which was to qualify them for a seat. He set about the reform of the public manners and morals, and carried his arms successfully into Gaul, Germany, and the east. In the latter part of his reign, however, he met with severe losses in Germany, when Hermann roused his enthralled countrymen to arms.

He died at Nola, A.D. 14, in the seventy-sixth year of his age, and forty-first of his reign. On the approach of death, he called for a mirror, and arranged his hair. He then asked those about him, if he had played his part well? On their answering in the affirmative, he said, after the manner of the actors, "Then farewell—and applaud!" He greatly improved the appearance of the capital, and it was said, that "he had found Rome brick, and had left it marble." He liberally patronized men of letters, and, 'Augustan age' is a phrase applied to any era distinguished for literature and the arts. Virgil and Horace

were among the brightest ornaments of his reign. Two conspiracies formed against him miscarried, Cinna, the leader of one, being generously pardoned. The emperor's private griefs were heavy, and he suffered great misery from the debauchery of his daughter Julia.

AURELIAN, LUCIUS DOMITIUS, emperor of Rome, distinguished for his military talents and severity, was the son of a peasant of Illyricum, born A.D. 212, and having served with distinction under Valerian II. and Claudius II., was recommended as his successor by the latter, and raised to the throne to the satisfaction of all. He subdued Zenobia, queen of Palmyra, erected a new wall round Rome, and was assassinated, A.D. 275.

AURENG-ZEBE ('ornament of the throne') was born October 20th, 1619. His father, Shah Jehan, succeeded to the Mogul throne when Aureng-zebe was in his ninth year. In youth, he was distinguished by his great sanctity of appearance, and he used the arts of hypocrisy to cloak his designs. He looked forward to the possession of the throne of Hindostan, in the life-time of his father. In 1658, he seized Agra, and imprisoned his father. Having murdered his relatives in succession, he ascended the throne in 1659, and took the name of Aalem Guyr. Notwithstanding his crimes in gaining the throne, he governed with ability and success. He greatly enlarged his dominions, and became so formidable, that all the eastern princes sent him ambassadors. He died at the age of eighty-nine, bequeathing his possessions to his sons. Wars broke out immediately after his decease, and many of the conquered provinces sought their former independence.

AUSTERLITZ, a town of Moravia, in the circle of Brunn, has been rendered famous by the battle fought in its neighborhood, on the 2d of December, 1805, in which the troops of France, under the command of Napoleon, defeated the combined forces of Russia and Austria, headed by their respective emperors. The combined troops amounted to 100,000 men, of whom one-fourth were Austrians; while Napoleon had but 80,000, twenty battalions of which, with forty pieces of artillery, he kept back as a reserve. At sunrise the battle began, and shortly afterward, a most furious cannonade wrapped the combatants

in fire and smoke. Two hundred pieces of cannon created an appalling uproar. At one o'clock in the afternoon, the French were victorious, and the Russians and Austrians retreated. The French found themselves in possession of forty stands of colors, and a hundred and fifty pieces of cannon, while twenty generals, and upward of 30,000 prisoners were taken.

An artillery officer of the Russian imperial guard, having just lost his guns, met Napoleon: "Sire," said he, "order me to be shot, for I have lost my pieces." "Young man," replied the emperor, "I appreciate your tears; but you may have been defeated by my army and yet have indisputable claims to glory." The French artillery caused a heavy loss to the enemy, and Napoleon in noticing their exploits, said, "Your success has given me great pleasure, for I do not forget that in your ranks I commenced my military career." The soldiers called this battle the day of the three emperors, while Napoleon named it the day of Austerlitz. The commencement of the action was striking. The French emperor, surrounded by his marshals, in brilliant uniforms, refrained from giving his orders until the first rays of the sun shot a splendor on the scene, and the horizon became illuminated. He then issued his orders distinctly but rapidly, and the marshals parted at full gallop, each to his corps. The emperor, passing in front of several regiments, thus addressed them: "Soldiers! we must finish this campaign by a thunder-clap, which will astound our enemies and crush their pride!" Thousands of hats waved on bayonets, and cries of "Long live the emperor," were the signals of attack. "Never," said Napoleon, "was field of battle more dreadful."

On the 4th of December, Napoleon had an interview with the Emperor of Germany, in which an armistice and the principal conditions of peace were agreed upon. Meanwhile, the French troops having nearly surrounded the retreating Russians, Savary, Napoleon's aid-de-camp, was dispatched to the Emperor of Russia, to inform him that he could retire in safety if he adhered to the capitulation, retreating by stages regulated by Napoleon, and would evacuate Germany and Poland. "On this condition," added Savary, "I am commanded by the emperor to repair to our



PLACE WHERE GOLD WAS FIRST DISCOVERED IN AUSTRALIA.

advanced posts, which have already turned you, and give them his orders to protect your retreat, the emperor wishing to respect the friend of the first consul." "What guarantee must I give you?" "Sire, your word." "I give it." Orders were accordingly given, and the retreat of the Russians protected.

This decisive battle led to the treaty of Presburg, by which Austria confirmed the independence of the Helvetic republic, abandoned the Venetian territories to the kingdom of Italy, and renounced her possessions in the Tyrol and Suabia. The latter, Napoleon transferred to the sovereigns of Bavaria, Wurtemberg, and Baden, in reward for their aid.

AUSTRALIA is the present name of a large island formerly known as New Holland, lying south-east of Asia. The Dutch discovered it in 1606. The British began the transportation of convicts to Botany Bay in 1787, and abandoned it in 1853. The discovery of gold has worked a startling revul-

sion in the condition of Australia. As early as 1841 Sir R. I. Murchison called attention to the similarity of the geological formations of the mountains of Australia to those of the Ural range in Russia, and asserted his belief that gold must exist in Australia. In 1849, a Mr. Smith informed the colonial government that he had found gold, and offered to make known the locality for a certain reward. Smith and the government could not agree upon the amount of bonus, and the matter dropped till 1851, when Mr. Hargraves, who had come from gold-digging in California, also found gold, and disclosed the places. The colony was seized with a frenzy, and almost the entire population sought the golden realm. An immense emigration from Great Britain ensued, and has steadily continued. The precious metal has been found in profusion, and to all appearance this golden garner of ages will not be exhausted for years to come. Copper, iron, lead, and coal have also been found in abundance.

Australia is divided into the colonies of New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, Western Australia, and the district of North Australia. By the immigration rapidly pouring in, and the consequent swift development of its resources, Australia is in a transition state which precludes a detailed description. The truth to-day is far outstripped to-morrow. New South Wales, occupying the south-eastern portion, is the oldest colony. Sydney, its capital, a city on the south shore of Port Jackson, had a population of 50,000 in 1851. Bathurst, two hundred miles north-west, is a thriving town. Victoria, or Port Phillip, the most prosperous of the Australian colonies, lies between New South Wales and South Australia, and was first settled in 1835. Melbourne, its capital, is on the Yarra-Yarra River, near the head of Port Phillip Bay. It is a spacious city, the seat of extensive commerce, and had a population of 100,000 in 1852. Geelong is an important port on the south-western shore of Port Phillip. The discovery of the gold-fields of New South Wales and Victoria checked for a while the growth of South Australia, but could not destroy its prosperity. Adelaide is its capital. Western Australia, or Swan River Settlement, is the least of the colonies. Perth is its seat of government.

We have mentioned only the principal towns of Australia. Myriads of villages and settlements are springing from the wilderness. Railroads are being constructed. The commerce is an important item in the merchandising of the mother country. From the fertile soil excellent crops of all the common grains are gained. Sheep and cattle are largely bred. Nearly all the vegetables of Europe are cultivated. Australia was destitute of indigenous edible fruits, but those of almost every land and clime are successfully raised, and the grape and olive bid fair to take rank among the most valuable productions. The most unfavorable characteristics of the climate are the long droughts that prevail, apparently every ten or a dozen years, and the sudden transitions from heat to cold. In spite of these, the climate in the settled parts is commonly delightful, and not unhealthy.

AUSTRIA. The Austrian empire occupies nearly a twelfth of the surface of Europe. In its dominions are comprised, the archduchy

of Austria and circle of Salzburg; the duchy of Styria; the earldom of the Tyrol and territory of Vorarlberg; the kingdom of Bohemia; the margraviate of Moravia and Austrian Silesia; the kingdom of Illyria, comprising Carinthia, Carniola, Trieste, and circle of Carlsstädt; the kingdom of Galicia and Lodomeria, including the duchy of Aufschwitz and Zator and the Buckowine; the kingdom of Hungary, with Slavonia, Croatia, and the military frontier; the principality of Transylvania with the military frontier; the kingdom of Dalmatia; the kingdom of Lombardy and Venice; and the territory of Cracow. These have an area of 255,722 square miles, and had in 1854 a population of 39,411,309. The only sea-coast which this great empire possesses is on the Adriatic, so that its commerce is restricted. Vienna, on the Danube, is the capital of the empire, and the principal seat of trade and manufactures. [See VIENNA.]

The house of Hapsburg has been one of the most illustrious families in Europe. Hapsburg was an ancient castle of Switzerland, on a lofty eminence in the canton of Berne. This castle was the cradle as it were of the imperial line of Austria, whose ancestors may be traced back to the thirteenth century, when Rodolph, Count of Hapsburg, was chosen to wear the imperial diadem of Germany. He wrested the Austrian duchy from Bohemia, and conferred its sovereignty upon his son Albert, as an appendage to the Hapsburg possessions. The house thus founded was much indebted for its rise to power, to the good fortune of successive marriages and the beauty of its daughters; whence it came to be a common saying, that "Venus was more favorable to it than Mars." Albert succeeded to the imperial crown. This monarch deputed harsh and tyrannical governors to rule the Swiss, and, in consequence of continued oppression, that brave people revolted in 1307, headed by the famous Tell. Frederick, son of Albert, found himself forced to relinquish the empire into the hands of Louis of Bavaria. The crowns of Germany, Hungary, and Bohemia, were united in the person of Albert II., Duke of Austria, who ascended the throne, A.D. 1438. Hungary and Bohemia were his by inheritance, and the empire by universal suffrage.

The Emperor Maximilian, grandfather of Charles V., married the heiress of Burgundy,

in consequence of which alliance, the Netherlands were subjected to Austria in 1477. In 1496, the marriage of his son Philip to the heiress of Castile and Arragon, led to the junction of the broad domains of Spain with the already ample territories of Austria. Charles V., desirous of retiring from public life and passing his days in gloomy seclusion, resigned the crown in 1556; Philip II., his son, gained possession of Spain and the Netherlands; Ferdinand, his brother, received Austria, Bohemia, and Hungary, and was also chosen Emperor of Germany. The house of Austria was noted for its bigotry and cruel intolerance. In 1570, Maximilian granted liberty of conscience (a great grant in a monarch!) to the Protestants of Austria, but those in other portions of his dominions, particularly in Bohemia, were most cruelly persecuted. In their distress the Protestant German princes finally sought the assistance of the famous Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden. This famous warrior, the "Lion of the North," as he was called, broke upon the empire like a whirlwind, and its very foundations tottered beneath the shock. France, espousing the cause of the Protestants, hoped thus to weaken the power of Austria, and the country experienced no release from the tumults and horrors of war, until the treaty of Westphalia was signed in 1648.

The sword was idle for a time, but the war with France broke out afresh during the reign of Leopold I., and was continued under his successor. The Turks, emboldened by success, in 1688, pushed their arms into the heart of the empire, and the walls of Vienna echoed back the clangor of the oriental cymbals. The siege of Vienna by the Turks, is a memorable and impressive event. In the war of the allies with France, Joseph I., son of Leopold, joined with heart and hand, and acquired a share of their good fortune. His queen was a daughter of John Frederick, Duke of Hanover. Charles VI. dying without issue, on the 20th of October, 1740, the extinction of the male line of the house of Austria was the signal for the movement of the Elector of Bavaria, to contest the succession. He seized the kingdom of Bohemia, was elected emperor in 1742, and died in 1745. Francis of Lorraine succeeded to the Austrian dominions in right of his queen, Maria Theresa, daughter of Charles

VI. The throne is still occupied by his descendants. He was elected Emperor of Germany in 1745, and the crown, though nominally elective, descended to his successors with the regularity of an hereditary sovereignty.

Francis II. was crowned emperor in 1792. In 1795, when the second division of Poland took place, Austria received an immense accession of territory. In 1797, she relinquished to France her possessions in the Netherlands, as well as the duchies of Milan and Mantua. To compensate for this, the greater part of the Venetian states was transferred to Austria. The military power of France was so formidable, that even the strongest sovereignties of Europe feared they should be unable to resist its encroachments. The French threatened to attain the empire of the world by rapid strides. Involved in the wars of 1799 and 1805, Austria met with repeated defeats and continued discomfiture. After she had lost the great battles of Marengo and Hohenlinden, Ulm and Austerlitz, her Venetian possessions, the Tyrol, and other territories were wrested from her grasp. In 1809, Austria took the field against Napoleon, but having to contend, not only against the French, but against Russia, and the confederation of the Rhine, found herself defeated, and when Bonaparte entered the capital, she was compelled to relinquish again immense territories. After a hopeless inaction of some years, the failure of Napoleon's Russian expedition roused the Austrians to arms, and the subsequent success of the allied powers restored the power and splendor of the Austrian empire, which gained the addition of some Italian territories. Of the subject kingdoms and states of Austria, Hungary since 1563 has continued an appanage of the house of Austria; Transsylvania came into possession of the Austrians in 1699; Croatia, anciently a part of Illyricum, was annexed to Austria in 1540; Slavonia, also anciently a part of Illyricum, fell into the hands of the Austrians in 1687; the crown of Bohemia passed to the house of Austria in 1526.

In the eventful year of 1848, revolutions broke out in Lombardy and Venice, in Hungary, and in Austria proper. At first they were everywhere successful: the Austrian troops were driven back from Hungary and Italy, and the insurgents held Vienna. Hun-

gary asserted its independence ; Venice united itself to Sardinia ; and this vast empire seemed rapidly falling to pieces. Ferdinand abdicated in favor of his nephew Francis Joseph ; a liberal constitution was proclaimed for a sop, in March, 1849, and the German subjects were satisfied or silenced. Radetzky conquered obedience in Italy, and with the assistance of Russia Hungary was crushed. In 1852 the constitution of 1849 was revoked, and the emperor now wields an absolute power.

The early sovereigns of Austria will be found in the list of emperors of Germany. Francis II. surrendered the dignity of the empire, Aug. 11, 1804, and took the title of Francis I., Emperor of Austria. The Austrian emperor was one of the six leading members of the German confederation, by virtue of his sovereignty over certain states of Germany.

This Confederation after half a century ceased to exist on the 14th of June, 1866. Early in the year trouble began between Austria and Prussia respecting the Danish Duchies, which Prussia desired for the development of her naval force. Austrian influence prevailing in the German Diet it authorized overt measures against Prussia. The very next day, June 15th, Prussia, who had been girding herself for war, invaded Saxony. Austria counted upon her foe being as slow as herself, and relying upon her military resources, thought hers would be an easy victory. Her General Benedek arrogantly cast disdain upon the soldiery and military science of Prussia. The armies, after several small affairs, met at Gitschin on the 24th of June, and at Sadowa July 3d, in decisive conflict. The Austrians were thoroughly routed. The battle of Sadowa will rank among the greatest of battles, there being 195,000 Austrians and Saxons, and 250,000 Prussians engaged. And thus, in 19 days, Austria was so thoroughly broken and humbled by her foe that she surrendered Venetia, lost her place and provinces in Germany, and her position as one of the leading continental governments. Peace negotiations were concluded August 23d, just 70 days after the decision of the Diet.

EMPERORS OF AUSTRIA.

1804. Francis I. : died March 2d, 1835.

1835. Ferdinand, his son March 2d : abdicated in favor of his nephew, Dec. 2d, 1848.

1848. Francis Joseph, Dec. 2d.

AZORES, or WESTERN ISLANDS, a group of nine islands, lying in the Atlantic, about 800 miles west of Portugal. Population in 1843, 214,300. They were discovered by the Portuguese, prior to 1439, and have ever since belonged to that nation. The name was given from the abundance of falcons (*azores*) found here. When discovered by the Portuguese they were void of inhabitants. In 1466 these islands were presented to the Duchess of Burgundy, by her brother, the King of Portugal. They were colonized by Germans and Flemings, who appear, however, always to have acknowledged the sovereignty of Portugal. The Azores are recognized at sea from a great distance, by Pico, a tall mountain, which, like the Peak of Teneriffe, towers far above the deep, and stands a lasting landmark to mariners. The islands are subject to earthquakes and volcanic eruption, and, in 1574, St. George's, Pico, Fayal, and Terceira, although detached and distant from each other, were violently convulsed. The ocean overflowed from the shock, which produced eighteen little islands. A similar convulsion of nature occurred in July, 1638. And after a commotion of six weeks, an island of nearly six miles in circumference, arose near St. Michael's, but was subsequently absorbed. In 1720, the most horrible and tumultuous scenes occurred, and, amidst an almost unequalled combination of horrors, causing the death of many persons from fright, an island nearly as large as that of 1638, emerged from its submarine birth-place. The islands are supposed to rest on volcanic foundations, which extend to the western shores of Portugal, though the communication may be in many parts obstructed. In 1811 a volcano appeared in the sea near St. Michael's, where the water was eighty fathoms deep, throwing up an island a mile in circumference. This new isle was called Sabrina. It gradually disappeared. Fayal is frequently visited by American and European ships for provisions or refitting.

AZTECS, a race supposed to have migrated from the region north of the Gulf of California, to Mexico, where they founded the extensive empire which was conquered by the Spaniards. They were possessed of knowledge in astronomy, architecture, sculpture, and other arts of social life, and their antiquities have been a puzzle for the learned.

B.

BAALBEC, a ruined city in Syria, forty-two miles east-north-east of Beirut. The name signifies 'the city of the sun;' and accordingly by the Greeks and Romans it was called Heliopolis. Its origin and history are obscure. By some it is conjectured to be the Baalath reared by Solomon in Lebanon, as mentioned in the eighth chapter of the second book of Chronicles. Its ruins are magnificent.

BABYLON, a famous city of Assyria, and once the greatest in the world. Its ruins still exist on the banks of the Euphrates, near Hillah. Herodotus tells us that its walls, three hundred and fifty feet high, and eighty-seven feet thick, were cemented with bitumen, and were more than sixty miles in circuit. They had a hundred brazen gates, and two hundred and fifty towers. Nothing is left of this mighty town but rubbish and desolation, among which the recent excavations of Mr. Layard, Col. Rawlinson, and M. Botta, have brought to light many relics of interest. According to the Mosaic record, the Babylonian empire was founded by Nimrod, supposed to be the Belus of profane history, 2245 B.C. After the destruction of Nineveh, B.C. 604, Babylon was the metropolis of the east. To this period is assigned the reign of Nebuchadnezzar, under whom the power of Babylon was extended over all the lands between Persia and Egypt. The great city was taken by Cyrus, B.C. 538, and Babylonia became a Persian province. Alexander the Great intended to make Babylon the capital of the vast empire which he had won in war. Death forbade him, and the city never again regained its prosperity.

BACHAUMONT, FRANÇOIS LE CORSEUX DE, born at Paris, 1624, died in the same city, 1702. He was a counselor of parliament, and opposed to the court party in the disturbances of 1648. He said that the members of the parliament put him in mind of the little boys that played with slings in the street, who dispersed on the appearance of a police officer, but collected as soon as he was out of sight. Pleased with this comparison, the enemies of Mazarin adopted hatbands in the form of a sling (*fronde*), and

hence were denominated Frondeurs. Bachaumont was distinguished for his epigrams and lively songs.

BACHELORS. The Roman censors frequently imposed fines on unmarried men, and men of full age were compelled to marry. The Spartan women at certain games laid hold of old bachelors, dragged them around the altars, and put upon them various marks of disgrace. Bachelors have been taxed in England. Among the illustrious men of antiquity, the following eschewed matrimony: Plato, Pythagoras, Epicurus, Bion, Anaxagoras, Heracitus, Democritus, and Diogenes. Their example has been followed among the moderns, by Newton, Locke, Boyle, Gibbon, Hume, Adam Smith, Harvey, Leibnitz, Bayle, Hobbes, Hampden, Sir Francis Drake, Pitt, Michael Angelo, the three Caraccis, Sir Joshua Reynolds, Haydn, Handel, Wolsey, Pascal, Fenelon, Pope, Akenside, Goldsmith, Gray, Collins, Thomson, Jeremy Bentham, and Washington Irving.

BACON, FRANCIS, son of Sir Nicholas Bacon, lord-keeper of the great seal, was born in London, Jan. 22d, 1561, and died in 1626. He was entered in the university of Cambridge, in his thirteenth year, and distinguished himself for his early proficiency in the sciences. At sixteen he wrote against the Aristotelian philosophy, and at nineteen his work "Of the State of Europe," the fruit of a journey in France, attracted general attention from the clearness of perception and maturity of judgment which it displayed. At the age of twenty-eight, his legal reputation was such that he was appointed counsel extraordinary to the queen, a post of more honor than profit. Three years afterward he sat in parliament. Ben Jonson highly extols him as an orator. Bacon at first crouched for the favor of the Cecils, till disregarded by them, he attached himself to their rival, the Earl of Essex, who with generous ardor strove in 1594 to procure him the vacant office of attorney-general. Being unsuccessful, he soothed Bacon's regret with a gift of a fine estate. Yet when Essex sank into disfavor, Bacon not only abandoned him, but unnecessarily appeared as counsel against him, and with

barbarous ingenuity aided greatly in bringing the unfortunate nobleman to the scaffold. Similar baseness stains all his public career. When first in parliament he made show of maintaining popular rights against exactions of the court. Royal frowns soon brought him to his knees, and he disgraced himself by servility that was unmanly for even a courtier. He stood high in the good graces of James I., and was knighted by him in 1603. His marriage was fortunate, and he at length saw himself free from those pecuniary embarrassments by which he had been so long shackled.

In 1613 he reached the attorney-generalship. Here he lent himself to the most arbitrary measures of the court, and even assisted in an attempt to extort from an old clergyman, of the name of Peacham, a confession of treason, by torturing him on the rack.

In 1617 he was made lord-keeper of the seals; in 1619, lord high chancellor of England, and Baron Verulam, and not long afterward, Viscount of St. Albans. He had not now the poor plea of necessity for making offices and privileges venal, yet he was charged with receiving bribes for his decisions. Rather than submit to a trial which would stamp his name with indelible disgrace, he confessed his guilt, supplicated the lenity of his peers, and begged to be dismissed with the loss of his office. His sentence was severe but just. He was sentenced to pay a fine of £40,000, to be imprisoned in the Tower as long as the king should choose, declared incapable of office, forbidden to take his seat in parliament, or to show himself within the verge of the court. He was soon released from the Tower, but did not long survive his fall. His errors sprang more from weakness than from avarice or want of principle, for he displayed through life a strong sympathy for Virtue, if he did not have firmness enough to be faithful to her cause.

It is as a writer and philosopher that Lord Bacon is illustrious. Walpole called him the prophet of art. He examined the whole circle of the sciences. In so masterly a way did he expound the inductive method of philosophizing, that posterity has called him the father of experimental science. His

prose is among the foremost in our tongue. He died in 1626. In his will this passage was found: "My name and memory I bequeath to foreign nations, and to mine own country after some time be passed over."

BACON, ROGER, an English monk, born at Ilchester in 1214. He made many discoveries in the sciences, which caused him to be regarded as a sorcerer by the common people, whose prejudices were espoused by the clergy, against whom Bacon had openly spoken. He was imprisoned in consequence of their denunciations, and at one time, kept in confinement for ten years. He died in 1292. He had an idea of gunpowder, for he distinctly says in one of his works that thunder and lightning could be imitated by means of charcoal, sulphur, and saltpetre. Like all philosophers of that day he dabbled in astrology; he discovered the polarity of the loadstone; he invented the camera-obscura and the magic lantern; and he foreshadowed the invention of telescopes and spectacles, even if he did not really construct the latter. He was well versed in the Greek, Hebrew, and Latin languages, the last of which he wrote with facility and elegance, and although not free from many of the prejudices of his age, was altogether a very extraordinary man. Many of the old English ballads and romances contain accounts of the wonderful exploits of Friar Bacon, who is gifted with magical arts of the most tremendous nature. The "Famous Historie of Fryer Bacon," toward the conclusion, informs us that Friar Bacon broke his magic glass, burned his books of the 'black art,' devoted himself to theological studies, and lived in a cell which he had excavated in a church wall. "Thus lived he two yeeres space in that cell, never coming forth: his meat and drink he received in at a window, and at that window he did discourse with those that came to him; his grave he digged with his own nayles, and was laid there when he died." "He lived most part of his life a magician, and died a true Penitent Sinner, and an Anchorite."

BACTRIANA, or BACTRIA, before the time of Cyrus was a powerful kingdom, and gave to the Persians their mythology and architecture. It lay between the Oxus, Scythia, Mount Paropamisus, and Margiana. After the destruction of the Persian monarchy,

it was held by the Parthians and Scythians, until they were expelled by the Huns.

BADAJOS, the Pax Augusta of the Romans, a fortified city of Spain, on the left bank of the Guadiana, contains about 12,000 inhabitants. It is 220 miles south-west of Madrid. This important barrier fortress was besieged without success by the French under Kellerman and Victor, in 1808 and 1809. It surrendered to Soult March 11th, 1811. It was invested by Wellington March 16th, 1812, and taken by storm on the night of the 6th of April. The carnage was terrible. For two days and nights the city was sacked, British generals endeavoring in vain to check the atrocities of the infuriated soldiers. The fall of Badajoz forced the French to a precipitate retreat from Portugal.

BADEN, a grand-duchy in the south-west of Germany, on the right bank of the Rhine, was erected into a grand-duchy in 1806. In 1855 it had a population of 1,314,837, upon an area of 5,712 square miles. The surface of Baden is mountainous, and it contains the elevated range of the Black Forest, which derives its name from the dark tint of its foliage. The capital of the duchy is Karlsruhe, population 23,219. Freiburg has a population of about 16,000. Its cathedral, built in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, is perhaps the most beautiful and perfect specimen of Gothic architecture in Germany. The university of Freiburg, founded in 1454, is famous as a school of Catholic theology. Mannheim, at the junction of the Neckar and the Rhine, has 25,000 inhabitants. The ancient city of Heidelberg stands on a narrow ledge between wooded vine-clad hills and the left bank of the Neckar, having about 16,000 inhabitants. It is famous for its Protestant university, founded in 1386, and the oldest in Germany, except that of Prague. In 1850 there were seventy-one professors and teachers, and six hundred and three students. On a hill overlooking the town is the vast ruin of the castle where once the electors palatine held their court. Here in a damp vault moulders the great tun that once was kept full with eight hundred hogsheads of best Rhenish wine. In a picturesque valley, twenty-three miles south-west of Karlsruhe, lies Baden-Baden; population 6,000. These springs were a resort for the Romans. In

some late years the number of visitors has exceeded 14,000. The well-known gaming tables of this glittering haunt are farmed by the grand-duke, and thence he derives a handsome slice of his income.

The Catholic and Protestant faiths are each sanctioned by the state, and full liberty of conscience and private worship prevails. The sovereign must be a Protestant. Executive and judicial powers are vested in the grand-duke and a ministry of state; the legislative powers are shared by the sovereign with an upper and lower chamber. In 1848 Hecker and Struve headed an attempt to establish a republic in Baden. The grand-duke fled from his throne, but was restored by Prussian bayonets in 1849.

BAERT, or **BARTII**, JOHN, was born at Dunkirk, 1651. He was the son of a poor fisherman, but his bravery and talents raised him to the rank of commodore in the reign of Louis XIV., whose navy he greatly improved. The Dutch, English, and Spanish called him the French devil. "I have made you a commodore," was the king's annunciation of his promotion to Jean Baert, at Versailles. "Your majesty has done well," replied the sturdy seaman. The courtiers tittered. "It is the reply," said Louis, "of a man who knows his own worth." He received a patent of nobility for one of his naval exploits, and died in 1702.

BAFFIN, WILLIAM, an English navigator of the seventeenth century, was the first to determine longitude at sea by observations of the heavenly bodies. In 1616 he discovered and explored the bay which bears his name. He was killed near Ormuz in 1621, while engaged in an expedition against the Portuguese.

BAGDAD, a large city of Asiatic Turkey, contains about 60,000 inhabitants. It lies on the east bank of the Tigris, over which a bridge is thrown. The city is surrounded by a brick wall; the houses are of brick, and but one story high, and the unpaved streets so narrow as to admit of two horsemen abreast with difficulty. The palace of the pacha forms a contrast to the other buildings of the city, being spacious and splendid. European manufactures, as well as the productions of India, Arabia, and Persia, find a sale here, and the thronged bazaars present a brilliant and animated appearance. From Bag-

dad, East Indian goods were formerly supplied to Asia Minor, Syria, and part of Europe, but of late its traffic has declined. The population consists of Turks, Persians, Armenians, and a small number of Christians and Jews. The ancient city, founded in 762, by the Caliph Abu Giafar Almanzor, once the residence of the caliphs, and containing 2,000,000 inhabitants, is now in ruins. The prosperity of this city completed the ruin of the neighboring city of Babylon. It was twice taken by the Turks and Tartars, and nearly destroyed. In 1638, it was taken by Amurath IV., after a memorable siege, and the greater part of the inhabitants were butchered in cold blood. In the eighteenth century, Nadir Shah was defeated in an attempt to take it.

BAHAMAS, or LUCAYA ISLANDS, are near the coast of Florida, in the Atlantic Ocean. The soil of the islands is rich, but thin, and soon exhausted. A large portion of the residents are descendants of the loyalists who emigrated from Carolina and Georgia when the royal cause was lost in America. The wreckers, a large class of the population, are hardy mariners, employed in assisting shipwrecked vessels. They display admirable skill and courage in the working of their small flat-bottomed sloops, in which they frequent the most dangerous places, receiving legal salvage on all rescued property. They are licensed by the government. These islands were discovered by Columbus, Oct. 12th, 1492, St. Salvador being the first land he saw. In 1667, Charles II. of England granted the Bahamas to the Duke of Albemarle and others. The first settlement was made on New Providence, one of the largest of the group. The settlers suffered severely from the ravages of pirates and the inroads of the Spaniards. Black-beard, the noted leader of the buccaneers, was killed off here in 1718. The town of Nassau on New Providence was fortified in 1740. Nassau was taken by the Americans during the Revolution, but was soon abandoned. Afterward the whole group was held by the Spaniards, but was regained by the English.

Turk's Islands are well known for their salt. The entire population of the Bahamas in 1845 was 26,500: deducting Caicos and Turk's Islands (since set off under a separate

government), it was 22,841, which in 1857 had increased to 27,519.

BALÆ, a town of Campania, a favorite resort of the ancient Romans, many of whom had country-seats here. Its sheltered bay, breezy hills, and baths gave it a high reputation, but the dissoluteness practiced here was so notorious and infamous, that Cicero, in his defense of M. Cælius, thought it necessary to apologize for defending a young man who had lived at Baia.

BAILLIE, JOANNA, born in 1762, was the daughter of the parish minister of Bothwell in Lanarkshire, Scotland. Her mother was sister of John Hunter, the great anatomist. Her brother, who became Sir Matthew Baillie, having settled as a physician in London, she removed thither at an early age, and resided either in London or its vicinage, till her death in 1851. She published several volumes of dramas and minor poems.

BAINBRIDGE, WILLIAM, a distinguished commodore in the American navy, was born at Princeton, N. J., on the 5th of May, 1774. He died at Philadelphia, July 27th, 1833.

BAJAZET I. Sultan of the Turks, son of Amurath, whom he succeeded in 1389. By strangling his brother and rival, Jacob, he established a precedent which has since been frequently followed by the Turkish court. The rapidity of his conquests gained him the name of Ilderim, 'lightning.' He carried his conquering arms far into Europe and Asia, and on the 28th of September, 1395, defeated the army of Hungarians, Poles, and French, who were headed by Sigismund, King of Hungary. In 1402, he was defeated near Ancyra, in Galatia, by Tamerlane, and was himself taken prisoner, and treated with great courtesy by the conqueror. The story of his being confined and carried about in an iron cage, is deemed unworthy of belief. He died in the camp of Tamerlane in 1403.

BAJAZET II., son of Mohammed II., Sultan of the Turks, succeeded his father in 1481. He extended his empire, gained some Grecian towns from the Venetians, and by ravaging Christian states, sought to avenge the expulsion of the Moors by the Spaniards. He finally resigned his throne to his rebellious son Selim, by whose order, it is supposed, he was murdered in 1512.

BALBOA, VASCO NUNEZ DE, was born in 1475. He was one of the numerous adventurers who sought to retrieve their fortunes, by following up in the New World the discoveries which Columbus had commenced. He formed a colony on the isthmus of Darien. An Indian, who was the scornful witness of a dispute between two of Balboa's companions about some gold, agreed to show him a country where the precious metals might be obtained in abundance. He led Balboa to the shores of the Pacific, and pointed the path to Peru. Considering his force of a hundred and fifty men too feeble to attempt the conquest, Balboa took possession of the vast ocean that rolled before him in the name of the Spanish king, and after an absence of four months led back his followers to the colony, enriched with gold and pearls. Here he was required to obey a new governor, Pendrarias Davila, who held a royal commission. He was appointed, the ensuing year, viceroy of the South Sea, but seized by Davila, on pretext of neglect of duty, tried, condemned, and beheaded in 1517.

BALAKLAVA, a small town in the Crimea, with a fine harbor, ten miles south-east from Sebastopol. After the battle of the Alma, the allies advanced upon this place, Sept. 26th, 1854. Oct. 25th following, 12,000 Russians, commanded by Gen. Liprandi, captured some redoubts in the vicinity, which had been intrusted to a scanty force of Turks. They next assaulted the English, by whose heavy cavalry they were compelled to retire. After this, from a disastrous misconception of Lord Raglan's order, Lord Lucan ordered the Earl of Cardigan with the light brigade to charge upon the Russians, who had formed again on their own ground with their artillery in front. This desperate gallop into the jaws of death was at once made, and great havoc dealt upon the enemy; but out of 607 British horsemen only 198 returned. A sortie from the garrison of Sebastopol led to another desperate engagement here on the night of March 22d, 1855, in which the Russians were repulsed with a loss of 2,000 killed and wounded, the allies losing about 600.

BALDWIN. There were five kings of Jerusalem of this name. **BALDWIN I.** succeeded his brother Godfrey Bouillon, 1100, and died 1118. The second reigned from 1118 till his

death in 1131. He founded the order of Templars. **BALDWIN III.**, king from 1143 to 1162, was one of the bravest and most honorable of the crusaders. The Christians possessed territories of vast extent, but the vassals of Baldwin were divided by dissensions among themselves this was also the case with their adversaries, although the latter warred with more success. The reign of Baldwin was unhappy, and convinced the Christians of the impossibility of establishing Christian chivalry in the east. When Noureddin, his valiant and proud opponent, was counseled to fall upon the Christians during the funeral of their leader, he answered: "No! Let us respect their grief, for they have lost a king whose like is rarely to be met with."

BALIOI, JOHN, was a claimant for the Scottish crown on the death of Queen Margaret. Edward III., being made arbiter, awarded it to Baliol against Robert Bruce. Baliol afterward allied himself with France, and took up arms in consequence of the interference of the English king in his government, but was defeated at the battle of Dunbar, and consigned to the Tower, whence he was liberated by the intercession of the pope. He died on his estate in France, 1314. His son Edward afterward gained the crown, but finally resigned it to Edward III. of England.

BALK, or **BALKAN**, anciently *Hæmus*, a chain of rugged mountains, extending from the Black Sea, in European Turkey, to the Adriatic. The summit of Orbelus, the highest peak, is 9,000 feet above the surface of the sea. The passage of the Balkan by a hostile army was deemed impracticable till effected by the Russians under Diebitsch, whose march through the mountains in July, 1829, was a memorable achievement in the war then pending between Russia and Turkey. Its consequence was an armistice, and this was followed by a treaty of peace in September.

BALLOONS. From the earliest ages men have longed to mount into the air and rival the easy flight of the birds. The first balloons on record were made in France by the brothers Montgolfier, and the first ascent made by M. Rozier and the Marquis d'Arlandes at Paris, Nov. 23d, 1782. The elevating power of the Montgolfier balloon was air rarefied by fire. M. Rozier and M. Romain perished in



THE BALLOON.

an attempted voyage from Boulogne to England, the balloon having taken fire, June 14th, 1785. Hydrogen balloons were successfully used soon after the Montgolfier. The parachute was invented by Blanchard, in 1784. At the battle of Fleurus, June 17th, 1794, the French used a balloon to reconnoitre the opposing army. In 1802, Garnerin ascended in a balloon to the height of four thousand feet, and descended safely by a parachute. Gay Lussac ascended at Paris to the height of twenty-three thousand feet, Sept. 21st, 1802. The first ascent in England was by Sig. Lunardi, from Moorfields, Sept. 15th, 1784. Blanchard and Jeffries crossed from Dover to Calais in 1785. The first experiments with balloons in this country, were made by Dr. Rittenhouse and Francis Hopkinson, in December, 1783. They connected several small balloons together, and thus enabled a man to ascend to the height of one hundred feet, and to float to a considerable distance. Afterward an ascent was made by Blanchard, at Philadelphia, January 9th, 1793.

Attempts to steer the balloon have proved futile, and it is now a mere toy. Its history is darkly marked with risk and loss of life. Madame Blanchard ascended from Tivoli at night in the midst of fireworks, from which her balloon caught fire, and she was dashed to the ground and killed, July 6th, 1819. An Italian aeronaut ascended from Copenhagen, Sept. 14th, 1851; his shattered corpse was found on the shore of a contiguous island. Mr. Arnold ascended near London, and was ducked in the Thames; Major Money went up from Norwich and fell into the North Sea, but was saved by a revenue cutter; Sadler, a veteran in the air, fell into the sea near Holyhead, but was picked up, Oct. 9th, 1812. A large balloon was sent up from London on an experimental voyage, having three persons in the car, and after being in the air eighteen hours, descended at Wielburg in the duchy of Nassau, Nov. 7th, 1836.

The navigation of the air has ever been a favorite scheme, and artificial flying has been attempted in all ages. The fable of the waxen

wings of Dædalus and his unlucky son Icarus, is familiar to all. Its interpretation is found in the tradition that Dædalus invented sails for ships. Friar Roger Bacon maintained the possibility of the art of flying, and predicted it would be a general practice. Dr. Wilkins (brother-in-law of Cromwell, and Bishop of Chester), amused himself with dreaming of a voyage to the moon, and said it would yet be as usual to hear a man call for his wings when he is going on a journey, as it is now to hear him call for his boots.

BALZAC, HONORE DE, a brilliant French novelist, born at Tours about 1799, and died at Paris, in August, 1850.

BANCA, an island off the north coast of Sumatra; area 7,533 square miles; population in 1849, 43,000; since 1816 in the possession of the Dutch. Tin mines were discovered here in 1810, and their stores of ore seem inexhaustible.

BANKS. The first bankers were the Lombard Jews in Italy about 808, of whom some settled in Lombard street, London, where many bankers now do business. The mint in the Tower of London was used by merchants to lodge their money in, till Charles I. made free with it in 1640; after which they trusted to servants, till too many of these ran to the army; they then lodged it with the goldsmiths in Lombard street, whose business it was to buy and sell plate, and foreign coins. These at first paid fourpence per cent. *per diem*, but lent it to others at a higher interest, and so became the first bankers in England, 1645.

The Bank of England was first incorporated in 1694, in consideration of £1,200,000, then the amount of its capital, being lent to the government. It suspended specie payments from 1797 to 1817.

In the United States, banks were commenced in the early part of the Revolutionary war; the first by a number of gentlemen in Philadelphia, June 17th, 1780, with a capital of \$839,160; instituted for the purpose of supplying the American army with provisions. Bank of North America, at Philadelphia, incorporated by Congress, Dec. 31st, 1781; the Massachusetts Bank, the first at Boston, began in 1784, and the Bank of New York commenced the same year.

The Bank of the United States was in-

corporated March 2d, 1791, with a capital of \$10,000,000, the government holding \$2,000,000. Its charter expired March 11th, 1811, and was not renewed; but the financial burdens of the ensuing war with Great Britain, induced the creation of a similar institution, the United States Bank, with a capital of \$35,000,000. This was chartered for twenty years in April, 1816, with power to form branches, and went into operation at Philadelphia, Jan. 1st, 1817. The United States deposits, \$9,868,435, were removed from it by Gen. Jackson, at the close of 1833, and at the expiration of the charter in 1836, Congress declined to renew it. A bank under the same name and with the same amount of capital was chartered by Pennsylvania, and continued in operation several years.

BANKS, Sir JOSEPH, bart., a celebrated botanist and traveler, was born in London in 1743, and died in 1820. Inheriting at an early age an ample fortune, his love of botany led him to visit lands at that time little known to naturalists. He made a voyage to Newfoundland and the coast of Labrador; he accompanied Capt. Cook to the South Seas; he visited the coasts of Scotland, and spent some time in Iceland. He made a vast collection of objects in natural science, and introduced many valuable species of plants and trees into Britain. In 1771 he was elected president of the Royal Society, over which he presided till his death. Soon afterward he was created a baronet. With George III., who was fond of botany and agriculture, he was a great favorite. He was a generous patron of science and scientific men, both in England and abroad.

BANNOCKBURN, a village in Scotland about three miles south-east from Stirling. Here was the field where the king of England had to flee before peasants ennobled by the struggle for freedom. The battle was fought June 24th, 1314. The English army consisted of 100,000 men under Edward II., 52,000 of whom were archers, and the Scottish army of only 30,000, commanded by Robert Bruce. The Scottish leader had selected the ground of Bannockburn to meet his enemies, because on its rugged and broken surface his light-armed troops could better encounter the heavy men-at-arms of the English. He strength-

ened his position among the morasses that lined the burn of Bannock by digging pits close together. These were slightly covered with brush and sods, so as not to be seen by an impetuous enemy. The English floundered into them, and while they were in confusion, the trembling scale of battle was turned by the sudden appearance of Bruce's camp-followers, on an upland behind the Scottish force. The wavering English, thinking them an army of reserve, fled in utter rout. Edward barely escaped capture. His loss is estimated at upward of 30,000 men, and 700 barons and knights.

When the son of James III. (afterward the clever and popular James IV., who fell at Flodden), was in rebellion, a fight occurred between the king's forces and those of the insurgent son, about a mile from Bannockburn. King James, who was a weak man, was bade by some of his followers to see to his own safety, and all clad in burnished armor he galloped along an unfrequented road. The mill still stands whence issued a woman to draw water. Alarmed by the startling apparition of a knight in full armor, she dropped her pitcher and fled into the mill. She, in turn, had scared the king's horse, which fell, and smothered in his heavy armor the bruised monarch lay as if dead. He was carried into the mill, and put upon a bed. Abjectly depressed and fearing immediate death, he told the people of the mill that he was the king, and prayed for a confessor. Thereupon a woman ran abroad, calling frantically for a priest to come and shrive the king. Friends and enemies soon gathered round. A man clothed in a dark mantle, like an ecclesiastic, said, "I am a priest," and followed the woman into the house. Bending down over the king as if to receive the whispered confession, he stabbed him over and over again, and vanished as mysteriously as he had come. The people of the mill had only the word of the man killed on their bed that he was their king. There was a mystery over the whole affair, and all that is absolutely known is that James III. was never seen again. The miller, apparently not knowing what to do with the body, cast it forth by the wayside. Thence it was borne to the gray abbey of Cambuskenneth, whose monks bestowed upon it royal obsequies.

BANQUO, Thane of Lochaber, from whom the royal house of Stuart was descended. He was murdered by Macbeth about 1046.

BARBADOES, the most eastern of the Caribbean Islands, was discovered by the Portuguese, but belongs to the English, who planted here their first settlement in these seas, in 1605. Longitude $59^{\circ} 41' W.$, lat. $13^{\circ} 5' N.$ It is fifteen miles long, and ten broad, containing an area of 106,500 acres. Population, 135,939. The climate is hot, but the air uncommonly salubrious; though hurricanes are unhappily not unfrequent. The soil is various and fertile, and greatly undulating. Bridgetown is the capital of the island. Barbadoes has often been sorely visited by tremendous hurricanes and sweeping conflagrations, and in 1854 the cholera carried off nearly seventeen thousand persons.

BARBARY STATES, are Tripoli, Tunis, Algiers, and Morocco, and lie on the northern coast of Africa, extending westerly from Egypt to the Atlantic. The snow-capped Atlas range intersects them almost from east to west. The tract south of the mountains extending to the great desert, is sandy and unproductive of any fruit but dates. Between the mountains and the Mediterranean lie fertile tracts, of which the climate is salubrious, the sea air tempering the heat, which is, however, of a degree to permit the growth of vegetation in April and May. Barley, wheat, figs, grapes, olives, oranges, pomegranates, melons, cypress, cedar, and almond trees, spring from the luxuriant soil. The sugar-cane, palm-tree, and lotus are abundant; and, in the early part of the spring, the country is bright and fragrant with roses, from which the purest attar is obtained. The domestic animals are valuable, and wild ones are found in abundance. Among the minerals of the mountains, are silver, copper, iron, lead, and antimony. Salt is abundant. The commerce between these and the European states on the Mediterranean, is by no means inconsiderable. In antiquity, the countries now composing the Barbary States, were distinguished for the activity of the inhabitants in commercial pursuits. The Carthaginians were the most wealthy and enterprising of the possessors of these places, but the Romans, Vandals, and Saracens did not permit commerce to be prostrated. Now,

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a country capable of sixty millions of inhabitants, contains barely ten millions and a half. The patriotism of the Carthaginians induced them to labor for the promotion of the best interests of their country, but their power could not stand against that of a nation of victorious and hardy warriors. The Romans endeavored to make the most of their conquered provinces, and the vast influx of wealth, which conquest poured in upon them, subdued that stern spirit of temperance which had carried their banners in triumph through the troubled tide of war. Then came the Vandals and Saracens, who endeavored to render the possessions they wrested from the Romans as available as possible.

The present population of the Barbary States, is composed of Moors, Jews, who carry on the greater part of the business done here, Turks, and Arabs. The last are the descendants of the Saracenic conquerors of the country. Their habits are migratory, and they dwell in tents, ten or a hundred families gathering together, each family being under the government of a sheikh. They are generally at war with the Berbers, the descendants of the original inhabitants of the country. On these, and on the Turkish collectors of tribute, the Arabs wage war, and, when their hands are not full of personal quarrels, enter the service of any chieftain who may require them. The Moors are Moslems, indolent, unsociable, luxurious, superstitious, and uncultivated. They treat the Jews, whom they despise and hate, with great harshness. In addition to the races above enumerated, there are many negroes in Barbary.

BARCELONA, capital of Catalonia, and one of the largest cities in Spain, contains 140,000 inhabitants. It is built in the form of a crescent, and stands on the shores of the Mediterranean. The harbor is commodious, but rather difficult of access. In the middle ages, Barcelona was one of the most flourishing ports of Europe; its trade has dwindled to a trifle. Its citadel, built in 1714, has a secret connection with the fort of San Carlos; and it may be considered as a strongly fortified place. Until the twelfth century, Barcelona was under the government of its own counts, afterward united with the kingdom of Arragon, but withdrew and united to the French crown in 1640. In 1652, it again

submitted to the Spanish government, but was taken by the French in 1697. Its restoration was made at the peace of Ryswick. In the war of succession Barcelona adhered to the Archduke of Austria. It is famous for the resolute, but unavailing defense it made against the troops of Philip V., under the command of the Duke of Berwick, in 1714, when the sufferings of the inhabitants were unparalleled. In 1809, it was taken by the French, and remained in their power until 1814. In 1821, the yellow fever committed great ravages in it. The candor of a Barcelona galley-slave, is brought to remembrance on seeing the name of this city. The Duke of Ossuna, as he passed by Barcelona, having obtained leave from the king to release some slaves, went on board the galley, and, passing through the benches of slaves at the oar, asked several of them what their offenses were. Every one excused himself; one saying he was put there out of malice; another by the bribery of the judge; but all of them unjustly. Among the rest was a little sturdy fellow; and the duke asked him what he was there for? "Sir," said he, "I can not deny that I am justly sent here; for I wanted money, and so I took a purse from the highway to keep me from starving." Upon this, the duke struck him gently with a little stick he had in his hand, saying, "You rogue, what do you do among so many honest men? Get you gone out of their company."

BARCLAY, ROBERT (the celebrated Apologist for the Quakers), was born in 1648, at Gordonstown, county of Moray, Scotland, of an ancient and honorable family. The unsettled state of affairs induced his father to send him abroad, and he received the greater part of his education at Paris, under the guidance of his uncle, who was rector in the Scots college. His parents, fearful lest he might be perverted to Romanism, called him home. An accomplished scholar, and of great natural abilities, he rapidly rose to distinction. His family having become Quakers, he did likewise, and valiantly combated the violent prejudices against the sect, by several treatises in defense of its tenets. He was enthusiastic in his faith, and in 1776 accompanied William Penn in a tour of propagandism through England, Holland, and Germany. While at Amsterdam, he published his great

work on which he had been long engaged: "An Apology for the true Christian Divinity, as the same is preached and held forth by the people in scorn called Quakers." The original was in Latin, but it was speedily translated into most of the languages of Europe, and widely spread the author's reputation. On his return to Scotland he suffered severely from the cruelties practiced on the nonconformists. Latterly he was smiled on by Charles II. and James II. Through the royal favor he received a commission as governor of East Jersey, America, for life. On a visit to his native land in 1690, he was seized with fever, and died among his kinsmen at Ury in Aberdeenshire.

BARCLAY DE TOLLY, field-marshal of Russia, born 1755; director of the war against Napoleon in 1810; commander of the Russians at the battle of Leipzig 1812, and in France 1815; died 1818.

BARDS. The Bards, among Celtic nations, in battle, raised the war-cry of their people, and in peace, sang the exploits of their warriors. They appear to have acted, as the heralds, legislators, and priests of the free Celtic tribes of Europe, until the gradual progress of southern despotism and civilization drove them into the strongholds of the Welsh, Irish, and Scotch mountains, which echoed to the wild notes of their harps and patriotic songs. Their music and poetry kept alive the spark of national patriotism and enthusiasm, and inspired a stern resistance to the attacks of despotism. Hence Edward I. of England caused the Welsh bards to be slain, as the instigators of sedition. Ossian flourished in the Highlands in the third century; Merlin in the fifth. The poems of Ossian were gathered and translated by Macpherson, who was suspected of being their author. Of these poems, Bonaparte was passionately fond, and the influence they exerted upon his style, may be traced in many of his declamatory harangues.

BAREBONES, PRAISE GOD, a fanatical leather seller, by whom one of Cromwell's parliaments gained the nickname of 'Barebones Parliament.'

BARLOW, JOEL, was born at Reading, Conn., about 1755. He was educated at Dartmouth and Yale Colleges, where he distinguished himself by his poetical talent. In

the college vacations he served as a volunteer, and was present at the battle of White Plains. His first publication was a collection of minor pieces called "American Poems." After leaving college, he commenced the study of law, but afterward became a chaplain in the American army. His patriotic lays are said to have exerted an animating influence upon his countrymen. His "Vision of Columbus," which was afterward expanded into "The Columbiad," met with a flattering reception, both in America and England. The first edition was printed in 1787. About this time, in pursuance of the request of the general association of the clergy of Connecticut, he revised the psalms and hymns of Dr. Watts. To further the sale of these works, he became a bookseller, at Hartford, but soon quitted the business. In Europe, whither he went to effect the sale of lands in Ohio, he made himself conspicuous by the publication of prose and poetical works of a political nature. He was in France at the outbreak of the revolution and was intimate with the Girondist leaders. He also found time to write a mock heroic poem, in three cantos, called "Hasty Pudding," doubtless the happiest of his efforts. In 1795, he was appointed American consul at Algiers, concluded a treaty of peace with the dey, and procured the liberation of all American citizens who were held as slaves within that territory. By the conclusion of a similar treaty at Tripoli, he was enabled to redeem and send home all the American prisoners found there. In 1797, he returned to Paris, where, by commercial speculations, he amassed a very considerable fortune. In Paris, he lived in sumptuous style, and lost no opportunity of serving his countrymen. When the rupture between America and France took place, on account of the maritime spoliations of the latter, he endeavored to adjust the differences between them. After an absence of nearly seventeen years, he returned to his country early in the year 1805. In 1808, appeared his "Columbiad," a splendid volume, ornamented with engravings by London artists. It was so expensive a work that but few copies were sold. In 1811, Barlow was appointed minister plenipotentiary to the French government. In 1812, while repairing to Wilna, in order to

have a conference with the Emperor Napoleon, he died of an inflammation of the lungs, Dec. 22d, at Zarnawica, an obscure Polish village, near Cracow.

BARNEVELDT, JOHN D'OLDEN, grand-pensionary of Holland, born 1547, became one of the greatest diplomatists of his age, but by adopting the opinions of Arminius, was involved in the religious controversies which then distracted his country. By his influence in great part, Spain, in 1609, acknowledged the independence of the seven united provinces. Under frivolous charges he was beheaded in 1619.

BARNEY, JOSHUA, was born at Baltimore, July 6th, 1759. He was put into a retail shop at an early age, but manifesting a dislike for that employment, went to sea. At sixteen years of age, the illness of the captain and discharge of the mate of a vessel on board of which he was, put him in command of her, a station which he retained for eight months. At the commencement of the Revolution, he espoused the cause of the colonies, and was made master's-mate on board the *Hornet* sloop-of-war, Capt. William Stone. In 1775, the *Hornet* was concerned with Hopkins' fleet, in the capture of New Providence, one of the Bahama Islands. In 1776, in consequence of his conduct in the engagement between the American schooner *Wasp* and the English brig *Tender*, which was captured under the guns of two hostile vessels, he was presented with a lieutenant's commission, being then not seventeen years of age. Soon afterward, he became lieutenant of the *Sachem*, and assisted in the capture of an English brig, after a severe engagement. Being placed on board of a captured vessel as prize-master, Barney was taken, on his return from the West Indies, by the *Perseus*, but prisoners were exchanged in Charleston, S. C. In 1777, Barney was on board the *Andrew Doria*, and assisted in the defense of the Delaware. Having been ordered to Baltimore, to join the *Virginia* frigate, Capt. Nicholson, his vessel was run ashore by the pilot, and taken by the British. Barney was exchanged in 1778, but while commanding a small schooner, was again taken in Chesapeake Bay. In November, 1778, he sailed with Capt. Robinson in a ship from Alexandria, with a letter of marque. They

arrived at Bordeaux, after a warm action with the *Rosebud*, shipped eighteen guns and seventy men, and took on board a cargo of brandy. On their return, they captured a valuable prize. Barney reached Philadelphia in October, 1779. In the following year, he married Miss Bedford, and, a month afterward, was robbed of his whole fortune, on the road to Baltimore. Saying nothing of his misfortune, he returned to Philadelphia, and served on board the United States ship *Saratoga*, sixteen guns, Capt. Young. He was taken prisoner and sent to England, escaped, was retaken, again escaped, and reached Philadelphia, March, 1782.

Soon after, he received from the state of Pennsylvania the command of the *Hyder Aly*, a ship of sixteen guns. With a loss of four killed and eleven wounded, the *Hyder Aly* captured the ship *General Monk*, twenty guns, after an action of twenty-six minutes. On board the captured vessel were thirty killed and fifty-three wounded, fifteen out of sixteen officers being either killed or wounded. For this exploit Barney was presented with a sword by the legislature of Pennsylvania. The *General Monk* having been purchased by the United States, Barney was put in command of her, and sailed for France with sealed dispatches for Doctor Franklin, in November, 1782. He returned to America, after having been favorably received at the French court, with a large loan from the French king, a passport from the king of England, and assurances that the preliminaries of peace were signed. Barney then served in the French navy from 1795 till 1800, when, resigning the command of a French squadron, he returned to America. In 1812, on the breaking out of the war between England and the United States, he commanded the flotilla designed for the defense of the Chesapeake. He set out for Bladensburg, with a small force of marines and five pieces of artillery, in July, 1814, but found the Americans in full retreat. Notwithstanding, he made a most gallant opposition to the enemy, was wounded in the thigh, and taken prisoner. He received a sword from the corporation of Washington, and a vote of thanks from the legislature of Georgia for his gallant conduct. In 1815, he was intrusted with a mission to Europe. Commodore Bar-

ney died at Pittsburg, in 1818, while on his way to Kentucky, whither he had resolved to emigrate.

BAROMETERS. Torricelli, a Florentine, having discovered that no principle of suction existed, and that water did not rise in a pump because nature abhorred a vacuum, imitated the action of a pump with mercury, and made the first barometer, in 1643. Descartes explained the phenomena. Wheel barometers were contrived in 1668; pendant barometers in 1695; marine in 1700.

BARRAS, PAUL FRANCIS, Count de, was born about 1755, of a noble family of Provence, of whom it was proverbial to say, "Noble as the Barrases, old as the rocks." After a somewhat adventurous youth he returned from the East Indies to France, dissipated and reckless, ready to share in the troubles of 1789. He was one of the Jacobin club; and as a member of the convention in 1792 he voted for the king's death, and declared against the Girondins. In 1793, he was sent to the south of France, in command of the left wing of the army besieging Toulon, and there became acquainted with Napoleon, then a captain of artillery. He did not participate in the savage excesses of the revolutionists, and it was only his popularity that saved him from Robespierre. At the close of the reign of terror he was foremost in effecting Robespierre's downfall. He was appointed general-in-chief, called in Bonaparte to suppress revolt, and when the directory was established, Barras was a member of it. For a while he had great power, but the directory waned, and was supplanted by the consulate. Barras died in retirement, Jan. 29th, 1829.

BARRERE DE VIEUZAC, BERTRAND (1755-1841), styled by Burke, "the Anacreon of the guillotine," was a conspicuous character in the French revolution, and a colleague of Robespierre, Danton, &c. He voted for the death of Louis XVI., saying, "The tree of liberty only grows when watered by the blood of tyrants."

BARROSA, or BAROSSA, BATTLE OF, a long conflict in the Peninsular war, between the British army under Major-General Graham (afterward Lord Lynedoch) and the French under Marshal Victor, March 5th, 1811. The British at last forced the French to retreat,

leaving nearly 3,000 dead. The loss of the victors was 1,169 killed and wounded.

BARROW, ISAAC, D.D., an eminent English divine and mathematician, was born in London in 1650, and died in 1677. He was the predecessor of Newton as Lucasian professor of mathematics at Cambridge. His sermons are still held in high estimation. Charles II. called him "an unfair preacher, because he exhausted every subject and left nothing for others to say after him."

BARRY, JOHN, the first naval officer that held the rank of commodore in the service of the United States, was born in the county of Wexford, Ireland, in 1745. His father was a respectable farmer, and made no opposition to his son's wish to lead a seafaring life. Barry acquired a good practical education, and was between fourteen and fifteen years of age, when he came to the country of his adoption. The experience which he had gained in the merchant service, and the naval skill which he displayed, procured for him a commission in the continental navy on the breaking out of hostilities with Great Britain. He was appointed commander of the brig Lexington, sixteen guns, in February, 1776. After cruising with success, he was transferred in the same year, to the frigate Effingham, at Philadelphia, but the ice in the Delaware preventing immediate operations, Barry served on shore as aid-de-camp to General Cadwalader, and was present at the occurrences near Trenton. While the American vessels were shut up near Whitehill, he conceived the daring plan of descending the river in boats and capturing the supplies sent to the enemy. He succeeded in taking not only a valuable stock of provisions, but military stores, for which exploit he received the thanks of Washington. After the loss of his frigate, he was appointed to command the Raleigh of thirty-two guns, but ran her on shore in Penobscot Bay, on being chased by a large squadron. In February, 1781, he was in command of the Alliance, a frigate of thirty-six guns, and sailed from Boston, for L'Orient with Colonel Laurens and suite, on an embassy of importance to the court of Paris. After having taken several prizes, he was severely wounded in the action with the ship Atalanta, and her consort the brig Trepasa, which were taken after an en-

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gagement of several hours. Throughout the war, Commodore Barry behaved with gallantry, and on the termination of hostilities he was appointed to superintend the building of the frigate *United States*, which he was to command. In the short naval war with France, Barry was of great service to this country, and he remained in command of the *United States* till she was laid up in ordinary. He died Sept. 13th, 1803, with the reputation of a virtuous, brave, and talented man.

BARRY, MARIE JEANNE DE VAUBERNIER, Countess du, was in early life a milliner, then a courtesan, and in 1759 succeeded Madame Pompadour as mistress of Louis XV. She was corrupt, even for that age of harlotry. Louis XVI. sent her into retirement. She died under the guillotine in 1793, at the age of forty-nine, uttering on her way to the scaffold piteous cries for mercy.

BARTHELEMY, JOHN JAMES, an eminent French writer, author of "The Travels of the Younger Anacharsis," born at Cassis in Provence, 1716, died April 30th, 1795.

BARTHOLOMEW, St., martyred Aug. 24th, A.D. 71. The festival was instituted in 1130. The horrid massacre of Bartholomew's day was perpetrated on the Huguenots of Paris, by the Catholic faction, during the reign of Charles IX., in 1572, according to secret orders from the king at the instigation of Catherine de Medicis, his mother. The massacre extended throughout the kingdom, and the victims were not fewer than seventy thousand. Women and infants were not spared. At Rome the news was received with every demonstration of joy, salutes of cannon were fired, a procession went by order of the pope to the church of St. Louis, and the "Te Deum" was chanted.

BARTLETT, JOSIAH, was born in Amesbury, Mass., in 1729. He commenced the study of medicine at the age of sixteen, and at the age of twenty-one the practice of it, in which he was highly successful. In 1754, he was a representative of the town of Kingston, N. H., in the provincial legislature, where he took the side of the minority, firmly opposing all violations of right. In 1775 he was deprived by the governor of his commission in the army, and of that of justice of peace. From the provincial congress, however, he received a regiment, and, as a delegate to the

Continental Congress, was the second signer of the declaration of independence. In 1780 he was appointed judge of the superior court of New Hampshire, and chief justice in 1790. In the same year he became president of New Hampshire, and its governor in 1793. He retired from office in 1794, and died in 1795.

BARTON, BERNARD, the 'Quaker poet,' a banker's clerk in England, 1784-1849.

BARTON, ELIZABETH, a country girl of Ad-dington, in Kent, commonly called the Holy Maid of Kent. She appeared in the reign of Henry VIII., with pretensions to miraculous powers, and was executed at Tyburn, April 30th, 1534, after a full confession of her imposture. It was at the time that the king was about to be divorced from his first wife, and the English church separated from Rome, and this girl was deluded by priests to warn Henry of the vengeance of Heaven if he persisted.

BARTON, WILLIAM, lieutenant-colonel in the American army during the Revolution, was a native of Providence, R. I. He headed the party which seized Gen. Prescott of the British army near Newport, July 10th, 1777. For this bold deed Congress gave Barton a sword and a large grant of land in Vermont. Some irregularity in the transfer of this land led to his imprisonment in Vermont for many years. La Fayette, on his visit to this country in 1825, heard of his incarceration, liquidated the claim, and set the veteran free. He died at Providence in 1831, aged eighty-four.

BARTRAM, WILLIAM, an American naturalist, born in Pennsylvania, 1739. He accompanied his father (John, also a learned botanist) on an expedition to explore the natural productions of East Florida, and in 1773 commenced an examination of the natural productions of the Floridas, and the western parts of Carolina and Georgia, at the request of Dr. Fothergill of London. This employment lasted nearly five years. In 1790 he published an account of his travels and discoveries. He belonged to many learned societies in Europe and America. He assisted Wilson in the commencement of his "American Ornithology." On the 22d of July, 1823, a few minutes after writing an article on the natural history of a flower, he ruptured a blood-vessel and died.

BASHKIRS, a tribe of Mongol origin, under Russian rule. They are Mohammedans, but

little civilized, and live by hunting, raising cattle and keeping bees. They intoxicate themselves on a beverage made from fermented mare's and camel's milk. They dwell about Orenburg on the Ural.

BASIL, St., an Eastern patriarch, called the Great, born 326, and made Bishop of Cæsarea, in Cappadocia, in 370. Here he died in 379. The rules for the regulation of the monastic life, which he prepared, were followed by all the orders in Christendom.

BASSOMPIERRE, **FRANÇOIS DE**, Marshal of France, enjoyed the favor of Henry IV. and Louis XIII., and was one of the most amiable and accomplished men of their courts. He was born in 1579 and died in 1646. He served in a military and civil capacity. Having become enamored of the charms of the daughter of the Constable de Montmorency, he relinquished his hopes when he discovered that he was the rival of Henry IV.

BASTILE, a royal castle commenced by Charles V. for the defense of Paris against the English, and completed in 1383. It was of great strength. It was afterward used as a state prison, like the Tower of London, and became the scene of deplorable suffering and frightful crimes. Prisoners were confined by the authority of *lettres de cachet*, that is, letters of arrest, written in the king's name, with blanks for the names of individuals, which were to be filled up by the ministers who possessed these letters. Heads of families among the nobility, who wished to confine any unworthy member of the family, claimed the privilege of confinement by a *lettre de cachet*, and this privilege was next claimed by the ministers of government, to be used for the punishment of refractory servants and others. It will easily be conjectured that it was not long before unprincipled ministers abused this right by imprisoning worthy persons, who, in the actual discharge of their duties, had incurred the displeasure of men of power by thwarting their interests. In fact the use of the *lettres de cachet* was the mainstay of despotism, and used not merely by the throne, but by many of its satellites. Men were imprisoned for offenses too trifling to be registered, and remained thirty or forty years in the Bastile, or even till death, without any examination into the charges on which they were imprisoned. At the commencement of

the French revolution, the attention of the people was called to this enormity. In July, 1789, they assembled in force and attacked the Bastile, which surrendered after a few hours. The governor and other officers were murdered. The prisoners were feasted in Paris, and the building was completely demolished.

M. Mercier has given an interesting account of a prisoner who was confined for some expressions of disrespect toward Louis XV. He was set at liberty by the ministers of Louis XVI. He had been in confinement for forty-seven years, and had borne up against the horrors of his prison-house with a manly spirit. His thin, white, and scattered hairs, had acquired an almost iron rigidity. The day of his liberation, his door was flung wide open, and a strange voice announced to him his freedom. Hardly comprehending the meaning of the words, he rose and tottered through the courts and halls of the prison, which appeared to him interminable. His eyes by degrees became accustomed to the light of day, but the motion of the carriage which was to convey him to his former abode appeared unendurable. At length, supported by a friendly arm, he reached the street in which he had once resided, but on the spot formerly occupied by his house, stood a public building, and nothing remained in that quarter that he recognized. None of the living beings of the vast city knew him; his liberty was a worthless gift, and he wept for the solitude of his dungeon. Accident brought in his way an old domestic, a superannuated porter, who had barely strength sufficient to discharge the duties of his office. He did not recognize his master, but told him that his wife had died of grief thirty years before, that his children had gone abroad, and that not one of his relations remained. Overcome by this intelligence, the captive supplicated the minister to take him back to the dungeon from which he had been liberated, and the man of office was moved to tears by his misery. The old porter became his companion, as he was the only person who could converse to him of the friends he had lost, but so wretched was the isolated condition of the victim of the Bastile, that he died not long after his liberation.

BATH, ORDER OF THE. Its origin is uncertain. The ancient Franks, when they

conferred knighthood, bathed before they performed their vigils. Henry IV. instituted a degree of knighthood of the Bath, and on his coronation in the Tower, he conferred the order upon forty-six esquires, who had watched the night before and had bathed. To each of these he gave green side-coats reaching down to their ankles, with straight sleeves, and furred with miniver; they also wore upon their left shoulder two cordons of white silk, with tassels hanging down.

It was usual in former times to create knights of this order from the flower of the nobility, who had not previously received the order of knighthood, at the coronation of kings and queens, and at their marriages; sometimes also, when their sons were invested Prince of Wales, or dukes, or when they solemnly received the cincture or military girdle of knighthood; and that accompanied with many ceremonies, which at present are for the most part disused. After the coronation of Charles II., the order was neglected until 1725, when it was revived by George I., who fixed the number of knights at thirty-eight, the sovereign and thirty-seven knights-companions.

By statute, January 2d, 1815, it was ordained that, "for the purpose of commemorating the auspicious termination of the long and arduous contest in which this empire [Great Britain] has been engaged," the order should be composed of three classes.

First class: to consist of Knights Grand Crosses; number not to exceed seventy-two, exclusive of the sovereign and princes of the blood royal, one-sixth of which may be appointed for civil and diplomatic purposes. The remainder must have attained the rank of major-general in the army, or rear-admiral in the navy, and must have been previously appointed to the second class.

Second class: Knights Commanders; number not to exceed, upon the first institution, one hundred and eighty, exclusive of foreign officers holding British commissions, of which not exceeding ten may be admitted as honorary knights commanders. In the event of actions of signal distinction, or future wars, the number of this class may be increased. To be entitled to the distinctive appellation of knighthood; to have the same rights and privileges as knights bachelors,

but to take precedence of them; to wear the badge, &c., pendent by a ribbon round the neck, the star embroidered on the left side. No officer can be nominated, unless he shall have received a medal or other badge of honor, or shall have been especially mentioned in dispatches in the *London Gazette*, as having distinguished himself in action. No person is now eligible to this class under the rank of major-general in the army, or rear-admiral of the navy.

Third class: Companions of the Order; not limited in number; they are to take precedence of esquires, but not entitled to the appellation, style, &c., of knights bachelors. To wear the badges assigned to the third class, pendent by a narrow red ribbon to the button-hole.

Motto of the order, *Tria juncta in uno*—the Trinity.

BATTHYANY, Count CASIMIR STRALTMAN, a Hungarian revolutionist, whose large estates were confiscated. He died in exile and poverty, at Paris, July 12th, 1854.

BATTHYANY, LOUIS, a Hungarian nobleman, who was seized by the Austrians, sentenced to death by an unjust court-martial, and shot Oct. 6th, 1848.

BATUTA, IBN, an Arab Moor of Tangiers, was one of the greatest travelers that ever lived. Between 1324 and 1354, he wandered from his native place to Timbuctoo, the Ural Mountains, Ceylon, and the eastern coast of China, visiting all the countries between these extreme points.

BAUTZEN, or BUDISSIN, capital of Upper Lusatia, situated on a height washed by the Spree. It contains about 12,000 inhabitants. The Catholics and Lutherans worship together in the large cathedral, divided by a screen of trellis-work, the former possessing the altar and the latter the nave. On the 20th and 21st of May, 1813, Napoleon here defeated an army of Prussians and Russians, whose masterly retreat left him but little advantage. In the evening of the 21st the field of battle presented a grand but terrible spectacle, more than sixteen thousand men being stretched in their last sleep, and the scene illuminated by the red glare of thirty burning villages.

BAVARIA, a kingdom of Germany, a waste in the time of Cæsar, and a Roman

province (Vindelicia and Noricum) under Augustus. At the end of the fifth century, a confederacy was formed by several German tribes, under the name of Boioarians, Ratisbon being their chief seat. Their country was called Noricum, and was never subject to the Ostrogoths. They became subject however to the Franks, when the latter gained possession of Rætia. Otho, Count of Wittelsbach, who after the death of Charlemagne, and the occurrence of convulsions incident to the division of the empire, gained possession of Bavaria, died in 1183. Louis I., his successor, enlarged his territories, and added the palatinate of the Rhine. Bavaria was divided into Upper and Lower, in 1255; Maximilian I., a distinguished leader of the league against the Protestants, gained the upper palatinate in 1623. He died in 1651. After the battle of Blenheim, the emperor treated Bavaria as a conquered country. Charles Albert of Bavaria was elected emperor of Germany in 1742, but in 1743 the states of Bavaria were constrained to swear homage to Maria Theresa, and in the war, Charles's fortunes sank rapidly, and he was forced to abandon Bavaria. His son and successor, Maximilian Joseph III., assumed, like his father, the title of Archduke of Austria, but making peace with Austria, in 1745, received from Francis all the Bavarian territories which had been conquered by that power. Maximilian Joseph devoted himself to the promotion of the interests of his people, and favored their industry by every means in his power; the foundation of the academy of sciences at Munich proves his liberality, and the extension of his views.

By the treaties of the house of Wittelsbach, and by the terms of the peace of Westphalia, the right of succession reverted to the palatinate, on the extinction of the Wittelsbach line in the person of Maximilian Joseph, who died 30th of December, 1777, but the claims of Austria to Lower Bavaria were enforced by arms, and Charles Theodore, in 1778, was persuaded formally to renounce the Bavarian succession. The Duke of Deux-Ponts, however, the presumptive heir, relying on the encouragement afforded by Frederick II. of Prussia, refused to acknowledge the surrender of the succession. This was the cause of the Bavarian war of succession, which was ter-

minated by a treaty of peace, signed May 13th, 1779, in consequence of war being declared against Austria by Russia, and Bavaria was secured to the elector palatine of Bavaria. The Austrians yet coveted the country, and, in 1784, Joseph II. proposed to exchange the Austrian Netherlands for Bavaria, with the sum of three million florins for the elector and the Duke of Deux-Ponts, and the title of King of Burgundy. This, however, was formally refused by the Duke of Deux-Ponts, who declared he would never barter away the inheritance of his ancestors. Charles Theodore revived the order of Jesuits, and restrained the freedom of the press, and on the breaking out of the French revolution, the elector sent troops to aid the empire. In 1796 Bavaria became the theatre of war. Maximilian Joseph, Duke of Deux-Ponts, now came into possession of Bavaria. At the beginning of the war of 1805, the elector joined the French with 30,000 troops, and at the peace of Presburg received from Napoleon a vast addition of territory, and the title of king. A matrimonial alliance connected the interests of Bavaria still more closely with those of France. Bavaria took part against Prussia and Austria, in 1806 and 1809. In the war of 1812 between France and Russia, Bavaria brought 30,000 men into the field, and but a few fragments of her fine army survived the expedition to Moscow. In 1813, the King of Bavaria abandoned the confederation of the Rhine and turned his arms against Napoleon. In 1825, Louis Charles succeeded to the throne, and reigned till 1848, when he abdicated in favor of his son Maximilian Joseph II. His abdication was mainly caused by his attachment to the celebrated Lola Montez, whom he had created Countess of Landsfelt. She was expelled from the kingdom.

The kingdom of Bavaria is among the principal of the secondary continental powers. Bavaria, exclusive of the province west of the Rhine, is bounded north by Hesse-Darmstadt, Hesse-Cassel, and Saxony; east and south by Austria, and west by Wurtemberg, Baden, and Hesse-Darmstadt. The kingdom contains 28,435 square miles, and had in 1855, 4,541,556 inhabitants. It is a mountainous country, having, however, many extensive plains and valleys wide and fertile. Agri-

culture is the chief branch of industry. The soil is mostly owned in small estates. Bavaria's most important manufacture is beer, of which more than ninety-six million gallons are yearly brewed. Coarse linens are largely woven by the country women. Marriage is forbidden without permission from the authorities, who do not grant it unless there is sufficient probability that adequate means for maintaining a family will be possessed. Liberty of conscience, and equality in civil rights, are guaranteed to both Protestant and Romanist. Education is supervised by the government, and no children are excused attendance at the schools, except such as have received permission for private tuition. No printing-press can be established without the previous sanction of the king. The government is a limited monarchy. There are two legislative chambers. Bavaria has a right of way by a military road through Baden, which gives direct access to its dominions on the Rhine.

Munich (München) is the capital of Bavaria, and perhaps the handsomest city in Germany. Its population in 1853 was 127,385. The city is indebted mostly to the ex-king Louis for its splendid buildings and its treasures of ancient and modern art. It has a library of 400,000 volumes and 22,000 MSS. Here lithography was invented by Sennefelder, in 1796. Fraunhofer's astronomical and optical instruments are unsurpassed. Munich surrendered to the Swedes and German Protestants, under Gustavus Adolphus, in 1632; in 1704 it fell into the hands of the Austrians. In 1741, it shared the vicissitudes of the war, and in 1796, the French army under Moreau obliged the elector to make a separate treaty. In 1800, Moreau again occupied Bavaria, and secured his superiority by the victory of Hohenlinden; and from that time, to 1813, Bavaria remained in alliance with the French.

Nürnberg (incorrectly called Nuremberg), an ancient city in the province of Franconia, once a flourishing member of the Hanseatic league, has 45,000 inhabitants. This "quaint old town of toil and traffic, quaint old town of art and song," was in the olden time one of the chief marts of Europe. It received the rich merchandise of Italy, and forwarded it

to the north. Four hundred years ago its artisans in metals were famous.

"Here when Art was still religion, with a simple
reverent heart,
Lived and labored Albrecht Dürer, the Evangel-
ist of Art."

Here sang Hans Sach, the cobbler bard. Here were invented watches (first called Nürnberg eggs), the air-gun, the clarionet, brass, and the lock for fire-arms. Nürnberg continued a free city till 1803, when it was parceled to Bavaria.

Augsburg, population 36,000, is a town of important trade and manufactures. Here dwelt the great family of the Fuggers. In the best days of Augsburg, the front of every respectable dwelling shone with the glories of the pencil, and the whole Scriptures might be studied in these fresco paintings out of doors. The first tulip known in the west of Europe, was brought to Augsburg from Constantinople in 1557. Here paper was made from rags as early as 1330. Printing was early established here, and is now largely carried on. The *Allgemeine Zeitung*, called also the *Augsburg Gazette*, the most widely circulated journal in Germany, is printed here. Augsburg was a free imperial city from 1276 to 1806. Melancthon drew up the celebrated confession of faith protesting against the abuses of the church of Rome, whence the Lutherans were called Protestants. By him and Luther, in 1530, it was presented to the Emperor Charles V. in the palace of the Bishop of Augsburg, whence it is called the confession of Augsburg. Here in 1555 was signed the celebrated treaty by which religious liberty was secured to Germany.

BAXTER, RICHARD, a noted divine among the English nonconformists, was born at Rowton, Shropshire, November 12th, 1615. At first connected with the established church, he became a dissenting minister. Though he sided with parliament during the civil war, he did not approve of the execution of the king and other extreme action of the day. During the persecution of the nonconformists in the reign of James II., Mr. Baxter was tried and abused by the infamous Jeffreys, but the king remitted the fine imposed upon him. He was a volumi-

nous author upon theological and religious subjects. "The Saints' Everlasting Rest" and "A Call to the Unconverted" are still much read. He died in 1691.

BAYARD, JAMES A., an eminent American lawyer and politician, born at Philadelphia, in 1767. He was educated at Princeton College. He represented Delaware in both houses of Congress, and distinguished himself by his patriotism and ability in debate. He was sent to Europe as one of the commissioners to treat for peace in 1813, but after the treaty of Ghent, the state of his health induced him to return home with all possible speed. He accordingly embarked at Havre, in May, 1815, arrived in the United States, and died in the bosom of his family.

BAYARD, JOHN, an eminent patriot in our Revolution, born in Maryland, 1738, died in 1807.

BAYARD, PIERRE DU TERRAIL, Chevalier de, called *Le chevalier sans peur et sans reproche* (the knight without fear and without reproach,) was born near Grenoble, 1476, of one of the most ancient families in Dauphiny. Educated under the eye of his uncle, the Bishop of Grenoble, he early displayed those traits for which he was afterward so much beloved and celebrated. Modest, pious, affectionate, tender, brave, and honorable, all who beheld him augured well of his future career. Charles VIII., who saw him at Lyons, managing a stately steed with ease and grace, begged him of the Duke of Savoy, whose page he then was, and committed him to the care of Paul of Luxemburg, Count de Ligny. He won his earliest laurels in tournaments, but he was destined to shine upon redder fields of glory, and at the age of eighteen accompanied Charles VIII. to Italy, and took a standard at the battle of Verona. When, in the reign of Louis XII., he was taken prisoner by following some flying adversaries into Milan, Ludovico Sforza generously returned him his horse and arms, and dismissed him without ransom. His exploit at the bridge over the Garigliano was worthy of a Roman in Rome's best days, for like Horatius Cocles he gallantly defended the bridge against the victorious Spaniards, until the French army were safe. On account of this action, he had for his coat of arms a porcupine, with the following motto: *Vires agminis unus habet*,

'alone he has an army's strength.' When Julius II. declared himself against France, Bayard hastened to the assistance of the Duke of Ferrara. Defeated in his attempt to take the pope prisoner, he yet sternly refused to listen to an offer to betray him. He was wounded in the assault on Brescia, and carried into the house of a nobleman who had fled, leaving his wife and two daughters exposed to the brutal insults of a licentious soldiery. Bayard protected them faithfully, refusing their offers of reward, and returning, as soon as he was cured, to the French camp, whose stay and hope, Gaston de Foix, had been killed in consequence of neglecting the advice of Bayard. The latter received a second wound in the retreat from Pavia, which it was thought would prove mortal. On learning this, the gallant chevalier said, in the true spirit of a warrior, "I grieve not to die, but to die in my bed like a woman."

The military misfortunes of the latter part of the reign of Louis XII. did not cast a shadow on the glory of Bayard, but his personal bravery was conspicuous even in reverse. He was ever the foremost in the charge, and the last in the retreat. Francis I. had no sooner ascended the throne, than he gave proof of the confidence he reposed in Bayard, by sending him into Dauphiny to open a passage for his army over the Alps, and through Piedmont. Bayard captured Prosper Colonna, who lay in wait for him, hoping to surprise him. Elated with this success, in the battle of Marignano, to which it was a prelude, he performed prodigies of valor by the side of the king, who emulated the bravery of the gallant chevalier. After this day of glory Francis received knighthood from the sword of Bayard. Bayard defended the town of Meziere, when Charles V. invaded Champagne, with such spirit and resolution, that at Paris he was called the savior of his country. He received from the hands of the king the order of St. Michael, and a company of a hundred men to command in his own name, an honor never before conferred but on princes of the blood. Bayard reduced to obedience the revolted Genoa, but the fortunes of the French changed, and they were obliged to retreat. Bonnivet the commander, his rear-guard beaten, and himself severely wounded, committed

the care of the army to the gallant Bayard. Compelled to pass Sesia in the presence of a superior force, Bayard, the last man in the retreat, was combating the Spaniards, when a stone from a blunderbuss shattered his back-bone, and he exclaimed, "Jesus Christ, my God, I am a dead man!" He was removed at his request, under the shadow of a tree; "From this spot," said he, "I can behold the enemy." He confessed his sins to his squire, and, in default of a crucifix, kissed the hilt of his sword. Bidding a farewell to his friends, his king, and his country, he died, surrounded by admiring and weeping friends and enemies, April 30th, 1524. His enemies, who retained possession of the body, embalmed it, and restored it to his countrymen, by whom it was consigned to a tomb in a church of the Minorites, near Grenoble. A simple bust, and a Latin inscription, mark the place of his repose.

BAYLE, PIERRE, a French writer, born at Carlat, in Languedoc, in 1647. He died, pen in hand, in 1706, at the age of fifty-nine. His "Historical and Critical Dictionary" is a grand monument of the logic and learning for which the author is so celebrated. He modestly called it "an ill-digested compilation of passages tacked together by the ends." Voltaire calls him "the first of logicians and skeptics," but adds, that his warmest apologists can not deny, that there is not a page in his controversial writings, which does not lead the reader to doubt, and often to skepticism. He himself says, "My talent consists in raising doubts; but they are only doubts."

BAYONNE, a fortified city in France, about two miles from the Bay of Biscay, at the confluence of the Nive and Adour. It is in the department of the Lower Pyrenees, and was formerly the capital of a district of Gascony. Population, 17,000. Bayonne has considerable commerce with Spain, and is much engaged in the cod and whale fishery. Its hams, wines, brandies, and chocolate are famous. It is said that in 1564 Bayonne was the scene of an interview between Catherine de Medici and the Duke of Alva, at which was planned the murder of the Huguenots, carried into effect seven years afterward on St. Bartholomew's day. When the massacre took place, however, D'Orchez, commandant of Bayonne, refused to execute the orders of

the court, returning this noble answer: "Sire, I have communicated your majesty's letter to the garrison and inhabitants of this city. I have found only brave soldiers and good citizens, and not a single executioner." At Bayonne, in 1670, the bayonet was invented, whence its name. Here in 1808, Napoleon met the King of Spain, Charles IV., and his son Ferdinand, Prince of Asturias, when they signed an agreement by which they and the king's other children renounced their rights in the European and Indian territories of Spain, in favor of Bonaparte. During Wellington's invasion of France from Spain, the neighborhood of Bayonne was the scene of desperate fighting, Dec. 10th, 11th, and 13th, 1813. Soult then retired within the intrenchments of the city, and it was invested by Lieut.-Gen. Sir John Hope, Jan. 14th, 1814. On the morning of April 14th, Soult made a sortie with much success, though driven back in the end. Sir John Hope was wounded and made prisoner. News of Napoleon's abdication arrived shortly after. A treaty was signed at Bayonne, Dec. 2d, 1856, establishing the frontier line between France and Spain.

BEATON, DAVID, Archbishop of St. Andrew's in Scotland, and cardinal, born in 1494. On the coronation of the young Queen Mary, he renewed his cruel persecutions of the heretics, and among others, brought George Wishart, the famous Protestant preacher, to the stake. Seated at his window, he beheld with fiendish joy the cruel sufferings of this estimable man. He was openly licentious, and, although endowed with some good qualities, was disgraced by flagrant vices. He was murdered in his chamber, May 29th, 1546.

BEATTIE, JAMES, a miscellaneous writer, and pleasing poet, born at Lawrencetown, in Kincardine county, Scotland, in 1735, died in August, 1803. The poem by which he will be remembered as a follower of the muses, is the "Minstrel," the first book of which was published in 1771. He wrote an "Essay on Truth," and some other metaphysical works, in which, however, he did not shine so much as in his poems.

BEAUFORT, HENRY, cardinal, half-brother of Henry IV. of England, Bishop of Lincoln, afterward of Winchester, and chancellor of

the kingdom. In 1431, he crowned Henry VI., in the great church of Paris. He is strongly suspected of having directed the assassination of Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester. He was one of the judges of Joan of Arc. He died in 1447.

BEAUHARNAIS, EUGENE DE, son of Viscount Beauharnais and Josephine, born 1781. He was a general under Napoleon; viceroy of Northern Italy, 1805; married to the daughter of the king of Bavaria, 1806; made Duke of Leuchtenburg by his father-in-law; died in 1824.

BEAUHARNAIS, HORTENSE EUGENIE DE, daughter of Josephine, was born at Paris 1783, and married to Louis Bonaparte in 1802. This forced union proved unhappy to both husband and wife. They were separated, after Hortense had borne three sons, the eldest two of whom died early, and the other has become famous as Louis Napoleon. Hortense joined her mother in retirement at Malmaison, but the speedy fall of Napoleon left her a desolate wanderer, till at last the Bavarian king gave her a refuge at Augsburg. She died Oct. 5th, 1837.

BEAUMARCHAIS, PIERRE AUGUSTIN CARON DE, artist, politician, projector, painter, merchant, and dramatist, was the son of a watchmaker, and born at Paris, in 1732. He was teacher of the harp to the daughters of Louis XV., and by a wealthy marriage, laid the foundation of his immense fortune. His "Eugene," "Mère Coupable," "Mariage de Figaro," and "Barbier de Seville," keep possession of the stage in several languages. His "Memoirs" exhibit Beaumarchais in his true character. He increased his fortune by his contract to supply the United States with military stores, during the Revolutionary war. He died in 1799.

BEAUMONT, FRANCIS, and FLETCHER, JONN, two English dramatic writers of great power, who united their interests and wrote conjointly. Beaumont, born in 1585, died in 1616; Fletcher, born in 1576, died in 1625, of the plague, in London. They used to frequent ale-houses, as Shakspeare is said to have done, for the sake of studying human nature, and were once arrested in a very dramatic manner. They were disputing in an ale-house about the fate of a king in one of their plays, one insisting upon his assas-

sination, the other on his preservation. Some of their uninitiated auditors procured their arrest, imagining that a conspiracy against the reigning sovereign was on foot.

BECCARIA, CESAR, Marquis of Bonesana, author of a celebrated treatise on crimes and punishments, born 1720, died November, 1794.

BECKET, THOMAS A., a celebrated prelate, was born in London, in 1117. He was the son of a merchant who, while a prisoner in the East, is said to have engaged the affections of a Saracen lady; she followed the merchant to London, where he married her. Becket's advancement was rapid: he was a favorite with Henry II., who made him tutor to his son in 1158, and heaped spiritual and temporal honors upon him. He rivaled royalty in the splendor of his living. On his election to the see of Canterbury, in 1162, he resigned the office of chancellor, and assuming all the arrogance of a sovereign pontiff, lent himself to oppose the reformation intended by the king among the clergy. Their enormities had disgusted the whole kingdom; and the archbishop screened the most abandoned, under the pretext that they were not amenable to the civil power. After a series of hostilities between the king and Becket, many references to the pope, excommunications and anathemas, reconciliations and fresh quarrels, on the archbishop's refusal to withdraw his excommunication of some bishops, which was felt to lie very hard upon them, the king, in a fit of passion, reproached his courtiers for permitting him to be so long and so ignobly tormented. On this, four knights went down to Canterbury, and killed Becket before the altar as he was at the vesper service, December 29th, 1170. The perpetrators of this deed were finally admitted to penance, but the king was compelled to expiate his guilt at the tomb of the archbishop, who was canonized two years after his death. He became a popular saint, and miracles were abundant at his tomb, which was much visited by pilgrims till the reformation. His bones, which had been enshrined in gold, and set with jewels, in 1220, were taken up and burned in the reign of Henry VIII., 1539.

BECKFORD, WILLIAM, was the son of Alderman Beckford, the lord mayor of London

who bearded George III. on his throne. At nineteen he wrote in French the gorgeous romance of "Vathek." He inherited a princely estate. At Cintra in Portugal he reared a palace for his residence. Abandoning this, he built on his estate in Wiltshire, the magnificent Gothic structure of Fonthill Abbey, where he realized those lavish splendors which he had imagined in his oriental romance. His last years were spent at Bath, where he died in 1844, in his eighty-fourth year.

BEDÉ, commonly called the Venerable Bede, was born in the neighborhood of Wearmouth, in the year 672 or 673, and pursued his studies in the monastery of St. Peter, Wearmouth. He died in May, 735. His "English Ecclesiastical History," his greatest and most popular work, was translated by Alfred the Great. He was modest and moderate, and although a monk, wished to have the number of monasteries lessened. Bede led a life of pious and studious retirement, and on the day of his death, he was dictating a translation of the gospel of St. John to his amanuensis. "Master," said the young man, as he raised his eyes, "there is but one more sentence wanting." Bede bade him write rapidly, and when the scribe said, "It is done," replied, "It is indeed done," and expired a few minutes afterward in the act of prayer.

BEDFORD, JOHN, Duke of, the third son of Henry IV. of England. In 1422, he commanded the English army in France, and the same year was named regent of that kingdom for Henry VI., whom he caused to be crowned at Paris. He defeated the French fleet near Southampton, entered Paris, beat the Duke of Alençon, and made himself master of France. The greatest stain upon his character, is his cruelty to the Maid of Orleans, whom he caused to be burnt in the market-place of Rouen. He died at Rouen, in 1435.

BEETHOVEN, LUDWIG VON, was born at Bonn, Dec. 17th, 1770. His musical education began at the age of five, under his father, who was a tenor singer in the electoral chapel of Cologne. While yet a youth, his success was foretold by Mozart. At one time he enjoyed the instruction of Haydn. The last twenty years of his life he was afflicted

by severe deafness, which conspired to make him distrustful and taciturn. He made his residence at Vienna. He died March 26th, 1827. His musical compositions are well known and very beautiful.

BEGUINES, females who bound themselves to obey the rules of an ecclesiastical order, forming societies for purposes of devotion and charity, living together in beguinages, without taking the monastic vows. They originated in Germany and the Netherlands, in the thirteenth century, and some of their societies still exist in the Netherlands. Some of these nuns once fell into the error that they could in this life arrive at the highest moral perfection, even to impeccability.

BEHRING, VITUS, a Dane by birth, and captain in the Russian navy, who in the year 1728, explored the coasts of Kamtschatka, and proved that Asia was disjoined from America. He died on a desolate island of the Aleutian group, during a voyage of discovery, December 8th, 1741. The strait between Asia and America, has received the name of Behring's Straits from him. The uninhabited island on which he died, is called Behring's Island.

BELGÆ, a collection of German and Celtic tribes, who inhabited the country extending from the Atlantic to the Rhine, and from the Marne and Seine, to the southern mouth of the Rhine, which is united with the Meuse. Cæsar has borne witness to the bravery of the Belgians, particularly of those who resided on the northern frontiers of Germany, declaring that they were the most valiant of the Gauls. When Cæsar invaded Britain he found the south of the island occupied by the Belgæ, who had crossed over and driven the original inhabitants into the interior.

BELGIUM, the name of that part of the Netherlands which formerly belonged to Austria. It was a part of the kingdom of Holland till 1830, when the Belgians revolted, and it was recognized as a separate kingdom. Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg, widower of Princess Charlotte of England, and uncle of Queen Victoria, was elected to the crown, which had been refused by Louis Philippe for his son, the Duke of Nemours. The area of the kingdom is nearly 11,400 square miles, and in 1856 its population was 4,530,228. It comprises the provinces of Antwerp, Brabant,

BEL

West Flanders, East Flanders, Hainault, Liege, Limburg, Luxenburg, and Namur. It is generally a low and level country, and its short sea-coast of forty miles is carefully embanked against the encroachments of the sea. The principal rivers are the Maas, or Meuse, and the Schelde. It has not such a network of canals as Holland, but there are many, both for draining and for commercial intercourse. The country is everywhere intersected by wide and well-kept main roads, either paved or macadamized, having commonly a double row of lime-trees. Belgium was the first of the continental states to adopt a general system of railways. Coal and iron are extensively mined. The grains are extensively grown, and Belgian flax is of high repute. The heavy Flemish horses are in much demand for draught, and are largely exported. The Flemings were once great weavers in woollens, but the tyranny of Spain drove the artisans away. Still, woollens are an important branch of industry. Linens, cottons, and silks are made. The laces of Brussels and Mechlin are famous. The inhabitants of the northern provinces of Belgium, comprising about two-thirds of the population of the kingdom, are mostly Flemings, speaking the Flemish tongue. Those of the southern provinces are French, speaking on the western side the Picard and on the eastern the Walloon dialect of the French language. The Belgians are mostly Catholics, but freedom is enjoyed by all religious persuasions, and the Catholic and Protestant clergy are both supported from the public treasury. The government is a limited constitutional monarchy. There are two legislative chambers, both elective. The king may confer titles of nobility, but no peculiar privileges are granted thereby, since all distinction of orders is expressly repudiated by the constitution. The French language is used in all public affairs. The French decimal system is also adopted for money, weights, and measures.

The capital is Brussels (Bruxelles); population 210,400. It is a miniature of Paris, and one of the best built cities in Europe. Its laces and carpets have long been noted. St. Gery, Bishop of Cambray, founded it in the seventh century. In 1695, during its memorable bombardment by Marshal Villeroy, fourteen churches and four thousand houses were

destroyed. It was taken by Marshal Saxe in 1746, and again by Dumouriez in 1792. Till 1814 it was held by France. The Hotel de Ville of Brussels is the finest of all municipal palaces. Its Gothic tower, three hundred and sixty-four feet high, is surmounted by a gilded copper statue of St. Michael, seventeen feet tall, which serves as a weathercock.

Antwerp is the great port of Belgium. It is strongly fortified, containing several beautiful public buildings, and 90,000 inhabitants. Its manufactures are important, especially its black silks and velvets, and recently its commerce has been flourishing. Antwerp in the eleventh century was a small republic. The spirit of its inhabitants raised it to the rank of the first commercial city in Europe. In 1585 it was taken by the Prince of Parma, after a long and memorable siege, and the exactions of Spain drove its trade to Amsterdam. In the beginning of the seventeenth century, the Schelde, on which it is situated, was crowded with vessels; but its harbor was closed by the peace of Westphalia in 1648. This completed the ruin which the siege under the Prince of Parma commenced. When Napoleon declared the Austrian Netherlands free, he prevented the revival of its commerce by making Antwerp a military depot. In 1814, Carnot gallantly defended the city against the English and Saxons. In 1832, the Dutch garrison under General Chassé, held out for a long time against the French and Belgians under Marechal Gerard, but the latter were victorious. Rubens was a native of Antwerp, and here are preserved his finest paintings, as well as many masterpieces of Vandyck and other Flemish painters. Ghent (Gend) the capital of East Flanders, is a handsome city of 103,729 inhabitants, and the seat of thriving manufactures. Its origin dates to the fifth century. Here the third son of Edward III. of England was born, and hence called John of Gaunt. Here also Charles V. of Spain was born. The woolen manufacture was early established here. With wealth and freedom the men of Ghent waxed turbulent, and led on first by Jacques van Artevelde, and afterward by his son Philip, they gave many a proof of their sturdy valor and their strong purses in brunts with the counts of Flanders and the dukes of Burgundy. Its population was once greater than now. Pa-

cification of Ghent, signed Nov. 8th, 1576. Peace concluded here between Great Britain and the United States, Dec. 24th, 1814. Liege, on the Maas, has 76,500 inhabitants. Its staple manufacture is that of fire-arms, and it owes its prosperity to the valuable coal fields adjacent. On account of the number of its churches and convents, it was once termed "the paradise of priests, the purgatory of men, and the hell of women." Bruges, the capital of West Flanders, has a population of 49,457. It was to commemorate the high perfection which the woolen manufacture had reached in Bruges, that Philip the Good in 1430 instituted the order of the Golden Fleece. While under the dominion of the dukes of Burgundy, Bruges became a principal emporium of the commerce of Europe, the great centre of the English wool trade, and the connecting link between the Hanseatic league and the rich republics of Italy. Then it had a population of 200,000. Bruges was famous for its carillons, or chimes, as early as 1300. They are the finest in Europe, and are played by machinery every quarter-hour.

BELGRADE ('white city'), an important commercial city of Servia, with 50,000 inhabitants, situated at the confluence of the Save with the Danube. It is well fortified, commanding the Danube, and is at present occupied by a Turkish garrison. It has been an object for the attainment of which the hostile nations have struggled during the various wars between Austria and Turkey. At different times it has been possessed by Greeks, Hungarians, Bulgarians, Bosnians, Servians, and Austrians. The Turks besieged the city in 1456, and a battle was fought between the German and Turkish armies, in which the latter was defeated with the loss of 40,000 men. Belgrade was taken by Solyman, 1522, and retaken by the Imperialists in 1688, from whom it again reverted to the Turks in 1690. A siege of it was undertaken in May, 1717, under Prince Eugene. On Aug. 5th of that year, the Turkish army, 200,000 strong, approached to relieve it, and a sanguinary battle was fought, in which the Turks lost 20,000 men; after this battle Belgrade surrendered. It was held by Austria till 1789, when it was ceded to the Turks, after its fine fortifications had been demolished. It was again taken in 1789, and restored at the peace of Reichen-

bach, in 1790. The Servian insurgents had possession of it in 1806.

BELISARIUS, general of the armies of the Emperor Justinian. He defeated a superior force of Persians, in the year 530, and in the year after he took Carthage, made prisoner Gelimer, king of the Vandals, and entered Constantinople in triumph. He was next sent against the Goths in Italy, and arriving on the coasts of Sicily, took Catania, Syracuse, Palermo, and other places. He then proceeded to Naples, which he took, and marched to Rome. After this he conquered Vitiges, king of the Goths, sent him to Constantinople, and refused the crown which was offered him by the Goths. For his exploits he was regarded as the savior of the empire, and medals are extant with this inscription, *Belisarius Gloria Romanorum*, 'Belisarius, the glory of the Romans.' Having fallen under suspicion of Justinian, he was deprived of his property and honors, but there is reason to believe that he was subsequently restored to them. Marmontel in his romance, adopts a story which is related by no contemporary historian; that Belisarius was deprived of his eyes by his cruel master, and forced to beg his bread in the streets of Constantinople. Others say that he was imprisoned in a tower, whence he used to let down a bag by a rope, addressing the passengers in the following words: "Give an obolus to Belisarius, whom virtue exalted, but envy crushed." He died in 565.

BELKNAP, JEREMY, an American clergyman, born in June, 1744, educated at Harvard College, and ordained pastor of the church in Dover, N. H., 1767. For some years previous to his death, which took place in 1798, he officiated in a church in Boston. He was an easy and correct writer, and his reputation rests on his "History of New Hampshire," and two volumes of his unfinished "American Biography." He was one of the founders of the Massachusetts Historical Society.

BELL, Sir CHARLES, an eminent surgeon, born at Edinburgh, 1774, died in 1842. He made important discoveries respecting the spinal marrow and the nerves.

BELLAMY, JOSEPH, D.D., an eminent Congregational minister in Bethlem, Conn. He died in 1790, at the age of seventy-one.

BELLINGHAM, RICHARD, deputy-governor and governor of Massachusetts colony for

twenty-three years, came to America in 1634, and died in 1672, aged eighty. He somewhat shocked the old Puritans by marrying for his second wife a lady affianced to another, performing the ceremony himself without license.

BELLINI, VINCENTIO, was born at Catania in Sicily in 1806. He received his musical education from Zingerelli in the *conservatorio* of Naples, and produced, at the theatre San Carlo, in that city, his opera "Bianco e Ferdinando," before he was twenty years old. He died of consumption in 1835 at Paris. During his brief life he composed a number of operas, the most of which are yet highly popular: "Il Pirata," "La Straniera," "La Sonnambula," "I Capuletti ed i Montecchi," "Norma," "I Puritani," &c.

BELLOT, Lieut., a young officer of promise in the French navy, who volunteered in an expedition dispatched by Lady Franklin to search for her husband Sir John, in 1851. He was of much service, and on his return at once entered upon a second task of the same nature. On the 21st of August, 1852, while bearing dispatches to Sir Edward Belcher across the ice, he was overtaken by a storm, borne by a floe out to sea, and drowned. A monument to his memory stands in the yard of Greenwich Hospital.

BELLS were used among the Jews, Greeks, and heathen. The responses of the Dodonean oracle were in part conveyed by bells. Pliny tells us that the monument of Porsenna was decorated by pinnacles, each surmounted by bells. They were introduced by Paulinus, Bishop of Nola, in Campagna, about 400; first known in France, 550; first used in the Greek empire, 864; were introduced into monasteries in the seventh or eighth century. Pope Stephen III. placed three bells in a tower on St. Peter's at Rome. In the churches of Europe they were introduced in 900, and about this time they were used, by order of Pope John IX., as a defense, by ringing them, against thunder and lightning. They were first introduced into Switzerland 1020. The first tunable set in England were hung up in Croyland Abbey, in Lincolnshire, 960; baptized in churches, 1020. Bells of the church of Notre Dame at Paris baptized and received the names of Duke and Duchess d'Angouleme, the Prince de Foix and Duchess de Damas being proxies, Nov. 15th, 1816.

BELOOCHISTAN extends along the coast of the Indian Ocean from the Indus nearly to the Persian Gulf, comprising about 200,000 square miles. It is a rough region, and some of the mountains are of great height. The heat of summer is intense, and water scarce. The desert of Beloochistan is three hundred miles long, and two hundred broad. Among the minerals of this country, are gold, silver, lead, iron, copper, tin, alun, saltpetre, sulphur, rock salt, &c. Cotton, indigo, grain, assafetida, and madder are productions of the soil. The natives are divided into three tribes, the Belooches, the Dewars, and Brahmoes. They are Mohammedans, warlike, half-civilized, and pastoral in their habits. Kelat is a place of considerable strength, and has about 20,000 inhabitants. The Khan of Kelat has only a nominal authority over the country.

BELZONI, JOHN BAPTIST, was born at Padua, and educated at Rome, being destined for a monastic life. Having a taste, however, for an active life, he served in the French armies, and went to England in 1803. Here his finances were probably at a low ebb, for he was reduced to exhibit postures at Astley's. From London he afterward went, with his wife, to Egypt, passing through Portugal, Spain, and Malta. Here he succeeded in opening the pyramid of Cheops, which had defied the ingenuity and efforts of the French, that of Cephrenes, and several catacombs near Thebes, one of which is believed to have been the burial place of Psammis, who died 400 B.C. He exhibited great accuracy and skill in the drawings which he took. In 1816, he accomplished an undertaking of great difficulty, the removal of the enormous bust of Jupiter Memnon, and a sarcophagus of alabaster, from Thebes to Alexandria, whence they were shipped for England. On the 1st of August, 1817, he opened the temple of Ipsambul, near the second cataract of the Nile, discovering a subterranean chapel in its ruins. He discovered the ruins of the ancient Berenice, four day's journey from the spot where Cailliaud asserted that he had found it. Belzoni died on his way to Timbuctoo, Dec. 3d. 1823, at the age of forty-five. In person he was tall and well-proportioned, and his gigantic stature protected him from attack, even when alone amidst ferocious barbarians. His

BEL

wife, who accompanied him to Egypt, displayed great intrepidity amidst the dangers which they encountered.

BEM, JOSEPH, was a native of Galicia, and born in 1795. Bred to arms, he entered the army of Napoleon, and served in the divisions of Davoust and Macdonald, and, after peace was concluded, was for a while an officer in the Russian service. During the Polish revolution he commanded the artillery. At Ostrolenka he was wounded, but as he lay upon the ground, he directed the movements of his guns. When the cause of Poland was lost, he sought refuge in France, and there and in England tasted the bitter bread of poverty and exile. Upon the breaking out of the revolutions of 1848, he drew his sword in aid of the Hungarians, and as a general in their army brilliantly combated the Austrians. When Austria and Russia triumphed, Bem fled to Turkey, where he embraced Islamism, and entered the Turkish army under the name of Murad Bey. He died at Aleppo in December, 1850.

BENAVIDES, an outlaw and pirate, whose singular perseverance and ferocity rendered him for many years the terror of the southern parts of Chili. Under pretext of establishing a navy, he seized upon English and American vessels that stopped for refreshment near the town of Arauco, the centre of his operations. In 1821, the Chilians fitted out an expedition, and succeeded in breaking up his stronghold, and capturing him. He was condemned and executed, February 23d, 1822. In the early part of his career, he espoused the cause of the Chilians against Spain, but soon deserted them, and having been taken prisoner in the battle of Mapu, 1818, he was sentenced to be shot, and actually sustained the fire of a file of soldiery. He was covered with wounds and believed to be dead, but had his senses left when he was dragged to the field where the bodies of criminals were exposed. Here a man who had owed him a grudge, smote the supposed corpse with a sword, and such were the powers of endurance possessed by Benavides, that he did not flinch in the least, or give the slightest sign of vitality, or of the agony he suffered. As soon as it was dark, he crawled away to the house of a friend, and had his wounds dressed. His bravery and fortitude would have honored a better cause.

BENBOW, JOHN, an English admiral, born in 1650. His gallantry in repelling the attack of a Barbary corsair, when in the merchant service, procured him the command of a ship of war, from James II. Being sent by William III. to the West Indies, he relieved the colonies, and in a subsequent engagement with the French fleet, off Carthage, Aug. 19th, 1702, a chain-shot carried off one of his legs. He was carried below, but, as soon as his wound was dressed, brought on deck again, and persisted in continuing the action. He was abandoned at this moment, through the cowardice of several captains under his command, who signed a paper expressing their opinion that nothing more could be done, and the whole fleet of the enemy was suffered to escape. Shortly after Benbow's arrival at Jamaica, where he died of his wounds and chagrin in the following October, he received a note from the French admiral, of which the following is a literal translation:

"Carthage, Aug. 22d, 1702.

"SIR: I had little hopes, on Monday last, but to have supped in your cabin: yet it pleased God to order it otherwise. I am thankful for it. As for those cowardly captains who deserted you, hang them up, for by G-d they deserve it. "DU CASSE."

Two of the cowardly captains were tried and shot upon their return to England.

BENEDICT, the name of several popes. Of these, Benedict XIV. (Prosper Lambertini) was the most noted. When, on the death of Clement XII., in 1740, the conclave was divided, and the cardinals could not agree, Lambertini said, in his good-natured way, "If you want a saint, take Gotti; if a politician, Aldobrandi; if a good old man, take me." The humorous manner in which this quaint speech was delivered, operated like magic, and Lambertini became sovereign pontiff. He reformed abuses, introduced good regulations, cultivated letters, encouraged men of learning, and was a patron of the fine arts. He died May 3d, 1758.

BENEDICT, St. (480-543), founded the first religious order of the west. Besides performing religious duties, the monks of his order gave instructions to youth, in reading, writing, ciphering, religion, and manual labors, including all the mechanic arts. Benedict caused the aged monks to copy manu-

scripts, and thus many literary works of great importance were preserved from ruin. From the sixth to the tenth century, almost all the monks in the west were Benedictines. The rules of the order were severe. At an early period the dress of the brethren of the different monasteries varied, but after the sixth century, when union was enjoined, the monks of this order all wore black. The Cluniacs were a branch of the Benedictines, proceeding from the convent of Clugny in Burgundy, founded in 910. Their regulations were at first strict, but in the twelfth century, when the order had two thousand monasteries, they declined, from the excess of their luxury.

BENEZET, ANTHONY, was born at St. Quentin, in France, January, 1713. His parents were opulent, and his descent noble. The confiscation of his father's estates, in consequence of his having joined the Protestants, in 1715, drove the family to England, where Anthony was educated. Of his early life little is known, but he was fourteen years of age when he joined the society of Friends. In 1731, he came to Philadelphia in company with his parents. His first employment was that of instructor in a school at Germantown. About 1750, being struck with the enormities of the slave-trade, he determined to employ all his energies in bettering the condition of the blacks. He established an evening school for them in Philadelphia, and taught them gratuitously. On the subject of negro slavery he published numerous short essays in almanacs and newspapers, which he circulated with unwearied assiduity. He printed and distributed at his own expense, many valuable tracts. The circulation of these was not confined to America; in Europe they procured Benezet the notice and correspondence of many eminent men. He undoubtedly gave the first impulse to the measures which resulted in the abolition of the slave-trade in the United States. His philanthropy was unbounded; the whole human race were his brethren. The wrongs inflicted on the aborigines of North America, excited his strong sympathy about the year 1763, and his efforts in their behalf excited the warmest admiration in all high-minded observers of his course. In 1780, he wrote and published a "Short Account of the Religious Society of Friends, commonly called Quakers," and in 1782, "A Dissertation on

the Plainness and Innocent Simplicity of the Christian Religion." He also published and circulated several tracts against the use of ardent spirits. In the spring of 1784, he was taken ill; after his case was pronounced hopeless, he conversed intelligently with hundreds who came to see him. He died on the 5th of May, at Philadelphia, extensively known and beloved. His naturally strong understanding was improved by extensive reading. His private habits endeared him to his friends, and his small estate was devoted to the furtherance of his benevolent purposes.

BENNINGTON, a town in Vermont. Here a battle was fought, Aug. 16th, 1777, between a detachment of Burgoyne's army, under Lieut.-Col. Baum, and a body of American militia commanded by Gen. Stark. Baum was mortally wounded. Seven hundred of the enemy were captured, and two hundred and seven killed. The loss of the Americans was about one hundred dead, and as many wounded. A good quantity of arms and ammunition fell into the hands of the victors.

BENTHAM, JEREMY, an English philosopher upon jurisprudence and morals, born Feb. 6th, 1749. He was entered of Queen's College, Oxford, when only twelve years of age, and was even then known by the name of 'the philosopher.' He attained the ripe age of eighty-four. This eccentric man, who made utility the basis of his philosophy, bequeathed his body to the dissectors, in order to benefit the science of anatomy.

BENTLEY, RICHARD, a celebrated English divine and classical scholar, was born in 1662. His father was a blacksmith, and he received his earliest instruction from his mother, a woman of much talent. He entered St. John's College, Cambridge, at the age of fourteen. He was victorious in a controversy with the Hon. Charles Boyle, afterward Earl of Orrery, relating to the genuineness of the Epistles of Phalaris. Bentley was opposed by a host of wits, Pope, Swift, Garth, Atterbury, Conyers, Middleton, &c., but he satisfactorily proved that the Epistles were not the production of the tyrant of Agrigentum, who lived more than five centuries B.C.; but of some late sophists, who borrowed the name of Phalaris. The tyrant Phalaris had a hollow brazen bull, in which, when hot, he used to place those who were unfortunate enough

to displease him, and whose cries were thus made to resemble the roarings of the animal. Conyers Middleton, whose enmity to Bentley arose from the epithet of fiddling Conyers, applied to him while an university student, was suspected of being the author of a punning caricature representing Bentley on the point of being thrust into the brazen bull of Phalaris, and exclaiming, "I had rather be roasted than Boyled." Bentley was presented by the crown to the mastership of Trinity College, Cambridge, worth nearly £1,000 a year; and, in 1701, he was called to the archdeaconry of Ely. Among the accusations brought against him, as head of the college, he was accused of embezzling money, a charge which occasioned a lawsuit that was terminated in the doctor's favor near twenty years afterward. He was appointed Regius professor of divinity at Cambridge, in 1716. In 1726, he published his edition of Terence and Phædrus, his notes to which brought on a dispute with Bishop Hare, on the metres of Terence, when Sir Isaac Newton observed that "two dignified clergymen, instead of minding their duty, had fallen out about a play-book." Bentley's edition of "Paradise Lost," with conjectural emendations, his last work, was a decided failure. He died, July 14th, 1742.

BENYOWSKY, MAURICE AUGUSTES, Count of, was born in 1741, at Werbowa, in Hungary. His father was a general, and he himself entered the Austrian service, and served as a lieutenant in the seven years' war till 1758. Having joined the Polish confederation against Russia, and served with the rank of colonel, commander of cavalry, and quartermaster-general, he was taken by the Russians in 1769, and sent to Kamtschatka. On his voyage thither, he saved the vessel during a storm, and thus, on his arrival, secured a favorable reception from the governor, Niloff, whose family he instructed in the French and German languages. In May, 1771, he escaped from Kamtschatka, accompanied by Aphanasia, the governor's daughter, and ninety-six other persons, sailing for Formosa, whence he departed for Macao. Here he lost many of his companions, and the faithful and unfortunate Aphanasia. Arrived in France, he was commissioned to found a colony in Madagascar, where he arrived in June, 1774. He was not long in gaining the

good will of the natives, who appointed him their king. He went to Europe to obtain recognition as an independent prince in Madagascar, but was forced by the persecution of the French ministry, to enter the Austrian service. In the battle of Habelschwerdt, 1778, he commanded against the Prussians. In 1784, receiving assistance from private persons in London and America, he set out for Madagascar, and arrived in 1785. Here he commenced hostilities against the French, and the authorities of the Isle of France sent a force against him; in contending against which he was wounded mortally, May 23d, 1786. The fate of Benyowsky's only son was singular: he is said to have been devoured by the rats of Madagascar.

BERANGER, PIERRE JEAN DE, was born in Paris, Aug. 19th, 1780. During the storm of the revolution he dwelt with an aunt at Peronne, and there became apprentice to a printer. This vocation led him to study, and he determined to be a poet, a vocation the adoption of which naturally included poverty. It was such extreme poverty that he thought of suicide. The kind aid of Lucien Bonaparte rescued him from this wretchedness. Beranger was a warm admirer of Napoleon, and deeply deplored his fall. The unequalled political songs of Beranger, for which at times he was incarcerated or mulcted, helped to make the Bourbons unpopular and bring on the overturn of 1830. One of his fines was paid by a national subscription opened by his friend Lafitte, the banker. "Beranger," said Benjamin Constant, "writes sublime odes when he imagines he is only composing simple songs." He enjoyed the friendship of Chateaubriand, Victor Hugo, Lamartine, and Dumas. Adversity visited Beranger late in life. His publisher failed, and he was menaced with losing the eighteen or twenty thousand francs he had in the bankrupt's hands, all he had in the world. Lafitte knew very well it would be lost time to persuade the poet to accept money. He sent for M. Hector Bossange, the well known publisher, and said to him, as he placed eighteen bank notes of a thousand francs in his hands, "Go and see Beranger, M. Bossange. Propose to him to become the publisher of his works for the next three years. Offer to take them at six thousand francs a year certain, and such a

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percentage on all sales over that amount, and give him these eighteen thousand francs. You will pay me when you clear thirty-six thousand francs yourself." M. Bossange called instantly on Beranger and made him these propositions. Beranger accepted them with delight, and expressed warm gratitude to M. Bossange. The latter, embarrassed at receiving thanks not his due, revealed the secret he had been charged to keep inviolate. Beranger's manner changed instantly, and he refused to take the money. Foiled in this way, Lafitte took the affairs of the ruined publisher in hand, and managed them so well that the creditors were paid in full, Beranger among the rest.

When the revolution to which the lyrics of Beranger had aided, happened in July, 1830, he did not salute it with any pæans. Nevertheless his popularity at this time was unbounded. On the stages of every theatre in France, his bust was crowned by the favorite actress. The orchestra would play his airs, and the audience would sing the words. He fled from all this boisterous popularity, and, what vexed him even more, the annoying visits of office seekers, anxious to procure his recommendation. The last years of his life were spent quietly in Paris, where he died, July 16th, 1857. He had published nothing since 1838. His decease caused all France to mourn. He was buried by the French government the day after his death, and great precautions were taken to avoid a popular outbreak at his funeral.

BERCHTOLD, LEOPOLD, Count, born in 1758. He was a distinguished philanthropist, and spent thirteen years in traveling through Europe, and four in Asia and Africa, to relieve the distresses of humanity. He died July 26th, 1809, on his estate at Buchlan in Moravia, where he had fitted up an hospital for sick and wounded Austrian soldiers.

BERESFORD, WILLIAM, Baron, Duke of Elvas, and Marquis of Campo Mayo, a distinguished British general. In 1810 he defeated Soult at Albuera. In 1812, having a command under Wellington, he shared in the dangers and glory of the battles of Vittoria, Bayonne, and Toulouse. He died in 1854, at the age of eighty-six.

BERESINA, a river in the west of Russia,

famous for the passage of the French army under Napoleon on the disastrous retreat from Moscow, Nov. 26th and 27th, 1812. The ice with which the morasses on both sides of the river were covered, was not strong enough to bear. The Russian army were threatening the fugitives, whose discipline was lost, and who, despairing of escaping by means of the two crowded bridges, trusted themselves to floating masses of ice and were lost. Seventy-five hundred men and five generals, according to the Russian account, were taken, and twice as many more lost their lives.

BERGHEM, NICHOLAS, a famous painter, born at Harlem in 1624, died in 1683. His landscapes and representations of animals are much valued. Once, when pursued by his father, he fled for safety to the workshop of Van Goyen, who shouted to his pupils, "*Berg hem*" (hide him); and this expression was adopted as his name.

BERKELEY, GEORGE, Bishop of Cloyne in Ireland, famous for his ideal theory, that there is nothing material, and that objects which are called sensible material objects, are not external, but only impressions made upon the mind by an act of God, according to certain laws of nature, which are invariable. Lord Byron says:

"When Bishop Berkeley said there was no matter,
And proved it, 'twas no matter what he said."

He was born at Kilerin, Ireland, 1684. In furtherance of his project for converting the American savages to Christianity, by the establishment of a college in the Bermuda Islands, he considerably impaired his fortune. He resided some time in Rhode Island. His estate at Newport he gave to Yale College, by which it is still held. Pope, who was much attached to him, says that he had "every virtue under heaven." It was when inspired by his transatlantic scheme that he penned those fine moral verses, the last stanza of which seems almost prophetic:

"Westward the course of empire takes its way;
The first four acts already past,
A fifth shall close the drama with the day;
Time's noblest offspring is the last."

He died in 1753, expiring without a groan or sigh in the midst of his family, just as he had concluded a commentary on that beautiful and consoling portion of Holy Writ, the

BER

fifteenth chapter of the first epistle to the Corinthians.

BERKELEY, WILLIAM, governor of Virginia under Charles I. and II. He was a hot royalist, and on the death of Matthews, whom Cromwell had made governor in his stead, being asked by the people to resume the executive, would only do so on condition that Charles II. should be proclaimed king. The consequences of this bold step might have been serious, had not Cromwell's death soon followed. During the latter part of Berkeley's term, the colony was convulsed by Bacon's rebellion, and the governor's severity caused Charles II. to complain that "the old fool shed more blood in that naked country than he had done for the murder of his father." Berkeley died in England in 1677.

BERLICHINGEN, GOETZ, or GODFREY VON, 'with the iron hand,' a brave and honorable knight of the middle ages, who headed the rebellious peasants of Bavaria, against their oppressors. Before this time, having lost his right hand, he had substituted one made of iron. He died July 23d, 1562.

BERLIN DECREE, a memorable interdiction launched by Napoleon against the commerce of England. It declared the British islands to be in a state of blockade, and all Englishmen found in countries occupied by French troops were to be treated as prisoners of war. The whole world, in fact, was to cease from any communication with Great Britain. It was issued from the palace at Berlin, Nov. 21st, 1806, shortly after the battle of Jena.

BERMUDAS, or SOMMERS' ISLANDS, a cluster of about three hundred small islands in the Atlantic. They were discovered by Juan Bermudas, a Spaniard, in 1522. In 1609, Sir George Sommers, an Englishman, who was wrecked here, founded the first settlement. Many are so unimportant as to have no name, but the principal islands are St. George, St. David, Cooper, Ireland, Somerses, Long Island, Bird Island, and Nonesuch. The air is healthy and invigorating to invalids, the winter being hardly apparent. The islands, however, are subject to frequent storms. The soil is generally rich and fertile. Ship-building is the principal occupation of the islanders. The whole shore is surrounded by rocks, dry at low water, but covered at

high tide. The Bermudas lie about five hundred and thirty miles easterly from Cape Hatteras. They are a British colony, and have a population of 14,000. A small convict station is maintained here. During the wars between parliament and the crown, many Englishmen of character and opulence sought refuge in the "still vexed Bermoothes;" among others the poet Waller, who sang of their beauty in "The Battle of the Summer Islands."

BERNADOTTE, CHARLES JOHN, was born 1764. From a sergenty in the French army he rose under Napoleon to the rank of marshal of the empire and Prince of Ponte Corvo. In 1810 he was chosen crown-prince of Sweden. Sweden joined the allies against France, and Bernadotte led her forces against his former master. He defeated Ney at Dennewitz in 1813. In 1818 he ascended the Swedish throne, whereon he reigned till his death in 1844. He was succeeded by his son Oscar. Bernadotte had a singular aversion to dogs, and could not bear the smell of tobacco.

BERNARD, St., Abbot of Clairvaux, born of noble family at Fontaines, in Burgundy, 1091. He was austere, eloquent, and bold, and had the reputation of being a prophet. He was called a honeyed teacher. Bernard was the principal promoter of the crusade of 1146. Luther says of him, "If there ever has been a pious monk who feared God, it was St. Bernard; whom I hold in much higher esteem than I do all other monks and priests throughout the globe." Bernard died in 1153, and was canonized in 1174.

BERNARD, GREAT ST., a mountain of the Alps, 11,006 feet high, between the Swiss Valais and the valley of Aosta, in Piedmont. The two hospices, on the Great and Little St. Bernard were built by Bernard de Menthon, a pious Savoyard nobleman, in 962. They were under the care of Augustine monks, indefatigable in the discharge of their hospitality to wayfarers. The monks were assisted in their search for lost travelers, by great dogs, of whom many interesting tales are told. Owing to the severity of the weather, the dead bodies in the vault decayed so slowly, that their features were frequently recognized by friends, after the lapse of years. The monastery of Great St.

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Bernard is the most elevated fixed habitation in Europe, and close upon the limits of perpetual snow. After the revolution of 1847 in Switzerland, the monks were expelled from these hospices, and they are now managed by the government. It was by the pass of the Great St. Bernard that Hannibal crossed the Alps, and that Napoleon led his troops to the plains of Lombardy and the contest of Marengo. Charlemagne and Barbarossa also led armies over the Alps by this pass. In the chapel of the hospice of Great St. Bernard, is the monument of General Desaix, who fell at Marengo. He was embalmed by order of the first consul. The sculptor has represented the warrior wounded, and sinking from his horse into the arms of his aid. On the stairs of the convent stands the statue of Desaix in marble.

BERNINI, GIOVANNI LORENZO, born at Naples, in 1598. He has been called another Michael Angelo, on account of his success as a painter, statuary, and architect. He was patronized by several popes, and died, exhausted by his labors, November 28th, 1680. He left a fortune of about 3,300,000 francs to his children. So early did his talents shine forth, that at the age of eight years, he executed the head of a child in marble, which was thought a fine production. He was not eighteen years old when he completed his "Apollo and Daphne," a work which he examined at the close of life, and declared that he had made little progress since that time. So true it is that genuine enthusiasm often supplies the place of experience.

BERRI, CHARLES FERDINAND, Duke of, second son of Charles X. of France, born at Versailles, Jan. 24th, 1778. He fled from the revolutionary tempest, but was actively engaged in the scenes at Paris, in 1814, on the return of the Bourbons, and vainly endeavored to secure the fidelity of the troops in and about Paris, when Napoleon returned from Elba. He was assassinated in 1820, by Louvel, who had long sought to extirpate the house of Bourbon, and met his death with great firmness. He was father of the Duke of Bordeaux, one of the claimants of the French crown.

BERRY, MARY, died in 1854, at the advanced age of almost ninety. She and her sister, whose death preceded hers by eighteen

months, were known in the literary circles of London, from the time of Dr. Johnson to that of Macaulay. They had read Miss Burney's "Evelina" when fresh from the press, and lived to weep in sympathy with the world over Dickens's pathetic story of Little Nell. The two sisters were left, with their father, the literary executors of Horace Walpole. Both of them had received the offer of the hand of that male gossip. Both had rejected it.

BERSERKER, in Scandinavian mythology, a descendant of the eight-handed Starkader and the beautiful Alfhide. Disdaining the protection of mail in battle, he obtained his name, which signifies 'the armorless.' In battle, his rage was ungovernable. He married the daughter of Swafurlam, whom he had slain, and had twelve sons who equaled him in fierceness.

BERTHIER, ALEXANDER, Prince of Neuchatel and Wagram, marshal, vice-constable of France, &c., born at Paris, 1753. At an early age, he served under La Fayette, in America. He was a great favorite of Napoleon, under whom he acted as chief of his staff, assisting in those great victories which made France master of Italy, Germany, and Prussia. At the downfall of Napoleon in 1814, Berthier professed allegiance to the Bourbons, showing more zeal for them than became the favored friend and well paid servant of the fallen emperor. When Napoleon returned from Elba, Berthier left France with the Bourbon princes, and soon ended his life by suicide.

BERTHOLLET, CLAUDE LOUIS, born in Savoy, December 9th, 1748, died at Paris, November 6th, 1822, one of the most illustrious of chemists. He wrote a valuable work on dyeing, was the first to use in bleaching the decolorizing properties of chlorine gas, and discovered the chlorate of potash, a salt which not only, as an indispensable ingredient in the lucifer match, administers to the convenience of every one, but enables many a shivering outcast to supply his daily wants. He was aided by the friendship of Napoleon. Upon the restoration he fell into reduced circumstances.

BERTRAND, HENRI GRATIEN, count, general of division, aid-de-camp of Napoleon,

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grand marshal of the palace, &c. He early distinguished himself in the engineer corps. He served near the person of Napoleon, particularly at Austerlitz, where he was the emperor's aid-de-camp. He and his family shared the last residence of Napoleon, after his fall. He died in 1844, aged seventy-four.

BERWICK, JAMES FITZ-JAMES, Duke of, was born in 1670. He distinguished himself as a general in the Bourbon cause in Spain, where he won the battle of Almansa, and captured Barcelona, after a resistance, by the citizens, of fifteen months. He was a natural son of James II. of England, nephew of the great Marlborough, and a marshal of France. He was killed at Phillipsburg, 1734.

BESSIERES, JOHN BAPTIST, Duke of Istria, one of Napoleon's generals, marshal of France, born Aug. 6th, 1768, killed at Rippach, May 1st, 1813.

BEZA, THEODORE, after Calvin, the most distinguished among the Calvinistic preachers of the sixteenth century, born in 1519. At the age of twenty, he published his Latin poems, collected under the title of "Juvenilia," a work of which he was afterward ashamed. At an early age he was dissipated, but reformed by marriage, and a dangerous illness. He distinguished himself in the service of the reformed church, and, in 1564, became Calvin's successor. Vain were the efforts of his adversaries to gain an advantage over him. His truth and wit were a splendid defense, and at the age of seventy-eight years, his intellectual faculties appeared as clear as ever. The pope made him brilliant offers, but he nobly rejected them. He died Oct. 13th, 1605, of old age. He was a great Greek scholar, and his edition of the New Testament was taken as the basis of the English version.

BIBLE. The first translation of the Old Testament from the Hebrew into the Greek was made by seventy-two interpreters, by order of Ptolemy Philadelphus, at Alexandria, 277 B.C., or according to others 284 B.C. From the number of translators this is called the Septuagint. The oldest version of the Old and New Testaments is that in the Vatican, which was written in the fourth or fifth century. The next in age is the Alexandrian MS. in the British Museum, presented by the Greek patriarch to Charles I., said to have been copied about the same time. The Old

Testament was divided into twenty-two books by the Jews, according to the number of letters in the Hebrew alphabet. The Christians divided it into thirty-nine. The Hebrew division into chapters was made by the Rabbi Nathan, about 1445. Our Bible was divided into chapters, and partly into verses, by Archbishop Langton, who died 1228; and the latter division was perfected by Robert Stephens, the eminent French printer, about 1534. The following are curious computations:

<i>In the Old Testament.</i>	<i>In the New.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
Books,	39	27
Chapters,	929	260
Verses,	23,214	7,959
Words,	592,493	181,253
Letters,	2,728,100	838,380
		3,566,480

The Apocrypha has 183 chapters, 6,081 verses, and 125,185 words. The middle chapter, and the least in the Bible, is the 117th Psalm; the middle verse is the 8th of the 118th Psalm; the middle line is the 2d book of the Chronicles, 4th chapter, and 15th verse. The word 'and' occurs in the Old Testament 35,535 times; the same word in the New Testament occurs 10,684 times; the word 'Jehovah' occurs in the Old Testament 6,855 times. The middle book of the Old Testament is Proverbs; the middle chapter is the 29th of Job; the middle verse is in the 2d book of Chronicles, 20th chapter and 13th verse; the least verse is the 1st book of Chronicles, 1st chapter, and 1st verse. The middle book of the New Testament is the second epistle to the Thessalonians; the middle chapter is between the 13th and 14th of the Romans; the middle verse is the 17th of the 17th chapter of the Acts; the least verse is the 35th verse of the 11th chapter of the Gospel by St. John. The 21st verse of the 7th chapter of Ezra has all the letters of the alphabet in it. The 19th chapter of the 2d book of Kings, and the 37th chapter of Isaiah, are alike. The book of Esther has 10 chapters, but neither the words Lord nor God in it.

The Bible was translated into Saxon in 939. The Vulgate version in Latin was made by St. Jerome, and is that acknowledged by the Roman Catholic church as authentic: it was first printed in 1462. In 1604, a great conference was held at Hampton Court, between

the established and the puritan clergy. The existing English version was condemned. James I. therefore appointed fifty-four men, many of whom were eminent as Hebrew and Greek scholars, to commence a new translation. In 1607, forty-seven of these met, in six parties, at Oxford, Cambridge, and Westminster, and proceeded to their task, a certain portion of Scripture being assigned to each. Every individual of each division, in the first place, translated the portion given to the division, all of which translations were collated; and when each party had determined on the construction of its part, it was proposed to the other divisions for their examination. When they met together one read the new version, whilst all the rest held in their hands either copies of the original, or some valuable version, and on any one objecting to a passage the reader stopped till it was agreed upon. The result, known as King James's version, was published in 1611, and is that still in use throughout Great Britain and the United States. It is an excellent specimen of the language of the time, and being universally read by all classes of the people, it has contributed most essentially to give stability and uniformity to the English tongue. Martin Luther's translation of the Bible made the dialect of Upper Saxony the language of all Germany. The Holland tongue or Low Dutch, as now spoken, has for its basis the German language in use before this time.

The Bible was printed in Spanish, 1478; in German, 1522; in French, 1535; in Swedish, 1541; in Danish, 1550; in Dutch, 1560; in Russian, 1581; in Hungarian, 1589; in Polish, 1596; in modern Greek, 1638; in Turkish, 1666; in Irish, 1685; in Portuguese, 1748; in Manx, 1771; in Italian, 1776; in Bengalee, 1801; in Tartar, 1813; in Persian, 1815; in African, 1816; in Chinese, 1820. A polyglot Bible, edited by Walton, Bishop of Chester, in the Hebrew, Syriac, Chaldee, Samaritan, Arabic, Ethiopic, Persic, Greek and Latin languages, was printed in 1657. The books known as the Apocrypha, in an old preface to which it is said, "These books are neyther found in the Hebrue nor in the Chalde," were not in the Jewish canon, but were received as canonical by the Romish church at the council of Trent in 1545.

We present a succinet sketch of the history

of our English Bible. The English version of the Scriptures now in use, is itself the result of repeated revisions. In the preface to the Bishop's Bible (A.D. 1568) a distinct reference is made to early Saxon versions, and there are still extant, parts of the Bible in Saxon, translated by Bede, by Alfred the Great, and by Ælfrie of Canterbury. Early Saxon MSS. of the Gospels are still preserved in the libraries of the British Museum, and Corpus Christi College, Cambridge. The first complete translation of the Bible was made by Wicliffe, about A.D. 1380. It existed only in manuscript for many years, but the whole is now in print (New Testament 1731; Old Testament, 1848). The work was regarded with grave suspicion; and a bill was introduced into the House of Lords for suppressing it; but through the influence of John of Gaunt, this was rejected. In 1408, however, in a convocation held at Oxford, it was resolved that no one should translate any text of Scripture into English, as a book or tract, and that no book of the kind should be read. This resolution led to great persecution, though there is reason to believe, that notwithstanding, many manuscripts of Scripture were at that time in extensive circulation throughout England. The first printed edition of the Bible in English, was published by Tyndale, the New Testament in 1526, and the Bible in part, in 1532. Tonstall, Bishop of London, and Sir Thomas More took great pains to buy up and burn the impression, but with the effect thereby, of enabling the translator to publish a larger and improved edition. On the death of Tyndale (who died a martyr to the truth), Miles Coverdale revised the whole, and dedicated it to Henry VIII., 1535, and in 1537, John Rogers, who had assisted Tyndale, and was then residing at Antwerp, reprinted an edition, taken from Tyndale and Coverdale. This edition was published under the assumed name of Thomas Matthews. A revision of this edition again was published (A.D. 1539) by Richard Taverner. The Great Bible appeared in 1539. It was Coverdale's, revised by the translator, under the sanction of Cranmer. It was printed in large folio. For the edition of 1540, Cranmer wrote a preface, and it is hence called Cranmer's Bible. It was published "by authority," and was ordered in 1549 to be read in the churches.



READING THE BIBLE TO THE PEOPLE.

During the seven years of the reign of Edward VI., eleven editions of the Scriptures were printed: but no new version or revision was attempted. During the reign of Mary, was published the Geneva Bible, A.D. 1557-60. Coverdale and others who had taken refuge in Geneva, edited it, and added marginal annotations. Archbishop Parker obtained authority from Queen Elizabeth, to revise the existing translations, and with the help of various bishops and others, published in 1568 what was called the Bishops' Bible. It contains short annotations, and in the smaller editions (from 1589) the text is divided, like the Genevan, into verses. The same text was afterward printed, in 1572, in a larger size, and with various prefaces, under the name of Matthew Parker's Bible. It continued in common use in the churches for forty years, though the Genevan Bible was perhaps more read in private. The Rhemish New Testament, and the Douay Old Testament, form the English Bible of the Romanists. The former was printed at Rheims (A.D. 1582),

and the latter at Douay (A.D. 1609-10). In 1603, King James resolved on a revision of the translation, and for this purpose appointed fifty-four men of learning and piety. Forty-seven only undertook the work, and in four years (from 1607-11) it was completed. The text as thus prepared and printed in 1611, is the authorized version.

The first Bible printed on the continent of America was in native Indian; the New Testament in 1661, and the Old in 1663; both translated by Rev. John Eliot, and printed at Cambridge, Mass. As the title records, it was "translated into the Indian language, and ordered to be printed by the Commissioners of the United Colonies in New England, at the charge and with the consent of the Corporation in England for the Propagation of the Gospel among the Indians in New England." Printed by Samuel Green and Marmaduke Johnston. In the emphatic words of Dr. Cotton Mather, this was then "the only Bible that ever was printed in all America from the very foundation of all the world."

The second was in German, a quarto edition published at Germantown near Philadelphia, by Christopher Sower, in 1676. The first edition in English was printed by Kneeland and Green, at Boston in 1752, in small quarto. It was published by Henchman, a bookseller; but to avoid prosecution from those who had a royal patent, the title-page of the English copy, London imprint and all, was reprinted. The next edition was issued by Robert Aitken, of Philadelphia, in 1781-2. He sent a memorial to Congress, praying for their patronage. His memorial was referred to a committee, who obtained the opinion of the chaplains of Congress as to the general typographical accuracy of his impression; and thereupon a resolution was passed Sept. 12th, 1782, recommending this edition of the Bible to the people of the United States.

BIDDLE, JAMES, commodore in the navy of the United States, was born in Philadelphia in 1783. He distinguished himself in the war of 1812, and was an officer on the Wasp when she took the British brig Frolic. March 23d, 1815, Biddle, then in command of the sloop Hornet, met with the British brig-of-war Penguin, off Tristan d'Acumha, and captured her after an action of only twenty-two minutes. He served as a diplomatist, and signed the commercial treaty with Turkey in 1832. In 1845 he was *interim* commissioner to China in the place of A. H. Everett. He died in 1848.

BIDDLE, NICHOLAS, captain in the United States navy, was born at Philadelphia in 1750, and was a midshipman in the British service. He served in the infant navy of his country during the war for independence, and was very successful, till March 7th, 1778, when, in action in the West Indies with the *Yarmouth*, the *Randolph*, which he commanded, blew up. His crew numbered three hundred and fifteen. But four escaped, and Capt. Biddle was among the lost.

BIDDLE, NICHOLAS, an eminent financier, was born in Philadelphia, Jan. 8th, 1786. His father was a strong patriot during the Revolution. Nicholas graduated at Princeton College in 1801 with high honor, studied law, and accompanied Gen. Armstrong, minister to France, as private secretary in 1804, and was afterward secretary to Mr. Monroe at the court of St. James. Returning from foreign

travel, he commenced practice at Philadelphia in 1807, and also engaged in literary occupations, preparing the account of Lewis and Clarke's expedition to the Pacific shore. In 1823 he was chosen president of the United States Bank, and was active in defense of that institution against the hot war that was waged upon it. After its bankruptcy, he retired in 1839 to his estate of Andalusia, on the Delaware near Philadelphia, where he died in 1844.

BIEVRE, Marquis de, marshal, born in 1747, died in 1789. He was much celebrated for ready repartees and puns. When presented to Louis XV., the following dialogue took place. *Louis.* Give me a specimen of your wit. *B.* Give me a subject, sire. *Louis.* Take me. *B.* Sire, the king is no subject.

BINGEN; a town in Hesse Darmstadt, on the left bank of the Rhine; population, 5,000. In its vicinity is the famous Mouse Tower, connected with which is the following tale. In a time of great famine, Bishop Hatto played the usurer, to the distress and ruin of many poor people. For this he is said to have met a dreadful punishment. Thousands on thousands of mice pouring into his dwelling, compelled him to seek refuge in his tower on the Rhine. But here he enjoyed but a brief interval of rest. The army of mice swam the river, sealed the rocky precipice, and leaped into the tower, at every cranny, grate, and loop-hole. The bishop attempted to pray, but his utterance failed; he listened to the noise of the mice as they swiftly approached his turret-chamber. At length they gained an entrance, and devoured the prelate, tearing the flesh from his bones, and leaving him a mere skeleton.

BIRD, WILLIAM, 1540-1623, an admired English musician, the composer of the great canon, "Non Nobis Domine."

BIREN, ERNST JOHN VON, Duke of Courland, born 1687, died 1772. He is said to have been the son of Buhren, a peasant of Courland. He gained the favor of Anna, Duchess of Courland, afterward Empress of Russia, by his beauty and accomplishments, and when his mistress was raised to the throne, was not forgotten by her. While in power, he was fierce, resentful, and ambitious, and caused the death of thousands. After the death of Anna, a conspiracy was formed against him, and he was banished to

Siberia. But he was recalled on the accession of Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the Great, to the throne. After another exile of twenty-five years, he was again recalled by Peter III., and, during the reign of Catherine II., continued to enjoy the royal favor until his death.

BIRMA, or the Birman empire, extends over more than a fourth of the peninsula beyond the Ganges, having an area of about 184,000 square miles, and a population of four millions. The Birmans of Ava made themselves independent of Pegu, in the sixteenth century, but were reconquered in the eighteenth. The spirit of independence, however, was abroad, and Alompra, one of the leaders of the Birmans, kindled anew the flame of revolt in 1753, and recovered the city of Ava. Various fortunes followed, till Alompra finally made himself master of the city of Pegu. This monarch, whose abilities were devoted to the good of his subjects, died in 1760, at the age of fifty years, leaving his throne to his son Namdogee, who inherited his father's spirit and talent, and died in 1764. Shambuan, his brother, was victorious in a war with China, during which Siam, which he had previously conquered, regained its independence. In 1776, this prince left his empire, greatly extended, to his son Chengenza, who in consequence of excessive debauchery, was dethroned and put to death in 1782. Shembuan Menderagan, the fourth son of Alompra, was placed by the revolution on the throne. In 1783, he subdued Arracan. A war with Siam, in which he next engaged, resulted, in 1793, in the submission of that kingdom upon certain terms. The refusal of the East India Company to deliver up some Birman refugees, who were robbers, brought on a war with Shembuan, which was soon amicably concluded. Shembuan's grandson ascended the throne in 1819. In 1826, a war which had broken out between the Burmese and English, ended in a treaty, by which the king of the white elephant and the golden feet (titles of the monarchs of Birmah) ceded to the East India Company large tracts on the western coast of his empire, including Arracan, Merguy, Tavay, and Yea. Assam became independent, and Rangoon was declared a free port. The Birmese also paid a million

sterling as indemnity. In 1852, further hostilities were ended by the British conquest of Pegu. The Birmans are gay, irritable, active, and fond of show. No man is permitted to have more than one wife, and capital punishment is extended to confirmed opium eaters and drunkards in general. The bodies of the dead are burned. The commerce of the Birmese is extensive, and the merchants make use of bars of gold, silver, and lead in the place of coin. The people are fond of amusements, particularly dramatic spectacles. Education is not wholly neglected among them, every one learning arithmetic, reading, and writing. They have uncleanly fashions in eating, gormandizing on reptiles, lizards, iguanas, and snakes. Fried worms and ants are choice dishes. Their faith forbids the killing of animals for food; hence they eat those that die of disease. They are Buddhists in religion.

BIRON, CHARLES DE GONTAUT, Duke of; an intriguing nobleman in the reign of Henry IV. of France, tried on a charge of treason, and beheaded July 31st, 1602.

BITHYNIA, an ancient country of Asia Minor, also called Bebyrcia. It lay on the Pontus Euxinus, the Thracian Bosphorus, and the Propontis, and was bounded on the south by Phrygia. It was held successively by the Assyrians, Lydians, Persians, and Macedonians. It afforded for some time an asylum to Hannibal, who was at last delivered up. Nicomedes III., the last king, bequeathed the kingdom to the Romans, B.C. 75. In 1298, the Ottoman Turks founded their empire here; previous to which, the Seljuks had conquered it in the eleventh century.

BLACK HOLE. One hundred and forty-six British gentlemen, merchants and others, in the service of the East India Company, were seized by order of Surajah Dowlah, June 20th, 1756, and thrust into a dungeon at Calcutta, called the Black Hole, in the fort, by his soldiers. These latter saw that the place was too small for such a number, but they feared to awaken the nabob, then asleep, for further orders. One hundred and twenty-three of the sufferers died before morning, having been suffocated by the heat, crushing, and stench of a dungeon only eighteen feet square.

BLACK SEA, the Euxine of the ancients, BLA

an inland sea between Europe and Asia Minor, covering about 170,000 square miles. It is connected with the Sea of Azof by the Strait of Yenikalé, or Kertsch, and with the Mediterranean through the Bosphorus, Sea of Marmora, and the Dardanelles. This sea was navigated early by the Greeks, and well frequented by the Romans. It was also much visited by the Genoese, till it was closed to all nations by the Turks from the fifteenth to the eighteenth centuries. The Russians gained admission by treaty in 1774. In 1779, it was partially opened to British and other traders. It was entered by the British and French fleets, Jan. 3d, 1854, at the requisition of the Porte, after the destruction of the Turkish fleet at Sinope by the Russians, Nov. 30th, 1853.

BLACKLOCK, THOMAS, a poet and clergyman, born at Annan, in 1721. Although deprived of sight in infancy, he became famous for his acquirements, and took a high station among the literati of Scotland. He died July, 1791.

BLACKMORE, Sir RICHARD, an inferior English poet and superior physician, born 1650, and died October 8th, 1729.

BLACKSTONE, Sir WILLIAM, an English lawyer of great celebrity, and a writer on the British constitution, was born in London, in 1723. He was the son of a silk mercer, but being left an orphan, was brought up and educated by Mr. Thomas Bigg, his uncle, a surgeon. He left Pembroke College, Oxford, with a high reputation, and, in 1746, after faithful preparatory study, was admitted to the bar and commenced practice. His progress was slow, owing to his deficiency in elocution; and he accordingly determined to forsake the practice of the law, and retire to his fellowship at Oxford. In 1759, when several of his legal works had attracted the attention of the public, he resumed practice, and honors and emoluments poured in upon him. In 1761, he was chosen member of parliament from Hindon, made king's counsel, and solicitor-general to the queen; about this time, also, he married. In 1765, the first volume of his "Commentaries on the Laws of England" appeared, and was pronounced superior to any work upon the same subject which had before been published. In 1770 he was made one of the justices of

common pleas, and he died in his fifty-seventh year, 1780.

BLACKSTONE, WILLIAM, the first white inhabitant of Boston, was a clergyman of the church of England, and had built his cottage among the Indians five years before the arrival of Winthrop in 1630. He did not relish the neighborhood of the Puritans. "I came," said he, "from England because I did not like the lord bishops, but I can not join with you, because I would not be under the lord brethren," and in 1634 he removed to the bank of the Pawtucket or Blackstone River, near Providence, where he died in 1675.

BLADENSBURG, Md., six miles north-east of Washington, is memorable for a severe skirmish, Aug. 24th, 1814, between a small force of Americans and a portion of the British army marching to destroy the capital. Bladensburg was formerly much resorted to as a dueling ground. Decatur and Barron met here.

BLAIR, JAMES, was born in Scotland, about 1660. In 1683, he was sent out to America, as a missionary, by Dr. Compton, Bishop of London; and by the same prelate, was appointed in 1685, his commissary in Virginia. It was at the latter epoch, that he conceived the plan, and by unwearied exertions, succeeded in founding a college at Williamsburg. The patent for the college was granted by William and Mary, about 1693, and from its founders the institution was named William and Mary College. Mr. Blair was first president; and having filled the ministry sixty, and the presidency of the college fifty years, he died in 1743.

BLAIR, Hugh, an eloquent divine, was born at Edinburgh in 1718, and made preacher of the High Church in that city in 1758. Having acquired a high reputation by his lectures on composition, he was made professor of rhetoric and belles-lettres at Edinburgh, in 1762.

BLAIR, ROBERT, a Scotch clergyman, author of "The Grave." Born at Edinburgh in 1699, he died in 1746.

BLAKE, ROBERT, one of the most renowned of England's naval heroes, was born at Bridgewater, in August, 1599. At Oxford where he was educated, he was noted for his strictness in religion, and his liberality in

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politics. At the outbreak of the civil war he raised one of the first troops, and was among the ablest of the soldiers who fought for the parliament. He held Taunton during a long siege, and successfully defended it against a large body of royalists under Goring. When the war was over, he was put in command of the ships that were sent against Prince Rupert's piratical squadron. The navy was not then the separate branch of defense that it now is. A successful general was thought competent to command a fleet. Blake was fifty years of age, but he adapted himself at once to the element on which he was to surpass all his former prowess. War broke out between the English and Dutch in 1652. Desperate naval battles ensued. Once, and once only, was he beaten by Van Tromp, but then the Dutch force was twice the English. He nearly destroyed the Dutch navy in two years, and Holland sued for peace. Cromwell sent him to the Mediterranean. He forced Algiers and Tunis to surrender their English captives. He compelled the knights of Malta and the Tuscan government to pay for the seizure of English merchantmen, and made the pope smart for having allowed them to be sold in his ports. When the Spanish war began, he blockaded Cadiz. His last and most daring exploit was at Santa Cruz in Teneriffe in April, 1657. Here he destroyed sixteen Spanish ships, secured with great nautical skill, and protected by the castle and forts on the shore. Lord Clarendon said, "It was so miraculous, that all who knew the place wondered any sober man, with what courage soever endowed, would have undertaken it; and the victors could hardly persuade themselves to believe what they had done; whilst the surviving Spaniards thought that they were devils and not men, who had destroyed their ships in such a manner." The terror of Blake's name was so great, that it was used by the Dutch and Spaniards to quell their children. The great admiral sickened upon his return to England, and died in sight of the shores he had so stoutly defended. Cromwell caused him to be buried with fitting pomp in Westminster Abbey, but after the restoration his body was torn from its vault and coffin, and thrown into a pit in the neighboring church-yard of St. Margaret's.

BLAKELEY, JOHNSTON, born in Ireland 1781, was a distinguished naval officer in the service of the United States. In 1800 he received a midshipman's warrant, and, in 1813 was appointed to the command of the *Wasp*. In an action with the *Reindeer* in 1814, he took her in nineteen minutes, but was forced to abandon her, as she was so completely cut up. The loss of the Americans in killed and wounded was twenty-one; that of the British sixty-seven. After an engagement with the brig *Avon*, which was forced to strike, although three other English vessels were in sight, the *Wasp* was spoken by a vessel off the Western Isles, since which time she has not been heard of. Blakeley left an only daughter, who was educated by the state of North Carolina.

BLANCHARD, FRANCOIS, one of the earliest aeronauts, born at Andelys, in France, in 1738. He showed an early fondness for mechanics, and in his sixteenth year, invented a self-moving carriage, which carried him eighteen miles. In his nineteenth year he invented a hydraulic machine, and soon afterward a sort of flying ship. When the Montgolfiers made their discoveries, Blanchard eagerly made use of them. In 1785, he crossed the channel from Dover to Calais, with Doctor Jeffries, a gentleman of Boston, Mass. At one time the balloon sank so rapidly, that although the aeronauts had lightened the car by throwing over all superfluous articles, even their clothes, they were in danger of losing their lives. However, the voyage was finally accomplished in safety, and Blanchard was presented by the King of France with 12,000 francs, and a pension of 1,200. In the same year he made use of a parachute in London. His forty-sixth ascent was made in the city of New York, 1796. In 1798 he went up from Rouen in a large balloon with sixteen persons. He died in 1809, after having made more than sixty-six aeronautic voyages. Madame Blanchard, after his death, continued to make voyages in the air. In June, 1819, she ascended from Paris, and was thought to be in safety, when her balloon took fire from some fireworks which she carried with her; she fell from an immense height, and was dashed to pieces in the Rue de Provence.

BLenheim, a village in Bavaria, on the

Danube, is celebrated for the important victory obtained there by the allies under the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene, over the French, commanded by Marshals Tallard and Marsin, and the Elector of Bavaria. In the war of the Spanish succession, Louis XIV., with the Elector of Bavaria for his only ally, was forced to contend against the strength of Holland, England, Austria, Savoy, Portugal, and the German empire. At the battle of Blenheim, which was fought August 13th, 1704, the allied forces amounted to about 52,000, and the French to 56,000, with great advantage of situation; the latter, however, were completely beaten, with the loss of 27,000 killed, and 13,000 prisoners, Tallard being among the latter.

BLOOD, circulation of, through the lungs, first made public by Michael Servetus, a Spanish physician, in 1553. Cæsalpinus published an account of the general circulation, of which he had some confused ideas, and improved it afterward by experiments, 1569; but it was fully confirmed by Harvey, 1628.

BLOOD, THOMAS, commonly called Col. Blood, a disbanded officer of Oliver Cromwell's household. With confederates he seized the Duke of Ormond in his coach, and had got him as far as Tyburn, intending to hang him, when he was rescued. Blood was afterward notorious for his attempt to steal the crown and regalia from the Tower, in the disguise of a clergyman. Charles II. pardoned him, and even bestowed an estate of £500 per annum on him, while poor Edwards, keeper of the regalia, who was severely wounded in defending them, was passed by unnoticed.

BLOOMFIELD, ROBERT, an English poet, born at Honington, in 1766. He was the son of a tailor, and, in 1781, he was sent to London, with his brother, to learn the shoe-making trade. He visited various places of public worship, the theatre, and a debating society, and found his faculties developed in a striking manner. His brother, hearing him one day repeat a song which he had composed, induced him to offer it to the editor of the *London Magazine*, by whom it was accepted and published. His poem of the "Farmer's Boy," composed in his London garret, was published by Capel Lofft, to

whom it was first shown. The versification in this, as well as in the other poems of Bloomfield, is easy and correct. He was made by the Duke of Grafton under-sealer for the seal office, but ill health compelled him to relinquish this situation. He afterward worked at his trade, and engaged in the book-trade, but he became bankrupt. He died in August, 1823.

BLUCHER, GEBHART LEBRECHT VON, a celebrated Prussian general, who distinguished himself in the wars with France, particularly in 1813, 1814, and 1815, and who, by his timely arrival on the field of Waterloo, decided the victory. The soldiers, in allusion to his promptitude in attack, called him Marshal Forward. He died Sept. 12th, 1819, aged seventy-seven.

BLUM, ROBERT, a martyr for liberty in the German revolution of 1848. An obscure artisan in Cologne, his native city, he attracted the attention of friends of freedom by his contributions to the press, and especially his exposure of the Romish humbug called "The Holy Coat of Treves." In the revolution of 1848 he was foremost for action, and full of fiery eloquence. Mixed up with the outbreak in Vienna, he was seized by the Austrian government, and shot November 9th, 1848, in the forty-first year of life.

BLUMENBACH, JEAN FREDERICK, a celebrated comparative anatomist, physiologist, and naturalist, born at Gotha, 1752, died at Göttingen, 1840. He was the first to establish the division of the human race into five varieties, the Caucasian, Mongolian, Ethiopian, American, and Malay. His great desire was to prove the unity of the human species.

BOADICEA, a British heroine, Queen of the Iceni. Her husband, for the security of his family, had made the Roman emperor co-heir with his daughters. But the Roman officers took possession of her palace, exposed the princesses to the brutality of the soldiers, and scourged the queen in public. Boadicea, urged to revenge by this usage, assembled her countrymen, and, in a masculine harangue, roused them to madness, by describing her own, her daughters', and her country's injuries. London was stormed, and 70,000 strangers were put to the sword. Suetonius Paulinus defeated the Britons, and Boadicea poisoned herself in despair, A.D. 60.

BOCCACCIO, GIOVANNI, a famous Italian author, born at Florence or Paris, 1313. His "Decameron" fixed his reputation, and the name of Boccaccio, according to Mazzuchelli, is equivalent to a thousand encomiums. The death of his friend and instructor, Petrarch, was a severe shock to him, and he died not more than a year after, at Certaldo in Tuscany, Dec. 21st, 1375.

BEOTIA, a state of ancient Greece, lying north of Attica. Thebes, its capital, was equally celebrated for its antiquity, its grandeur, and the exploits and misfortunes of its heroes and kings. The country was known successively as Aonia, Messapia, Hyantis, Ogygia, Cadmeis, and Bœotia. From the general character of the inhabitants, the term Bœotian was used by the Athenians as a synonym for dullness; but unjustly, since Pindar, Hesiod, Plutarch, Democritus, Epaminondas, and the accomplished and beautiful Corinna, were natives of Bœotia. The government was an oligarchy. Bœotia was frequently at war with Attica and Sparta. By the valor of Epaminondas it became the leading power in Greece, but soon after his death, it fell with its sister states under the rule of Philip of Macedon.

BOERHAVE, HERMANN, one of the most famous physicians of the eighteenth century, born at Woorhout, near Leyden, December, 1668, died in 1738. People came to him from all parts of Europe for advice, and a Chinese mandarin wrote to him with the address, "To Boerhave, the celebrated physician of Europe." His property amounted, at his death, to two million florins.

BOETHIUS, ANICIUS MANLIUS TORQUATUS SEVERINUS, a man whose services, rewards, virtues, and unhappy end have made him famous, was born at Rome or Milan, about A.D. 470. Having received an admirable education and improved himself by travel, he was taken into favor by Theodoric, King of the Ostrogoths, and rapidly raised to the highest offices of the empire. His strict justice and uncompromising integrity acquired for him the hatred of the rapacious and unprincipled Goths; the king became prejudiced against him, and had him arrested, imprisoned, and executed, A.D. 526 or 527. His most celebrated work, on "The Consolations of Philosophy," consisting of prose

and verse, was composed by him in prison. Alfred the Great of England translated it for the benefit of his people.

BOGOTA, at the time the Spaniards conquered South America, was one of the most civilized states of the country, and inhabited by the Muisca Indians. The valley of Bogota, famous for its fertility, was filled with Indians who rivaled in civilization the inhabitants of Cuzco. They traced their prosperity to the instructions of Bochica. Gonzalo Ximenes di Quesada effected their conquest.

BOHEMIA, a kingdom now forming a part of the Austrian empire; area 20,013 square miles; population in 1851, 4,409,900. Bohemia is surrounded by mountains and covered with forests. All kinds of grain and fruits are exported. The mines yield silver, copper, tin, garnets, and other precious stones, iron, arsenic, alum, antimony, sulphur, &c. The kingdom derives its name from the Boii, a Celtic nation, who settled there about 600 B.C. About the middle of the sixth century it was inhabited by Slavonians, who were governed by their own dukes. Charlemagne made Bohemia tributary, but it did not long remain so. The first king received his title from the Emperor Henry IV., and in 1310 the house of Luxemburg succeeded to the throne. In 1526, Bohemia reverted to the house of Austria, by whom it has been ever since held. Bohemia produced the first reformers, among whom were John Huss and Jerome of Prague, but at the present day almost all the people are Catholics. The land is divided into estates of vast magnitude, and the peasantry are held in servitude. It is one of the most manufacturing districts of Austria. Bohemian glass has been noted since the thirteenth century. Many parts of the districts adjoining the northern and eastern ranges of mountains form one continued manufactory of linens, and thousands of humble cabins resound with the noise of the jenny or the loom. With the exception of Prague, the ancient capital, there are no large towns.

BOILEAU-DESPREAUX, NICHOLAS, born at Crosne, near Paris, in 1636. The future satirist was dull and sickly in youth, and described by his father as a good-natured boy, who would never speak ill of any one.

After having studied diligently at the colleges of Harcourt and Beauvais, he entered upon the career of the law, which he soon relinquished for the more congenial pursuit of belles-lettres. His satire, "Les Adieux à Paris," first displayed his talents. He published many works, his "Art Poétique" being the most popular. He was opposed by many writers, to confound whom he wrote his unrivaled mock-heroic poem, the "Lutrin." He died of the dropsy in 1711, bequeathing almost all his property to the poor.

BOKHARA, a country in the interior of Asia, the Sogdiana and Bactria of antiquity. It is the south-eastern part of Independent Tartary, or Turkistan. The city of Bokhara has a population of about 150,000, and is the most commercial town of central Asia. Some centuries ago this and the neighboring city of Samarcand were famous as seats of learning, and were sought by students from all the Mohammedan countries of Asia. Balkh, in the ancient Bactria, is one of the most celebrated cities of the eastern world. Anciently it was famed for its splendor, extent, and magnificence. Alexander the Great, in his eastern campaign, married the daughter of a Bactrian chief. This chief, who defended himself bravely against the Macedonians, while his family was placed upon a precipitous rock, was named Oxyartes. The garrison of the rocky fortress, when summoned to surrender, answered Alexander contemptuously that if his men were winged, he might intimidate them, but as it was, their position was impregnable. Alexander offered rewards to those who would attempt to ascend the rock, and three hundred of the most expert that volunteered were selected. In the interstices of the rock, and in the ice upon its face, the climbers stuck iron pegs, and ascended the most precipitous parts in the night-time. Some of the first who ventured, fell headlong, but the summit was gained by a determined band. By order of Alexander, the Macedonians shook before the eyes of the barbarians long strips of linen, intimating that they had found wings. The garrison immediately surrendered, tacitly proving the correctness of Alexander's favorite maxim, that no place was impregnable to the brave, or secure to the timorous.

The Bactrians were a race holding a middle

station between the Persians and Scythians, with much of the polish of the former, and little of the ferocity of the latter. Their descendants still retain many of the characteristics of the Bactrians of former days. Their women were famed for the brilliancy of their dark, shining eyes, the delicate and correct formation of their features, and the richness and transparency of their complexions. Roxana, the daughter of Oxyartes, was not only distinguished above those of her nation in beauty, but, with the single exception of the wife of Darius, was the loveliest of Asiatic women. The conduct of Alexander toward his dazzling captive was honorable; having conceived a warm attachment to her, he married her, pursuant to the wishes of his friend Hephæstion, but contrary to the advice of Craterus. The fears of Oxyartes were banished by Alexander's avowal of his attachment to his child. He came into the Macedonian camp, and was received with every mark of attention and respect. Thus ties of friendship bound the Bactrians and Macedonians together. Alexander, according to Strabo, founded no fewer than eight cities in Sogdiana and Bactria. The city of Anderab retains still a part of Alexander's name. The Alexandria which the Macedonian monarch is said to have founded, was probably either Cabul, or else at no great distance from it. To return to Balk. In 1221 it was taken by Genghis Khan, who put to the sword nearly all its inhabitants.

BOLEYN, ANNE, second wife of Henry VIII. of England, was probably born about 1500. She was the daughter of Sir Thomas Boleyn. Her early years were spent in attendance on Henry's sister, the wife of Louis XII. of France, on whose death she became maid of honor to Queen Catherine. Henry having procured a divorce from the latter, married Anne privately, and when she became a mother publicly acknowledged her as queen. Her child was the famous Elizabeth. The tyrant conceiving a passion for Jane Seymour, caused Anne to be tried for high treason and infidelity. She suffered on the scaffold, May 19th, 1536, Henry considering it an act of great clemency to save her from the stake. She was beautiful, gay, and witty, and in her last moments self-possessed. "She sent her last message to the king," says

Hume, "and acknowledged the obligations which she owed him in uniformly continuing her advancement. From a private gentlewoman, you have made me, first a marchioness, then a queen; and as you can raise me no higher in this world, you are now sending me to be a saint in heaven."

BOLINGBROKE, HENRY ST. JOHN, Viscount, was born at Battersea, in 1672, of an ancient and distinguished family. His brilliant talents, elegant manners, and personal attractions secured him a warm welcome in society; but, unhappily, until his twenty-third year his career was stained with those vices which spring from the impetuous temper of youth. His marriage with a beautiful heiress did not produce the happiness which his parents had looked for, and the young couple separated forever after a short connection. The moment he obtained a seat in the House of Commons, he distinguished himself by industry, activity, eloquence, and strong judgment. In 1704 he was made secretary of war, but when the Whigs came into place, he sent in his resignation. The Whig party being prostrated, Bolingbroke received the department of foreign affairs, and concluded the peace of Utrecht. During the height of party contention between the Whigs and Tories, immediately after the conclusion of peace, a quarrel occurred between Bolingbroke and Harley, then lord high treasurer, and Queen Anne, provoked with the latter, dismissed him four days before her death, and made Bolingbroke prime minister. The scene was speedily reversed by the death of Anne. George I. ascended the throne, the Whigs triumphed, and Bolingbroke, learning that his enemies intended to impeach him, fled to Lorraine, and was made secretary of state by the Pretender, who, however, becoming displeased with him, deprived him of this dignity and conferred it on the Duke of Ormond. His attainder having been partly reversed, he returned to England in 1723, opposed the ministry for eight years, and again went to France. In France, in 1735, he published his "Letters upon History," which, however admirable, were blamed for attacking revealed religion. In 1738, he returned to his country, where he died of a lingering and painful disease in 1751.

BOLIVAR, SIMON, the most prominent

actor in the events which produced the independence of a large portion of South America, was born in the city of Caraccas, July 24th, 1783, of a distinguished and noble Venezuelan family. After acquiring the elements of a liberal education in South America, he visited Spain, and spent some time in traveling in Europe, chiefly in the south of France. Returning for a while to Madrid, he married, and carried his wife to his native land, where he thought to enjoy in peace the comforts of domestic life. The death of his wife put an end to his blissful visions, and he again went to Europe, partly to dissipate his grief. On his return, he traveled through the United States, where his love of liberty settled into an indelible passion, and we find him actively engaged in promoting the early movement in Caraccas, April, 1810, and receiving a colonel's commission from the supreme junta then established. He sided with the patriots of Venezuela, and, after the declaration of independence, July 5th, 1811, served under General Miranda, against a party in Valencia who declared against the principles and measures of the revolutionists.

After some ill success in Venezuela, which is attributable to treachery of others rather than a want of talent on his part, Bolivar escaped to Curaçoa. He could not, however, content himself with being a cold spectator of events in which the lives and fortunes of his countrymen were risked, and accordingly he came to Carthagená in 1812, and entered into the service of the patriots of New Grenada. His expedition against Teneriffe, on the river Magdalena, was successful, he drove the Spaniards before him in his triumphant advance, and entered the city of Ocaña in triumph, thus inspiring general confidence in the patriot cause, and attracting the attention of all to it and to himself. He next expelled the Spanish forces from Cucuta, and conceived the plan of freeing Venezuela from the Spaniards, a task which he accomplished by the 4th of August, 1813. At the assembly of Caraccas, Jan. 2d, 1814, the power which was vested in the hands of Bolivar as commander of the liberating army, was confirmed. If we carefully trace the military career of Bolivar, we shall find him alternately meeting with success, and struggling with reverse; displaying, both in triumph

and defeat, the noble daring of a gallant warrior, the rare talents of a military chieftain, and the unyielding perseverance of a true patriot. At length he had the satisfaction of beholding the arms of the patriots triumphant in every quarter, their banners moving onward in pride and splendor, and the phalanx of opposition becoming daily more and more feeble.

In May, 1826, Bolivar presented to the congress of Upper Peru, which had formed the independent state of Bolivia, the constitution, which, at their request, he had prepared. Meanwhile a rebellion had broken out in Venezuela, headed by Paez, who considered himself aggrieved, and the fair fruits of liberty, won with many a day of bloody toil, appeared in danger of being lost. It was Bolivar alone who could and did quell this insurrection. The Bolivian code, which, among its prominent features, provided that the executive authority should be vested in the hands of the president for life, was adopted as the constitution of Bolivia, Dec. 9th, 1826, and Bolivar, then absent, was declared its president. If the provisions of the Bolivian code had alarmed the friends of liberty, what was their terror when they beheld Bolivar, whom they suspected of ambitious designs, placed for life at the head of the government. The Colombian auxiliary army, then in Peru, rapidly revolutionized the government, and induced the Peruvians to renounce the Bolivian code. Strenuous opposition to Bolivar was made in Colombia by the republicans, who imagined that he was ready to emulate the career of Napoleon, although he had repeatedly expressed a wish to retire from the presidency. However, in 1828, a decree, dated Bogota, Aug. 27th, gave him the supreme power in Colombia. The authority reposed in him gave the republicans no little alarm, but Bolivar did not live long to exercise it. Looking back upon his career, if there appear occasionally a desire to exalt himself above his fellows, we must grant him that rare union of civil and military abilities, that courage in adversity and moderation in prosperity, which were alone capable of achieving the regeneration of his country. He died Dec. 17th, 1830.

BOLIVIA, a republic of South America, comprising 374,480 square miles, and contain-

ing about 1,650,000 inhabitants. It was originally called Upper Peru, and belonged to the Spanish vice-royalty of Buenos Ayres. Its independence of Spain was declared Aug. 6th, 1824, and the following year the name of Bolivia was assumed in honor of General Bolivar. Its mountains contain rich silver mines, but they are now little worked. Like its sister republics Bolivia has been sadly distressed by intestine wars. Chuquisaca is the capital; population 26,000. It was founded by one of Pizarro's officers on the site of an old Peruvian town called Choque Chaka, or 'bridge of gold;' the treasures of the incas having passed through it on their way to Cuzco. A hundred years ago Potosi had a hundred thousand dwellers. Its silver mines were then industriously worked. Now there are hardly 30,000 inhabitants, half of whom are Peruvian Indians.

BOMARSUND, a strong fortress on one of the Aland Isles, in the Baltic. It was bombarded by the French and English in August, 1854, and the Russians surrendered on the 16th. The fortifications were demolished.

BONAPARTE. **CHARLES BUONAPARTE**, a young lawyer of Ajaccio, in Corsica, wedded Letitia Ramolini, one of the most beautiful and accomplished girls of the island. Thirteen children were the offspring of this union, eight of whom survived to maturity: Joseph, Napoleon, Lucien, Louis, Jerome, Eliza, Pauline, and Caroline. The father died early. The mother lived to witness the grandeur of her great son, and to mourn his death in the sea-girt isle which injustice made his prison. She died at Rome, in October, 1832, aged eighty-two. She was a woman of great beauty, great courage, and great mind. In her nineteenth year, Aug. 15th, 1769, upon a couch whose tapestry was embroidered with the heroes and battles of the "Iliad," she gave birth to NAPOLEON, one of the most extraordinary characters recorded in history, distinguished alike for his extraordinary fortunes, his civil talents, and his military genius. After receiving the rudiments of a classical education, he entered the military school at Brienne, where he was distinguished by the gravity of his character, and his sedulous study of the mathematics. Even his sports partook of his graver pursuits. On the occurrence of a day which was commonly con-

sidered a holiday, Bonaparte's instructors confined him and his companions to the school grounds. The young engineer constructed a mine with great ingenuity, which in exploding blew down the walls and enabled the juvenile rebels to escape. When he could enlist no young recruits in his mimic armies, Napoleon would use flints as substitutes for soldiers, and marshal them with great care. A boy who disturbed his array was severely punished by Napoleon. Many years after, when the imperial diadem was on his head, Napoleon was informed that one of his old school-mates desired an interview. He assured the chamberlain that the emperor would recollect him if he mentioned that there was a deep scar on his forehead. When the emperor was informed of this, he said, "I do not forget how he got that scar. I threw a general at his head at Brienne."

At sixteen, he received the commission of second lieutenant in the regiment of Lafere, which he joined at Valence. At twenty he was promoted to a captaincy, and in December, 1793, had obtained the command of the artillery train in the attack on Toulon, then occupied by the English. The originality of his plans won the siege for the French. One of the deputies of the convention wrote to Carnot: "I send you a young man who distinguished himself very much during the siege, and earnestly recommend to you to advance him speedily. If you do not, he will most assuredly advance himself." But with the exception of a brief service the next spring as commandant of the artillery in the army of Italy, he was for some time left inactive. Want pinched him. He dreamed of the orient, and thought of offering his sword to the grand seignior. "How odd it would be," said he, "were a little Corsican officer to become king of Jerusalem." Stranger happenings than that were to be. Once he was on the brink of suicide, when a timely loan from an old comrade gave him the means of life.

In 1795, when some of the sections of Paris rose in insurrection against the national convention, the command of the troops was intrusted to him. His cannon dispersed the mob, the Directory was established, and Napoleon made military governor of the metropolis. He was at that time very thin, although

distinguished for corpulency in the latter part of his life. On one occasion he gained a bloodless victory over a rabble whose exertions were stimulated by a very fat old woman. "There," cried she, "look at the soldiers! they're the wretches that fatten in idleness while we starve." "Look at her and look at me," said Napoleon, "and tell us which is the fattest." This raised a laugh, and the populace dispersed quietly. On this, as on many other occasions, his knowledge of human nature was apparent.

The 6th of March, 1796, Napoleon was married to Josephine Tascher Beauharnais, and just before, through the influence of Barras, their mutual friend, and one of the directory, he was appointed commander-in-chief of the army in Italy. The French lay on the cold slopes of the maritime Alps. Their foes were snug upon the warm plains of Italy. The French soldiers were ragged, hungered, and dispirited. The glowing vigor of their young general gave them new nerve and hope. He led them into Sardinia at once, and defeated the surprised Austrians at Montenotte, the 11th of April. "My patent of nobility," said he afterward to the Emperor of Austria, "dates from the field of Montenotte." He astounded the veteran warriors with whom he coped, by the rapidity of his maneuvers and his defiance of ancient tactics. "War," said he, "is the science of barbarians. He who has the heaviest battalions will conquer." The troops of his foes far outnumbered his own; he attacked them in detached portions, and conquered them by piecemeal. The battles of Millesimo, Mondovi, and Lodi followed in a month, and he entered Milan in triumph. Sardinia had been cowed into peace. It was after the hot contest of Lodi, that Napoleon's veterans dubbed him with the pet name he never lost, "the little corporal." Napoleon has said, "It was not till after the terrible passage of the bridge of Lodi, that the thought shot across my mind that I might become a decisive actor in the political arena. Then arose, for the first time, the spark of great ambition." More soldiers from Austria: more battles. At Castiglione, Roveredo, Bassano, Arcola, and Rivoli, the French were victorious, and the stubborn Wurmser at last yielded Mantua. The Austrians were driven from Italy. In ten months, Napoleon, with

55,000 men, including all recruits, had conquered five grand armies, composed of over 200,000 highly disciplined Austrian troops, and headed by such veterans as Beaulieu, Wurmser, and Alvinzi. At times it had seemed as if the handful of French must be overwhelmed, but the genius of their leader had brought them through. They had taken a hundred thousand prisoners, and killed and wounded thirty-five thousand men. Napoleon crossed the Carnic Alps, threatened Vienna, defeated a fresh army under the gallant Archduke Charles, and forced Austria to the humiliating treaty of Campo Formio, Oct. 17th, 1797. One term of this treaty was the release of Lafayette from the dungeon of Olmutz.

In Paris, the young conqueror of Italy was received with an enthusiasm that excited the greatest terror and jealousy in the government. To be rid of his presence they detailed him upon distant and difficult service. In 1798, he took the command of the army destined against Egypt, and on his passage from Toulon, captured Malta. He landed at Alexandria, and after the capture of that city pushed on toward Cairo. The French formed in squares to receive the furious onsets of the Mamelukes. A corps of scientific men, who had been mounted on donkeys, accompanied the expedition. Whenever a body of Mamelukes approached, the order, "Form square, savans and asses in the centre," was greeted with jocund uproar by the soldiery. At the battle waged in sight of the pyramids, Napoleon said to his men, "Soldiers! from those summits forty centuries gaze upon you!" The gazing centuries saw the rout of the Mamelukes, and the invaders masters of Cairo. Nelson's victory in the Bay of Aboukir cut the expedition off from all supplies and reinforcements, yet in Egypt and Syria Napoleon was everywhere victorious except at Acre; where, for want of besieging artillery, he was repulsed by Sir Sydney Smith. In October, 1799, the misgovernment of France, and the disasters which had befallen the French troops, induced him to return, leaving Kleber in command in Egypt. He was received as a savior by the French nation, and on the 9th of November he deposed the directory, and was proclaimed first consul of the republic.

To England and Austria he made proffers of peace which were rejected. The hosts of

the confederates threatened an invasion of the republic, and English fleets blockaded her coasts. Napoleon led a rapidly gathered army over the crags of the Great St. Bernard, and descended like an avalanche upon the forces of Marshal Melas. The campaign opened at Montebello, where Lannes with eight thousand men defeated eighteen thousand Austrians, though the latter were protected by the deadly fire of strong and commanding batteries. "I could hear the bones crash in my division, like glass in a hail-storm," said Lannes. The terrible victory of Marengo followed, on the 14th of June, 1800: Melas, with his army of 120,000 was now utterly discomfited, by half that number, and Napoleon was once more master of Italy. An armistice was concluded. The conqueror left Massena in command of the triumphant army, and returned to Paris, where he again sought a fair peace with Austria, and again unsuccessfully. Moreau, who commanded the grand army of the Rhine, advanced and won the field of Ilohenlinden, and chased the fleeing Austrians within thirty miles of Vienna. Another armistice was had, and Feb. 9th, 1801, the peace of Luneville was completed, and the continent thus quieted. About this time many attempts were made to assassinate Napoleon. On Christmas eve, as he was on his way to the opera, the famous 'infernal machine,' a cart laden with gunpowder and deadly missiles, was fired. He escaped by an accidental moment of time. Eight persons were killed, and sixty wounded, of whom twenty afterward died. On both sides the way the houses were sadly shattered.

Napoleon employed his leisure of peace in developing the resources of France. He planned and executed vast internal improvements, commenced the compilation of the civil code, and restored the observances of religion. He formed a great coalition against England, which was broken by the death of Paul, the Czar of Russia. The great antagonist nations paused for a breathing spell, and the peace of Amiens was concluded in March, 1802. About this time the Italian or Cisalpine republic, which he had founded in the north of Italy, chose Napoleon their president; a few months after, the people of France elected him consul for life; in May, 1804, he assumed the title of Napoleon I., Emperor of the French, and Dec. 2d was crowned at Paris by the

pope. In March, 1805, he was declared King of Italy, and in May crowned at Milan. He had previously established his military order of the legion of honor and distributed the crosses which were the distinguishing badges. Of all to whom the cross of the legion of honor was tendered, Lafayette alone declined it. Napoleon, either from want of true perception of moral greatness, or because the detestable servility of returning emigrants had taught him to think there was no such thing as honor or independence in man, exclaimed, when they told him that Lafayette refused the decoration, "What, will nothing satisfy that man, but the chief command of the national guard of the empire?" Yes, much less abundantly satisfied him; the quiet possession of the poor remnants of his estate, enjoyed without sacrificing his principles.

England had previously renewed maritime hostilities with France, and in the fall of 1805, a mighty coalition reared itself against the new empire; England, Austria, Russia, and Sweden. Afterward Prussia joined them. Five hundred thousand men menaced Napoleon and France. The emperor broke up the powerful armament he had gathered at Boulogne for the invasion of Great Britain, marched into Germany with his accustomed rapidity, and at Ulm captured 30,000 Austrians. In November, he entered Vienna, and on the 2d of December, gained the battle of Austerlitz, over the Emperors of Russia and Austria, after which he concluded peace with Austria, created the Electors of Bavaria and Wirtemberg kings, and made his brother Joseph King of Naples, and Louis King of Holland.

The next year England, Prussia, and Russia entered into a new coalition. Napoleon invaded Prussia, and on the 14th of October, gained a decisive victory at Jena and Auerstadt, by which the whole Prussian monarchy, and Germany to the Baltic, came under his authority. The man of destiny had now filled Europe with the terror of his name, the bare mention of which shook the crowned heads of the oldest monarchies of the continent with palsied apprehension. In vain the dagger, the mine, and the bowl had been prepared for him. His star had not yet begun to decline from the zenith. Napoleon was almost miraculously preserved from poison. It is well known that he was an inveterate snuff-taker.

When his mind was deeply engaged, his snuff-box was in constant requisition. He once left his apartment for a few moments, and returned to take his box from the mantle-piece. He thought the snuff felt somewhat strangely, and calling to a dog that was lying near him, administered a pinch. The poor animal soon rolled over in the agonies of death; and Napoleon thenceforth kept his snuff in his waistcoat pockets, which he had sheathed with tin.

From the royal palace at Berlin, Napoleon promulgated in retaliation the famous decree by which he proposed to exclude the trade of Britain from all the ports of the continent. In June, 1807, having overrun Poland, he totally defeated the Emperor of Russia at Eylau and Friedland, after which an interview took place between them on a raft in the Niemen, followed by the treaty of Tilsit. In November of that year, he sent an army into Lisbon, thus annihilating the British supremacy in Portugal, and driving the Portuguese court to the Brazils. On the 5th of May, 1808, was concluded the treaty by which Charles IV. ceded all his rights in the crown of Spain. Joseph, brother of the emperor, was proclaimed King of Spain, on the 6th of June. Hence arose the Peninsular war.

On the 27th of September, in the same year, Napoleon had an amicable interview with the Emperor of Russia at Erfurt, and they jointly proposed peace with England, which was rejected. On the 29th of October the emperor departed from Paris and placed himself at the head of the army in Spain, the right wing of which pursued Sir John Moore to Corunna, while he marched to Madrid and seated his brother on the Spanish throne. In the mean time, the Austrians took the field; Napoleon hastened to oppose them, gained successive victories at Eckmühl and Wagram, and in the latter battle a treaty of peace. On the 16th of December, 1809, he divorced Josephine, and on the 2d of April, 1810, married Maria Louisa, Archduchess of Austria. The 20th of March, 1811, was signalized by the birth of his son, who was crowned King of Rome. In the divorce of Josephine, Napoleon said at St. Helena, he stepped upon an abyss covered with flowers.

The amity between Napoleon and Alexander cooled, and at last was wholly ruptured. In

1812, Napoleon assembled a great army in Poland, and invaded Russia, and having at the Borodino and at Moskwa gained bloody victories, he entered Moscow on the 14th of September. That city became untenable, and the French retreated for winter quarters toward Poland, but an early and unusual frost setting in during their march, they lost their horses, were compelled to abandon their artillery, and three-fourths of the army perished or were made prisoners. Napoleon returned to Paris, and Poland and Prussia were occupied by the Russians.

In April, 1813, Napoleon again took the field against the Prussians, and gained the victories of Lutzen, Bautzen, Wurtzen, and Dresden; but the Austrians and Bavarians joined the confederacy against him, and he was attacked at Leipsic by the combined armies of the European nations; being forced to abandon that city with immense loss, and retreat to Metz, thereby abandoning his German conquests. In 1814, the confederates having passed the Rhine, penetrated, after various battles, to Paris, which, being surrendered by Marshals Marmont and Mortier, Napoleon concluded a treaty with the allies, at Fontainebleau, by which he agreed to retire to the island of Elba, with provision for himself and family.

In March, 1815, Napoleon embarked with 600 of his old guard, and made a sudden descent in Provence. On the 10th, he entered Lyons, on the 20th Paris in triumph. His banners flew from steeple to steeple, until they finally waved in the wind from the pinnacles of Notre Dame. He assumed the throne once more, and soon joined the army on the Belgian frontier, where on the 16th of June, he defeated Blucher at Ligny with a loss of 22,000 men. On the 18th, was fought the bloody battle of Waterloo, in which the French army was completely defeated.

When, after the disaster at Waterloo, Napoleon came back in desperation to Paris, and began to scatter dark hints of dissolving the representatives' chamber, repeating at Paris the catastrophe of Moscow, and thereby endeavoring to rouse the people of France to one universal and frantic crusade of resistance, Lafayette was the first to denounce the wild suggestion. He proposed a series of resolutions, announcing that the independence of

the nation was threatened, declaring the chambers a permanent body, and denouncing the instant penalties of high treason against all attempts to dissolve it. The same evening he proposed, in the secret assembly of the council of state, the abdication of Napoleon. The subject was again pressed the following day; but the voluntary act of the emperor anticipated the decision.

On the 8th of July, Louis XVIII. returned to Paris, and on the 15th, Napoleon surrendered himself to the English at Rochefort. He only asked permission to pass the remainder of his days in England, under an assumed name, and in a private character, but he was conveyed to St. Helena, as a prisoner of state. A few officers of his suite accompanied him. In the island he was treated with indignity and meanness until his death, which was the result of an intestine disorder, and took place May 5th, 1821. In his last moments, he was delirious, and his last words, "*Tete d'armee*," proved that he fancied himself at the head of his troops, watching the fluctuating current of a battle. He was buried in a little valley; a simple slab marked the place of his repose; two weeping-willows waved over it, and an iron railing encircled that spot of ground so dear to millions.

Napoleon, in person, was below the middle size; and, in the latter part of his life, quite corpulent. His straight brown hair fell over a broad high forehead; his complexion was clear olive, and his features regular and classical. An air of subdued melancholy was the prevailing characteristic of his countenance in repose; but he had the power of dismissing all expression from his features, when he chose to baffle scrutiny. At such times the curious observer might gaze upon his still gray eye and quiet lip without finding any indication of the thoughts which were passing within.

Though Napoleon was ambitious, his desire was not for mere self-aggrandizement, for he sought the advancement of France. He contended in self-defense and defense of France, against the crowns of Europe, who hated him as the monarch of the people. These wars drenched the sands of Egypt, the snows of Russia, and the plains of Germany, and Italy, and Spain, with the best blood of France and the best of Europe: yet he was

not destitute of the feelings of humanity, and, as he rode over a field heaped with the dead and dying victims of his ambition, his fine eye would fill with tears. But feeling without repentance is of no avail. Yet if Napoleon was lavish of the lives of others, he was no less prodigal of his own, amidst the hottest fire of the enemy. If he laid his grasp upon nations,—

“Their ransom did the general coffers fill.”

He often pardoned, but he never failed to reward. It was thus that he attached his soldiers to him with indissoluble bonds. A thousand proofs may be given of their attachment to their emperor. At Waterloo, one man whose left arm was shattered by a cannonball, wrenched it off with the other, and throwing it up in the air, he exclaimed to his comrades, “Vive l’empereur, jusqu’ à la mort!” When Napoleon took his final farewell of France, all wept, but particularly Savary, and a Polish officer who had been exalted from the ranks by Bonaparte. He clung to his master’s knees, wrote a letter to Lord Keith, entreated permission to accompany him, even in the most menial capacity, which could not be admitted.

Napoleon was a statesman as well as a warrior. What he would have accomplished, had he been left to govern France in peace, may be judged from the great benefits which he wrought while engaged by almost incessant hostilities. The Code Napoleon was an inestimable boon to the jurisprudence of France and Europe; and throughout the empire, magnificent public edifices, fortifications, harbors, docks, canals, roads, bridges, columns, and schools still speak of the energy with which he improved and embellished the land whose throne he occupied, and in the hearts of whose people his memory is still warmly enshrined.

In 1840, Louis Philippe, after obtaining the consent of England, sent a frigate commanded by his son, the Prince de Joinville, to St. Helena, to convey the remains of Napoleon to France. On the 30th of November, they reached Cherbourg, whence they were conveyed with great pomp to Paris, and deposited beneath the dome of the Hospital des Invalides, on the 15th of December, where

they lie beside the bones of Turenne and Vauban.

NAPOLEON CHARLES FRANCIS JOSEPH, son of Napoleon and Maria Louisa, was born at Paris, March 20th, 1811. He received the title of King of Rome. The downfall of his illustrious father changed his condition and prospects. His grandfather, the Emperor of Austria, was appointed his guardian. He received the title of the Duke of Reichstadt. He died at the palace of Schönbrunn, near Vienna, of consumption, July 22d, 1832.

JOSEPH, the elder brother of Napoleon, was born in 1768. He shared the fortune of his eminent brother, and was of great service to him in a diplomatic capacity. In 1806 Napoleon placed him upon the throne of Naples. His brief reign was a succession of benefits to a people who had been long degraded by oppressive despotism. He founded civil and military schools, overthrew feudal privileges, suppressed the convents, opened new roads, set the *lazzaroni* at work, and everywhere animated the abject people with new life and hope. From 1808 to 1813, he wore the crown of Spain, and but for the intervention of the British, and the desolation of war, would have opened a happy path for that unfortunate kingdom. After the fall of Napoleon, Joseph resided some years at Bordentown, N. J. He died in Europe in 1844. In his later years he bore the title of Comte de Survilliers.

LUCIEN was born at Ajaccio in 1775. He was president of the council of five hundred, and aided in raising Napoleon to the consulship. A partial estrangement occurred between the brothers, and Lucien exiled himself to Italy, whence he refused to return and accept a throne. He was a man of high spirit and independence. The pope made him Prince of Canino. When Napoleon was pent up in Elba, a reconciliation was effected between the two brothers, and Lucien was more devoted to the empire in its decline than he had been in its day of prosperity. He wished to share the emperor’s imprisonment at St. Helena, but it was not permitted. He spent his latter years in the Roman states, and died in 1840.

LOUIS was born in 1778. He shared in Napoleon’s Italian campaigns, and accompa-

nied the expedition to Egypt. In 1806 he was placed upon the throne of Holland. The post was reluctantly accepted, but he devoted himself with enthusiasm to the duties it involved. The policy maintained by Napoleon against the commerce of Great Britain, would cripple the traffic of Holland. Louis was placed in an embarrassing and humiliating position between the power of his brother and the interests of his people. He abdicated in 1810. Louis was of a melancholy temperament, studious and retiring. When Napoleon was just entering upon his brilliant career, his musing brother became deeply enamored of a beautiful scion of the ancient nobility. Their union was impeded, and Louis forced to wed the daughter of Josephine, Hortense, who loved and was beloved by Duroc. They separated after a few years of dejection. The eldest of their children shattered by an early death Napoleon's plan that he should inherit the imperial crown; the second died in youthful manhood; the third now sits on the throne of France. Louis, after his abdication, lived gloomily a retired and scholastic life till 1846, in which year he died at Leghorn.

JEROME was born at Ajaccio in 1784. In his youth he served in the French navy, and during a visit to America, in one of his cruises, married Miss Elizabeth Patterson, the daughter of a rich merchant of Baltimore. Napoleon was much annoyed at his idle and dissolute ways. He finally exchanged the sea for land service. In 1807, he obeyed his brother in the repudiation of his American wife, espoused the daughter of the King of Wurtemberg, and was made King of Westphalia. He was the scapegrace of the Bonaparte family, weak, mean. Napoleon said to him, "If the majesty of kings is imprinted on the countenance, you may safely travel incognito." The fall of the empire deprived Jerome of the crown he wore so ill. He lives to see a second empire and another Napoleon on its throne.

MARIE ANN ELISE, the eldest of Napoleon's sisters, was born Jan. 8th, 1777. In May, 1797, she was married to Felix Bacciochi, a Corsican. Napoleon gave her the grand-duchy of Tuscany, with the principalities of Lucca and Piombino, in whose government she displayed much energy and ability. Her sway

ended in 1814, and she died at Trieste, Aug. 9th, 1820.

MARIE PAULINE, the favorite sister of Napoleon, was born at Ajaccio, Oct. 20th, 1782. After becoming the widow of General Leclerc, she married Prince Camille Borghese, with whom she did not live on good terms. She died in 1825. Her whole property amounted to 2,000,000 francs. She was uncommonly beautiful, and Canova represented her as the goddess of beauty, a Venus which almost rivaled the antique.

CAROLINE MARIE ANNONCIADÉ, the youngest of Napoleon's sisters, was born March 26th, 1782. In January, 1800, she was married to Murat. She was a very pretty and a very clever woman. When the rule of her husband was overthrown in 1815, by the reverses of the French and the advance of the Austrian army, and the city of Naples was on the brink of anarchy, she took prompt, wise, and energetic measures for maintaining order. She died ———

BONIFACE, the name of several popes. Boniface I. succeeded Zosimus in 418, and was maintained in the pontifical chair by the Emperor Honorius against his rival Eulalius. He died in 422. Boniface II. succeeded Felix IV. in 530. He was born at Rome, but his father was a Goth. He compelled the bishops in a council to allow him to nominate his successor, and accordingly he selected Vigil; but a second council disavowed the proceedings of the first. Boniface VI. came to the chair 806, and died of the gout a fortnight after. Boniface VII. assumed the chair after having murdered Benedict VI. and John XIV. He was acknowledged sovereign pontiff in 974, and died a few months after. Boniface VIII., after the resignation of Celestine, was elected 1294. He commenced his pontificate by imprisoning his predecessor, and laying Denmark under an interdict. He also excommunicated the Colonnas as heretics, and preached a crusade against them. He excited the princes of Germany to revolt against Albert, and laid France under an interdict. Philip appealed to a general council and sent his army into Italy, and took the pope prisoner. He died at Rome a few months afterward.

BONIFACE, St., first spread Christianity

and civilization among the Germans. His original name was Winifred, and he was born in England in 680. In 732 he was made archbishop and primate of all Germany. He was killed by barbarians at Dockum, in West Friesland, in 755.

BONNER, EDMUND, an English prelate, who received several preferments from Cardinal Wolsey. Henry VIII. made him one of his chaplains, and sent him to Rome to obtain from the pope a divorce from Catharine. There he was so insolent that the pontiff threatened to throw him into a caldron of boiling lead, and thus compelled him to quit Rome. He persecuted the Protestants with great cruelty, and Elizabeth imprisoned him in the Marshalsea, where he died in 1569.

BONEVAL, CLAUDE ALEXANDER, Count de, known also by the name of Achmet Pacha, was born in 1672. He was descended from an illustrious family in France, and married the daughter of the Marshal de Biron. He was disgraced, however, by his incessant pursuit of sensual pleasure. He quitted the French army to serve under Prince Eugene; but having quarreled with the general, he deserted to the service of the Turks, among whom he obtained a military command, and the rank of pacha with three tails. He won a great victory over the imperial army on the banks of the Danube. He died in 1747.

BOOKS. The first books were boards, or the inner bark of trees; and bark is still used by some nations, as are also skins, for which latter parchment was substituted. Papyrus, an Egyptian plant, was adopted in that country. Books whose leaves were vellum, were invented by Attalus, King of Pergamus, about 178 B.C., at which time books were in volumes or rolls. The MSS. found at Herculaneum consist of rolls of papyrus, charred and matted together by the fire, about nine inches long, and one, two, or three inches in diameter, each being a separate treatise. The Pentateuch of Moses, and the history of Job, are the most ancient books in the world; and in profane literature the poems of Homer, though the names of others yet older are preserved. Before the day of printing, books commanded prices only within reach of the wealthy. Jerome

states that he had ruined himself by buying a copy of the works of Origen. King Alfred gave a large estate for a work on cosmography, about A.D. 872. A homily was exchanged for two hundred sheep and five quarters of wheat; and such books were usually sold for double or treble their weight in gold. The book of St. Cuthbert, the earliest ornamented book, is supposed to have been bound about A.D. 650. A Latin Psalter in oak boards was bound in the ninth century. A MS. copy of the Four Gospels, the book on which the Kings of England, from Henry I. to Edward VI., took their coronation oath, was bound in oaken boards nearly an inch thick, A.D. 1100. Velvet was the covering used in the fourth century, and silk soon after. Vellum was introduced early in the fifteenth century, and was stamped and ornamented about 1510. Leather came into use about the same time. Cloth binding began to supersede the common boards about 1830.

BOONE, DANIEL, a native of Virginia, was one of the first to penetrate the savage wilds of Kentucky, on an expedition to explore which, he departed with five companions, May 1st, 1769. Boone, with John Stewart, was captured by the Indians, not long after their arrival in Kentucky, but soon managed to escape. Their companions had returned home, whither they would have followed them, but for the timely arrival of Squire Boone, Daniel's brother, with refreshments. Stewart being soon after slain, the two Boones remained the only white men in the wilderness. In 1773, Boone with his own and five other families, a body of forty men, took up the march of emigration from Virginia to Kentucky; but in consequence of the hostility of the Indians, they returned to the settlements on Clinch River. In 1775, Boone built a fort at Salt Spring, on the southern bank of the Kentucky, on the site of Boonesborough. After sustaining several sieges, he was taken by the savages, Feb. 7th, 1778, while hunting with some of his men. The Indians soon learned to respect and value Boone, who was adopted by one of the chiefs of Chillicothe, but the thoughts of his wife and children induced our adventurer to attempt an escape. After traveling for four days, taking but one meal, he arrived at Boonesborough, which

was a hundred and sixty miles from the place of his captivity. On the 8th of August an attack on the fort was commenced by a body of Indians and Canadian French, which continued till the 20th, when the siege was abandoned. This was the last attempt made upon Boonesborough.

From 1782 till 1798, Boone lived alternately in Kentucky and Virginia. In 1798, having obtained from the Spanish government a grant of land in Upper Louisiana, he removed thither with his children and friends, who were also presented with land. He settled on the Missouri, beyond the limits of other settlements, and employed himself in the wild life of the forest, hunting and trapping, until 1820, when he expired, aged nearly ninety. He had for a long time been sensible of the approach of death, and had a coffin made out of a favorite cherry-tree, which he brought to a high degree of polish by continual rubbing.

BORGIA, CÆSAR, son of Pope Alexander VI., an infamous character. On his father's accession to the papacy in 1492, he was invested with the purple. Being jealous of his brother Francis, he contrived to have him drowned. Having renounced the cardinalship, he was made Duke of Romagna in 1501, and leagued with Louis XII. of France. On the death of his father, he was sent prisoner to Spain, but made his escape, and died fighting under the walls of Bianco, in 1507.

BORNEO, next to Australia, the largest island in the world, is about 850 miles long, and 700 broad. Lon. 109° to 119° E.; lat. 7° N. to 4° 20' S. The insalubrity of the climate has restrained Europeans from exploring it. Earthquakes and volcanoes are frequent in the island. The mountain breezes and the rains moderate the heat, which is excessive. Gold, diamonds, pearl, iron, copper, tin, antimony, and other minerals are found here. The fruits are fine and abundant. The native inhabitants are Malays, Chinese, Bujis or natives of Celebes, and a few descendants of Arabs. The Dutch have permanent settlements on the island, and derive their chief profit from gold, pepper, and diamonds. Borneo was discovered by the Portuguese in 1526.

BORODINO. This battle, one of the most sanguinary in the world, was fought Sept. 7th, 1812, between the French and Russians, commanded on the one side by Napoleon, and on

the other by Kutusoff, 240,000 men being engaged. The retreat of the Russians left Moscow open to Napoleon. This is sometimes called the battle of the Moskwa.

BOSCAWEN, EDWARD, a British admiral, particularly distinguished himself at the taking of Porto Bello and the siege of Carthage. He also signalized himself under Anson, off Cape Finisterre, and at the taking of Madras, Cape Breton, and Louisburg. He died in 1761, having received in succession all the honors of his profession.

BOSSUET, JACQUES BENIGNE, Bishop of Meaux, born at Dijon, 1627, became one of the most celebrated ecclesiastics of the eighteenth century. He was pious, severe in doctrine and practice, eloquent, and learned. He died in 1704.

BOSWELL, JAMES, the friend and biographer of Dr. Johnson, was a native of Scotland, and studied at the universities of Glasgow and Utrecht. He was born at Edinburgh, in 1740, and died in 1795. He was acquainted with many eminent literary men, and his introduction to Johnson he calls the most important event of his life. His life of Johnson is accurate and minute, abounding with literary anecdote and personal detail. It was first published in 1790, and has since been repeatedly re-printed.

BOSWORTH, a small town of Leicestershire, England, in the vicinity of which is Bosworth Field, memorable for the battle fought here, Aug. 22d, 1485, between Richard III. and the Earl of Richmond, afterward Henry VII., in which the latter was victorious, and Richard, after having performed prodigies of valor, and cloven from helm to heel two of Richmond's standard-bearers, thus disproving the tale of his withered arm, was finally slain. The brows of Richmond were encircled on the field of battle with the diadem which was stricken from the casque of Richard. This battle ended the bloody contentions of the rival roses, the red and white badges of York and Lancaster.

BOTHWELL, JAMES HEPBURN, Earl of, remarkable in the history of Scotland for his connection with Queen Mary and his supposed share in the murder of Henry Darnley, her husband. When that unfortunate prince was blown up in the house where he slept, suspicion fell strongly on Bothwell and the

queen. Bothwell was tried, but nothing could be fixed on him, and he was acquitted. After this he seized Mary near Edinburgh, and carried her prisoner to Dunbar Castle, where they were married. During these iniquitous proceedings, Bothwell procured a divorce from his first wife. Mary soon after created him Earl of Orkney. But a confederacy among the lords being formed against him, he retired to the Orkneys, and from thence to Denmark, where he died in 1577, confessing it is said his own guilt, and the queen's innocence of Darnley's murder.

BOUDINOT, ELIAS, was born at Philadelphia, May 2d, 1740. He became eminent at the bar, was chosen member of the continental congress in 1777, and its president in 1782. For six years he was in the house of representatives, and for a few years director of the mint. He made munificent donations to the American Bible Society, of which he was the first president. He died in 1821.

BOUFFLERS, Marshal de, was born in 1644, and died in 1711. His defense of Namur, in 1695, cost the allies 20,000 men. Louis XIV. sent him an order commanding him to surrender, but he concealed it till he had no longer the means of defense.

BOUILLE, FRANÇOIS CLAUDE AMOUR, Marquis de, a French loyalist general, who, among other services, suppressed a dangerous insurrection at Metz, and assisted Louis XVI. in his attempt to escape from France. For his avowal of this transaction, a price was set upon his head, whereupon he took a commission in the Swedish service. He died in 1800, aged sixty-one.

BOURBONS. This family ascended the throne of France in the person of Henry IV., 1589. The crown of Spain was settled on a younger branch, and guaranteed by the peace of Utrecht, 1713, after a long and bloody dispute called the war for the Spanish succession. The reigning family of Naples is a branch of the Bourbons of Spain. The Bourbons were expelled from France in 1791, and were restored in 1814. The elder branch was expelled in 1830, and Louis Philippe, of the Orleans line, reigned till 1848, when he also was deposed.

BOURBON, CHARLES, Duke of, or Constable of Bourbon, son of Gilbert, Count of Montpensier, and Clara of Gonzaga, born in 1489.

At the age of twenty-six, he received the sword of constable from Francis I., and distinguished himself at Marignano, but soon after fell into disgrace. On this, he associated with Charles V., and Henry VIII. of England, against his sovereign. The plot being discovered, he fled into Italy, and was beyond the territories of France, when Francis sent to demand the sword which he wore as constable, and the badge of his order. In the words of his reply, we may trace the deep anguish of his heart: "The king deprived me of my sword at Valenciennes when he gave the command of the vanguard to D'Alençon: the badge of my order I left under my pillow at Chantelles." He became commander-in-chief of the imperial troops in Italy, but was killed in the successful assault on Rome, May 2d, 1527. He fell, it is said, by a shot fired by Benvenuto Cellini. He died excommunicated.

BOURBON, ISLE OF, an island about 400 miles east of Madagascar. Its origin is supposed to be volcanic. Le Piton de Neige, or the Snowy Spike, is a mountain which rises to the height of about 10,000 feet above the level of the sea. The isle of Bourbon, which is 48 miles long, and 36 broad, was discovered by Mascarenhas, a Portuguese, in 1545, and called after his name; but the French, who gained possession of it in 1649, changed its name. After remaining for a time in the hands of the English, it was restored to the French in 1815. After the revolution of 1848, it received the name of Reunion.

BOURRIENNE, L. A. FAUVELT DE, the schoolmate and secretary of Napoleon, and afterward a partisan of the Bourbons, 1769-1824.

BOWDITCH, NATHANIEL, LL.D., born at Salem, Mass., March 26th, 1773, died at Boston, March 16th, 1838. His translation of the "*Mécanique Celeste*" of Laplace, with the elaborate additions that he made, gave him high rank as a writer in the pure mathematics.

BOWDOIN, JAMES, governor of Massachusetts, was born at Boston, in 1727, graduated at Cambridge, 1745, elected member of the general court in 1753, and a member of the council in 1756. In 1778, he was chosen president of the convention which framed the Massachusetts constitution. In 1785, being chosen governor of Massachusetts, he had

Shay's insurrection to quell. He died at Boston, in 1790. Such was his reputation for learning, that he was honored with the degree of LL.D. by the university of Edinburgh, and admitted member of the royal societies of Dublin, London, and other places.

BOWLES, WILLIAM LISLE, a writer of excellent sonnets and other more mediocre poetry, enjoys the distinction of having 'delighted and inspired' the genius of Coleridge, who while yet a youth was a warm admirer of his sonnets. Mr. Bowles was born at King's Sutton in Northamptonshire, Sept. 24th, 1762, was educated at Winchester and Oxford, and was for many years rector of Bremhill in Wiltshire, where he died in his eighty-eighth year. He is chiefly famous for the controversy concerning the poetry of Pope, in which Campbell and Byron were among his antagonists.

His absence of mind was very great, and it is said that when his coachman drove him anywhere he had to practice all kinds of cautions to keep his master to time and place. The poet once walked out in company with an antiquary, as absent of mind as himself. His servant coming to look for him, and learning this, exclaimed in ludicrous distress, "What! those wandered away together? then they'll never be found any more!" His handwriting was one of the worst that ever man wrote; insomuch that frequently he could not read that which he had written the day before; and the printers had tough work in getting his scrawls into type. At the office where his works were printed, there was one compositor who had a sort of knack in making out the blind hieroglyphics; and he was once actually sent for by Mr. Bowles into Wiltshire to copy some manuscript written a year or two before, which the author had himself vainly endeavored to decipher.

BOYDELL, JOHN, patron of the arts and engraver by profession; born at Donington, England, January 19th, 1719; came to London on foot, bound himself an apprentice to an engraver; began to publish 1745-6, and in 1790, had expended in the promotion of the arts in general, and the "Shakespeare Gallery" in particular, £350,000 sterling. He died in London, Dec. 17th, 1804, having nearly reached the age of eighty-six years.

BOYER, JEAN PIERRE, a mulatto, president

of the island of Hayti, was born in Port au Prince, about 1780. After the death of Leclerc, he joined the party of Pétion, and was finally named by him his successor in the presidency. When the revolution broke out in 1820, in the northern part of the island, he was invited to command the insurgents, and upon the union of the northern and southern parts of the island on the death of Christophe, and the revolution in the eastern part, he became master of the whole island.

BOYLE, CHARLES, fourth Earl of Orrery, generally supposed the inventor of the astronomical instrument which bears his title, born 1676, died in 1731. He patronized Rowley, the real inventor of the planetarium, called the orrery.

BOYLE, ROBERT, born at Lismore, in Ireland, 1627, was seventh son of Richard, the great Earl of Cork. He was one of the first members of the learned society formed in 1645, under the name of the Philosophical College, and afterward continued under the name of the Royal Society. He made numerous experiments in various branches of natural philosophy, which led to some important results. But it is chiefly as a pious and benevolent man that he is interesting to us. Having conceived doubts of the authenticity of revealed religion, he devoted himself to a severe course of study, until he was fully convinced of its truth. He endowed public lectures for the defense of Christianity (which are yet delivered), and, at his own expense, printed Irish and Gaelic translations of the Bible. He died in London, in 1691.

BOYNE, BATTLE OF THE, was fought on the 1st of July, 1690, between William III., at the head of a Protestant army, and James II., at the head of a Catholic and French force. The latter were totally defeated. The Duke of Schomberg, William's ablest general, was shot by mistake by his own soldiers, as he was crossing the Boyne. After this battle James re-embarked for France, and William completed the reduction of Ireland, by the capture of Limerick, after a protracted siege. The impetuous imbecility of the unfortunate bigot James II., served only to hasten the ruin which public opinion had so deservedly prepared for himself and his family. It was the Irish who, during the dark fortunes of

this last of the royal Stuarts, clung to him when all else deserted him. They manned his navy, recruited his army, replenished his coffers, and took their stand around his person on their native soil; and when they saw him the first to fly, they still erected his torn standard, and rallied in his cause, paying the penalty of their generous but misapplied devotion to a bigot and a tyrant, by utter ruin and eternal exile. Yet when James, in his flight from the battle, arrived in Dublin, he had the ingratitude and ungraciousness to reflect upon the cowardice of the Irish. He reached the castle late at night, and was met at its gates by the beautiful Duchess of Tyrconnel, "La Belle Jennings" of Grammont's Memoirs. In return for the sympathizing respect which marked her reception, the king is said to have sarcastically complimented her upon the "alertness of her husband's countrymen." The high-spirited beauty replied, "In that, however, your majesty has had the advantage of them all." The king, in fact, was among the first to arrive in the capital with the news of his own defeat.

BOZZARIS, MARCO, one of the gallant defenders of liberty in modern Greece, was born in Albania, in 1780, and is said to have been, at an early period of his life, in the French service. When the Greeks rose to throw off the Ottoman yoke, he ardently espoused the cause of his country, and was chosen stratarch of Western Greece. The Turks having invaded Etolia with a large army, at the head of two hundred and fifty volunteers he made a nocturnal attack on the enemy's camp, and put great numbers of them to the sword; but toward the close of the contest he received a mortal wound. His companions in arms, by a desperate effort, succeeded in bearing him from the field, and he expired at Missolonghi on the following day, August 23d, 1823.

BRABANT. North Brabant, in the kingdom of the Netherlands, contains 403,687 inhabitants, and South Brabant, in Belgium, 711,332. Brabant formed a duchy in the seventh century. For some ages it belonged to the Frankish monarchy, and then was a German fief. In 1005, the last duke dying, the duchy devolved on his brother-in-law, Lambert I., Count of Louvain. From him it came to Philip II., Duke of Burgundy, and afterward to the Emperor Charles V. In the

seventeenth century, the republic of Holland took possession of the northern part, which was thence called Dutch Brabant. The other part, belonging to Austria, was seized upon by France in 1746. The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle restored it, but, after falling again into the hands of the French, it was ceded to France by the treaties of Campo Formio and Luneville, in 1791 and 1801.

BRADDOCK, EDWARD, major-general and commander in the British army, who in 1755 marched against Fort du Quesne on the Ohio, fell into an ambuscade of Indians and French, was defeated and slain. Washington, who had cautioned him in vain, conducted the retreat in a masterly manner.

BRADFORD, WILLIAM, eminent lawyer of Pennsylvania; born in Philadelphia, Sept. 14th, 1755, died August 23d, 1795. Washington appointed him attorney-general of the United States.

BRADFORD, WILLIAM, one of the first printers in English America, born in 1658, died in 1752. In 1725, the *New York Gazette*, the first newspaper published in that city, was commenced by him. He also started the manufacture of paper at Elizabethtown, N. J. He was first established at Philadelphia, where his son Andrew continued the *American Mercury*, the first newspaper of that town, commenced in 1719.

BRADFORD, WILLIAM, grandson of the preceding, was a printer and bookseller in Philadelphia. In 1742, he published the first number of the *Pennsylvania Journal*, which was continued through the century. The day preceding that on which the stamp-act was to go into force, the *Journal* appeared in the blackest mourning, with its head surmounted by a skull and cross-bones. In the upper right-hand corner, was a death's head, entitled "An Emblem of the Effects of the Stamp. O! the Fatal Stamp." In the opposite corner was the quaint announcement, "The Times are Dreadful, Doleful, Dismal, Dolorous, and Dollar-less." On the margin was the cry, "Adieu, adieu to the Liberty of the Press." The first page read thus: "Thursday, October 31, 1765. Numb. 1195. The Pennsylvania Journal, and Weekly Advertiser. Expiring: In Hopes of a Resurrection to Life again." "I am sorry to be obliged to acquaint my readers that as the Stamp Act is

feared to be obligatory upon us after the *first of November* ensuing (The Fatal To-morrow), the publisher of this paper, unable to bear the Burthen, has thought it expedient to stop awhile, in order to deliberate, whether any methods can be found to elude the chains forged for us, and escape the insupportable slavery, which it is hoped, from the last representation now made against that act, may be effected. Meanwhile I must earnestly Request every individual of my subscribers, many of whom have been long behind Hand, that they would immediately discharge their respective Arrears, that I may be able not only to support myself during the Interval, but be better prepared to proceed again with this Paper whenever an opening for that purpose appears, which I hope will be soon. WILLIAM BRADFORD." The sturdy republican fought as major and colonel in the Pennsylvania militia at Trenton and Princeton. His constitution broke and his fortune was shattered. He died Sept. 25th, 1791, aged seventy-two.

BRADFORD, WILLIAM, was born in the north of England in 1588. While a youth he was denounced as a separatist. He fled to Holland, and came over in the Mayflower. While with others he was seeking a spot whereat to land, his wife fell overboard and was drowned. He was made governor upon the death of Carver in 1621, and annually elected so long as he lived, except now and then that "by importuning, he got off," as Winslow says, and another filled the place for the nonce. Gov. Bradford died in May, 1657.

BRADLEY, JAMES, an eminent English astronomer, born 1692; succeeded Dr. John Keil, as Savilian professor of astronomy, at Oxford, in 1721; discovered the aberration of the fixed stars, and mutation of the earth's axis; was appointed astronomer royal, February, 1741-2; died July 13th, 1762.

BRADSTREET, ANNE, author of the first volume of poems written in America, was the daughter of Dudley, and the wife of Bradstreet, both governors of Massachusetts. She was born in England in 1614, and died in 1672. Her poems were printed at Cambridge in 1640, treating of "the four elements, constitutions, ages of man, seasons of the year, the Assyrian, Persian, Grecian, and Roman

monarchies." Cotton Mather said that "her poems, eleven times printed, have afforded a plentiful entertainment unto the ingenious, and a monument for her memory beyond the stateliest marbles."

BRAGANZA, a town of Portugal, made a duchy in 1442. It gives its name to the royal house of Portugal, of whom the first was John IV., Duke of Braganza, who led the Portuguese people in rendering themselves independent of Spain, in 1640. A branch of the house of Braganza is seated on the throne of Brazil.

BRAHE, TYCHO, eminent astronomer, born in Sweden, December 19th, 1546, died at Prague, October 24th, 1601, aged fifty-five.

BRAHMINS, a sect of Indian philosophers and priests, reputed so ancient that Pythagoras is said to have received from them his doctrine of metempsychosis, and it is affirmed that some of the Greek philosophers went to India on purpose to converse with them. They never eat flesh, and profess to abstain from wine and all carnal enjoyments. The modern Brahmins derive their name from Brahma, the first person in the Trinity, or Trimurti, of the Hindoos. Brahma is the creator, Vishnu, the preserver, or redeemer, and Siva, the destroyer. Brahma is represented with four heads and four arms. He is gifted with great power, but is himself created by the Eternal One. Some believe that he dies annually, and rises again. He is considered as the lawgiver and teacher of India.

BRAINERD, DAVID, a devoted missionary among the Indians in New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, was born in Haddam, Conn., in 1718. His labors exhausted his strength, and he died at the house of Rev. Jonathan Edwards, Northampton, Mass., Oct. 10th, 1747.

BRANDENBURG, an ancient mark or marquisate of Germany, and now the metropolitan province of Prussia. The Suevi first, and then the Slavonians, inhabited it. The latter barbarians, in the tenth century, were conquered by Henry I., and converted to Christianity. The mark passed through various hands, till in the fifteenth century it came into those of the ancestors of the present royal family of Prussia. The Elector Frederic William, enlarged it by the annex-

ation of several towns and districts. The old mark, having been ceded to Napoleon, in 1807, formed a part of the kingdom of Westphalia, until 1814, when it was restored to Prussia.

BRANDYWINE, a small river taking its rise in Pennsylvania, which, after a course of forty-five miles, flowing through the state of Delaware, joins the Christiana, two miles below Wilmington. The river is known in history for a battle fought in its vicinity, Sept. 11th, 1777, between the British and Americans, in which the latter sustained a defeat with a loss of 900 in killed and wounded. Howe had 17,000 effective troops, while Washington's force did not exceed 11,000, many of whom were raw militia. Lafayette was wounded in the leg by a musket ball.

BRANT, JOSEPH, a celebrated Mohawk chief, at the head of the Six Nations during our Revolution, was born on the banks of the Ohio in 1742. His Indian name was Thayendanegea, 'a bundle of sticks,' or 'strength.' Sir William Johnson had him well educated at Dr. Wheelock's Indian school in Columbia, Conn. He attached himself to the royal cause, and throughout the war he was engaged in attacks upon the border settlements of New York and Pennsylvania. He was far more humane than the Tory leaders with whom he was associated. After the termination of hostilities, he procured a domain for his tribe in Upper Canada, and devoted himself to the social and religious betterment of his people. He rendered the Book of Common Prayer, and the Gospel of St. Mark, into the Mohawk tongue. He died Nov. 24th, 1807.

BRAXTON, CARTER, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Newington, Va., Sept. 10th, 1736. After graduating at William and Mary College, he visited England, where he tarried until 1760. In 1765, he was chosen to a seat in the Virginia house of burgesses. In 1775, he was elected to Congress. He was afterward a representative in the legislature of Virginia. He was a graceful speaker, and a man of respectable attainments. Pecuniary embarrassments clouded the last years of his life, and he died Oct. 10th, 1797.

BRAY, THE VICAR OF. Bray, a quiet vil-

lage in Berkshire, England, is famous for its vicar, the Rev. Symond Symonds, who was twice a papist, and twice a protestant, between the years 1533 and 1558, in the reigns of Henry VIII., Edward VI., Mary, and Elizabeth. Being called a turncoat, he said he kept to his principle, that of "living and dying the vicar of Bray."

BRAZIL, the empire of, comprehends the eastern portion of South America. Its extent, from north to south, is about 2,600 miles, and from east to west, nearly 2,400 miles. With a territory of 2,300,000 square miles, possessing extraordinary wealth and fertility, it is inhabited by but seven and a half millions of people. Brazil contains some of the largest rivers in the world; the Amazon, Tocantin, and San Francisco being the most prominent. There is much variety of climate, but generally it is healthy; and the salubrity of the vast elevated plains is unequalled by that of any other region on the face of the globe. The richness of its precious woods, the abundance of its streams, the profusion of its diamonds and gold, and its general healthiness, might in the hands of thrift and enterprise make it the El Dorado of the imagination. In the beds of the rivers are found diamonds, topazes, chrysoberyls, other precious stones, and gold. The trees are of every description, adapted to cabinet-work, ship-building, and dyeing; while coffee, oranges, sugar, tobacco, indigo, and rice are easily raised. Brazil, at the time of its discovery, was inhabited by roving Indians. These Indians are still in some regions in as savage a state as when South America was first discovered. The foreign population consists of Portuguese and Africans. The Indians were first used as slaves, but this order of things has passed away, and their place in servitude is filled by the negroes. Of the 7,600,000 inhabitants, perhaps 2,000,000 are whites. Many of the first men in the country evidently have an admixture of African blood in them.

Brazil was discovered, April 24th, 1500, by Pedro Alvarez de Cabral, who at first named it Santa Cruz, but Emanuel, the Portuguese sovereign, called it Brazil, from the quantity of red wood which it produced. The Portuguese at first undervalued this country, and sent thither only criminals, and the refuse of their population, but the Jews, who had been



DIAMOND WASHING IN BRAZIL.

banished to Brazil in 1548, having successfully introduced the culture of the sugar-cane, Thomas de Souza was sent over by the court of Lisbon, and began to find some good points about the country, although it had not yielded the desired gold. After temporary misfortunes, the colonists prospered, but the Portuguese had to contend against France, Spain, and the United Provinces, whose jealousy was aroused by the accounts they heard of the richness and fertility of the Portuguese possessions. The Dutch met with great success in Brazil, but became the friends of the Portuguese, when the latter shook off the Spanish yoke and gained their independence. They still retained the seven provinces they had conquered, and hence arose the division of the country into the Brazils; but a pecuniary compensation induced them to resign their claims to the Portuguese. The diamond mines were not discovered till 1728. The prosperity of Brazil has not been what it might be made under an enlightened government. The conflicting interests of various bodies of its inhabitants, the unequal pressure

of state burthens, and other causes, tended to weaken and distract it. In 1808, the court of Portugal removed here, fleeing from Napoleon, but in 1821, the king returned to Lisbon. Dom Pedro, his eldest son, then governed Brazil under the title of prince-regent. The Brazilians declared themselves independent of Portugal, Oct. 12th, 1822, and Dom Pedro was crowned emperor. In 1831 he abdicated in favor of his son Pedro II., then a lad of six years, and returned to Portugal. The empire was governed by a regency till the coronation of the youthful monarch in 1841. The government is a hereditary monarchy, limited by an elective legislature. The empire is divided into nineteen provinces, each of which manages its local affairs. Each has a president, appointed by the crown, and its provincial assembly, chosen by the people. Brazil has been the most favored of the South American states in its freedom from anarchy and intestine conflicts. The most cultivated part of the population are the merchants of the maritime ports, the Europeans and Creoles forming the aristocracy of the country. The

inhabitants are Roman Catholics, with the exception of the independent native tribes, in the vast and obscure regions of the interior.

Rio Janeiro, situated on a bay which affords it one of the finest, safest, and most roomy harbors in the world, is the capital of the empire. An amphitheatre of hills and mountains springing up one behind another, and separated by fertile valleys that enjoy a perpetual spring and yield the choicest fruits and flowers, rises round the bay. Rio has a population of over 200,000, and is a mart of great and increasing commerce. It exports more coffee than all other ports in the world. Bahia, or San Salvador, farther north on the coast, was formerly the capital. Of its 160,000 inhabitants the majority are negroes. It too has a capacious harbor and a thriving trade. Pernambuco, a seaport still to the north, of increasing trade, has 50,000 inhabitants.

BREDA, a fortified town in Dutch Brabant, formerly of immense importance. It has sustained several memorable sieges. In 1590, it was taken by Prince Maurice of Nassau, and retaken by the Spaniards, under Spinola, in 1625, after a siege of ten months. The French, during the revolution, gained possession of it, but it was abandoned by them in 1813. Charles II. of England dwelt here during part of his exile.

BREMEN, one of the free cities of Germany, stands upon the Weser, fifty miles from the sea. It was conspicuous in the Hanseatic league, and is now the capital of a little republic, whose territory amounts to 112 square miles, and whose population in 1855 was 88,856. Bremen is a place of great resort for the warehousing and transit of German and foreign goods. It has been a prominent point for the debarkation of German emigrants to America. Bremen first rose into notice in 788.

BRENNUS. Several chieftains of ancient Gaul bore this name, which is said to have been a title of dignity and honor. One, having ravaged Lombardy and Tuscany, marched to Rome, which he surrendered to plunder. The garrison held out in the citadel, which would have been taken at midnight by the foe, but for the noise made by the sacred geese of Juno, that were watchful even while the dogs slept. Brennus was then offered a thousand pounds weight of gold to spare the capi-

tal, and quit the territories of the republic. He threw into the scale which held the weights, his sword and helmet, haughtily exclaiming, "Wo to the vanquished." The treaty was ended by the timely arrival of the exiled Camillus, who refused the payment of even a pound of gold as ransom. "Rome," said he proudly, "is to liberate herself with iron and not with gold." He gave battle to the Gauls, and routed them, about 390 B.C.

BRESCIA, a province of Austrian Italy. Its manufactures are and have long been extensive, and its soil is remarkable for fertility. From the hands of the Venetians, it fell into those of the French, and finally the Austrians. Under the sway of the Venetian republic, the inhabitants were unruly, although particularly favored by government. The city of Brescia has 40,000 inhabitants. In 1512, it was stormed by Gaston de Foix, after a stubborn resistance by the Venetian garrison. Forty-six thousand Brescians, it is said, perished in the indiscriminate slaughter that followed the entry of the French, to whose lawless rapacity, rampant lust, and ferocious cruelty, the gallantry of Bayard formed but a feeble counterpoise. In 1796, as Bonaparte was quitting Brescia, the municipal officers, who accompanied him to the gate of the city, said that the Brescians loved liberty more than the rest of the Italians. "Yes," said the general, sarcastically, "they love to talk of it to their women." This slur nevertheless, Brescia revolted against the Austrians in 1849, and was bombarded and stormed by Haynau.

BRESLAU, capital of the Prussian province of Silesia, is situated at the junction of the Ohlau and Oder; population, 110,000. The architectural beauty of the city has been celebrated. Its commerce is considerable. Here the Prussians were defeated by the Austrians, Nov. 22d, 1757. Breslau was besieged and taken by the French in 1807 and in 1813.

BREST, anciently Brivates Portus, is one of the chief naval stations of France. Its fine harbor was constructed by Cardinal Richelieu, in 1631. It is well fortified, its dock-yards and magazines command admiration, and it is considered impregnable. It contains 48,225 inhabitants. It was attacked in 1694 by a British fleet and army, which were repulsed with a loss of 1,300 men and their commander, Lord Berkeley.

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THE BRITANNIA TUBULAR BRIDGE.

BRETIGNY, PEACE OF, concluded between England and France, May 8th, 1360. England retained Gasconry and Guienne, acquired Saintonge, Agenois, Perigord, Limousin, Bigorre, Angoumois, and Rovergne, and renounced her claims to Maine, Anjou, Touraine, and Normandy. England was to receive three million crowns, and to release King John of France, who had long been a captive in London.

BREWSTER, WILLIAM, born in England in 1550, came over in the Mayflower, and as ruling elder preached at Plymouth till his death in 1644.

BRIDGES were so early and general, and the expedients for their construction so various, that their origin can not be traced. They were first of wood. In China there are ancient bridges of great magnitude, built of stone. Abydos is famous for the bridge of boats that Xerxes built across the Hellespont. Trajan's magnificent stone bridge over the Danube, 4,770 feet in length, was built in A.D. 103. The Devil's Bridge in the Swiss canton of Uri, so called from its frightful situation, was built resting on two high rocks, so that it could scarcely be conceived how it was erected, and

many fabulous stories were invented to account for it. At Schaffhausen an extraordinary bridge was built over the Rhine, which is there four hundred feet wide. There was a pier midway in the river, but it is doubtful whether the bridge rested upon it: a man of the lightest weight felt the bridge totter under him; yet wagons heavily laden passed over without danger. This bridge was destroyed by the French in 1799. The first stone bridge in England, was built at Bow near Stratford, A.D. 1087. The finest suspension bridge in Great Britain is that erected by Mr. Telford (1818-1825) over the Menai straits, which is one hundred feet above the level of spring tides, with five hundred and sixty feet between the points of suspension. This was considered one of the most surprising works of modern times; but it has been thrown in the shade by the Britannia Tubular Bridge, by which the railway from Chester to Holyhead crosses the strait. About a mile south of the suspension bridge is a rock called the Britannia rock, near the centre of the strait, the surface of which is about ten feet above low water level. Without this rock the tubular bridge would not have been feasible, and from it therefore

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the bridge fitly takes its name. On this rock is built a tower two hundred feet above high water (commenced in May, 1846), on which rest two lines of tubes or hollow girders, the ends resting on abutments on each shore, each tube being more than a quarter of a mile in length. The height of the tube within is thirty feet at the Britannia tower, diminishing to twenty-three feet at the abutments. The lifting of the tubes to their places from their position afloat on the water, is regarded as the most gigantic operation ever successfully performed. They were raised by Brahmah hydraulic presses, into which the water was injected by powerful steam-engines. A locomotive first passed through these grand corridors of iron in March, 1850. Robert Stephenson is the engineer of whose skill this bridge is the monument. A similar bridge over the St. Lawrence at Montreal, called the Victoria bridge, two miles in length, is in construction, to be completed in 1860. The greatest and oldest suspension bridge in the world, is said to be in China, near Kingtung; it is formed of chains. Rope suspension bridges, from rocks to rocks, are also of Chinese origin. One of the finest suspension bridges in the world crosses the Niagara River, about two miles and a half below the falls, by a single span of eight hundred and thirty-four feet, at a height of two hundred and thirty feet above the water. Three railways and a carriage road pass the river by this structure. Nature also has thrown wonderful bridges of rock across mountainous chasms. Of these, those of Icononzo, over fissures in the Cordilleras on the road from Bogota to Quito, the stupendous limestone arch over Cedar Creek in Virginia, and one with a span of a hundred and ninety-five feet in Carter county, Kentucky, are remarkable. The famous bridge by which the army of Xerxes crossed the Hellespont, (480 B.C.), was formed by connecting together ships of different kinds, some long vessels of fifty oars, others three-banked galleys, to the number of almost seven hundred. They were moored fast by anchors and cables of great strength. On extended cables between the lines of shipping were laid fast-bound rafters, over these a layer of boughs, and on the latter earth was thrown. On each side was a fence to prevent the horses and beasts of burthen from being terrified by the sea in their passage

from shore to shore. It is said that this wonderful work was completed in one week.

BRIENNE, a town in the French department of the Aube, at the academy of which Napoleon learned the first principles of the military art. Here on the 1st and 2d of February, the allied Russians and Prussians were defeated severely by the French. This was among the last of Napoleon's victories.

BRIGALIER, Abbé, lived during the reign of Louis XII. The superstitions of his time are displayed by some passages in his life. He was almoner to Mademoiselle de Montauban, and spent 30,000 crowns to become an adept in the magic art, without accomplishing his end. Being with the court at Compiègne, a lady who had purchased a piece of red silk, instead of green, begged the abbé to change it to the color she wished. Rather than lose his reputation as a magician, Brigalier bought a piece of green silk and gave it to the lady, who was astonished at his success, and forthwith circulated the tale. By various tricks of legerdemain, he maintained his credit as a sorcerer, so that the Archbishop of Paris gravely commanded him to desist from his unhallowed occupations.

BRINDLEY, JAMES, was born in Derbyshire, 1716, and reared as a clodhopper till his seventeenth year, without the advantages of even the most ordinary education. An apprenticeship to a millwright brought out his inventive faculties, and the untutored rustic became an ingenious mechanic and successful civil engineer. About 1757 he was consulted by the Duke of Bridgewater as to the practicability of constructing a canal from Worsley to Manchester, a distance of twenty-nine miles. Had a man of inferior genius or less dauntless courage undertaken this work, very probably a failure would have ensued, and the development of British inland navigation might have been deferred for some years longer. When the canal was completed as far as Barton, where the Irwell is navigable for large vessels, Brindley proposed to carry it over the river by an aqueduct thirty-nine feet above the water! This project was ridiculed by the practical men of the day. One much respected individual would not discount the Duke of Bridgewater's bill for five hundred pounds, and when the dimensions of the aqueduct were communicated to him, he

exclaimed, "I have often heard of castles in the air, but never before was shown where any of them were to be erected." The canal was completed in 1761, and in less than fifty years, application had been made to parliament for one hundred and sixty-five acts for making canals in Great Britain at an expense of thirteen million pounds. Many of these great channelings were engineered by Brindley. He died in 1772, the victim of intense application to his profession. He is said to have answered a committee of the House of Commons, when asked for what object rivers were created, "To feed navigable canals." Brindley could neither read nor write until late in life, and then but poorly.

BRISOT DE WARVILLE, JEAN PIERRE, a prominent character in the history of the French revolution, whose writings tended greatly to bring monarchical power into disrepute. He was the son of a pastry-cook, and was born in 1754. At the age of thirty, he was imprisoned in the Bastille, for a work which treated of prohibited subjects. After numerous changes of action and residence, which the nature of his works and the fluctuating state of his popularity rendered necessary, having been engaged for some time in England, some time with the Duke of Orleans, and some time in America, he was at last guillotined with his friends, by the faction of Robespierre, in 1793. He was the leader of the Girondists, and editor of the *Moniteur*.

BRITANNICUS. Tiberius Claudius Germanicus was called, after the return of his father, the Emperor Claudius, from Britain, Britannicus. His mother was the infamous Messalina. By the intrigues of Agrippina, the second wife of Claudius, he was poisoned, after having been excluded from the succession, A.D. 55.

BROOKS, JOHN, a revolutionary officer and eminent physician, born in Medford, Mass., 1752. His father was a farmer. After completing his professional studies, he joined with ardor the army, and was among the first to fight for the freedom of America. On the retreat of the British from Lexington, the company which he commanded had no small share in contributing to the annoyances of that humiliating flight. Brooks enjoyed the

confidence and esteem of Washington, and had a colonel's commission when the army was disbanded. He retired to the practice of his profession. The rank of major-general of militia was conferred upon him, and he showed, in the insurrection of 1780, that he had forgotten none of his former vigor and address. He was governor of Massachusetts from 1816 to 1823, and died, highly respected and esteemed, March, 1825.

BROWN, CHARLES BROCKDEN, born in Philadelphia, in 1771, was originally destined for the law, but the delicacy of his constitution and his natural timidity prevented his pursuing a legal career. He was the author of several novels, which possess a fascinating power, although their scenes are generally painful and unnatural. "Arthur Mervyn" and "Edgar Huntley" are perhaps the best. Brown edited several periodicals, and his literary labors greatly impaired his health, and hastened the progress of the consumption of which he died in 1809.

BROWN, JACOB, was born in Pennsylvania in 1775. In 1812 he entered the service of his country as a militia officer. So greatly did he shine in the defense of Ogdensburg and Sackett's Harbor, that in 1814 he was made brigadier, and soon after a major-general in the regular army. He commanded at the battles of Chippewa and Niagara. At the close of the war the only major-generals retained were Jackson and Brown. He died at Washington in 1828.

BROWN, WILLIAM, a native of Ireland, who came to the United States at the age of fourteen, in 1793, and was for a long time engaged at sea in the merchant service. After being captured by the English, he found himself, in 1814, at Buenos Ayres, in the command of a British merchant ship. He joined the republican navy, and gained great fame by his various daring exploits.

BROWNE, MAXIMILIAN ULYSSES, Count, an Irish exile, finally field-marshal of Austria. Between 1745 and 1757 he ran a career of glory. He died of wounds received at the battle of Prague, 1757.

BROWNE, Sir THOMAS, a quaint, learned, and eloquent author, was born at London 1605, educated at Winchester and Oxford, and took his medical degree at Leyden. His

principal works are "Religio Medici," Treatise on Vulgar Errors," and "Urn Burial." He died in 1682.

BRUCE, JAMES, a native of Scotland, born 1730, distinguished himself by his travels in Africa. He died in 1794. His veracity has been often doubted, but his accounts have been confirmed by more recent travelers. He penetrated to the sources of the Abyssinian branch of the Nile.

BRUCE, ROBERT, was the grandson of the competitor of Baliol for the crown of Scotland. It was left for him to accomplish the deliverance of his country, which Wallace had so nobly attempted. In his youth he had acted upon apparently no regular plan; and although he had at times served against Edward, when the Scottish forces were able to make a successful resistance, he soon made submission after their defeat, and thus avoided drawing down upon himself the implacable resentment of Edward. He appeared to have stifled his pretensions to the crown; but immediately after the death of Wallace he determined at once to assert his own rights and his country's independence. Arriving at Dumfries, from England, in February, 1306, he had a quarrel with Comyn of Badenoch, and stabbed him in the church of the Minorites, because he opposed his views. He now claimed the crown; and resentment of the treachery of Edward, and of the death of Wallace, procured him numerous followers. He was accordingly crowned King of Scotland, at Scone, on the 27th of March, the same year. An army sent by Edward soon arrived at Perth; and in a battle fought on the 19th of June, Bruce was defeated. He took refuge at Aberdeen, and afterward went toward Argyle, and was so hard pressed by the English and their adherents, that he retired to the island of Rathlin on the north-west of Ireland, and was supposed to be dead; but early in the next spring, he again displayed his banner in the west of Scotland, and gained many advantages over the English, of which the victory at Loudon Hill was the most remarkable; whilst his brother, Sir Edward, and Sir James Douglas, were equally active and successful. Bruce came north in the end of the same year, and on account of the unfavorable state of his health, which had been injured by unceasing hardships and pri-

uations, he remained some time inactive. On the 22d of May, 1308, he gained the battle of Inverary, over the Earl of Buchan and Sir John Mowbray, which was the commencement of a career of success which established him as King of Scotland. The whole of the fortresses of the kingdom were recovered excepting Stirling, which was beleaguered by his brother Edward, who entered into a treaty with the governor, by which it was agreed it should be surrendered if not relieved before the 24th of June, 1314. This led to the attempt of Edward II. to relieve it by a powerful army, and brought on the battle of Bannockburn. Bruce's army consisted of thirty thousand veterans, distinguished by their valor, the skill of their leaders, and animated by every motive which can promote heroic enterprise. He drew them up with a hill on his right flank, and a morass on his left, to prevent being surrounded by the numerous army of Edward. Having a rivulet in front, he commanded deep pits to be dug along its banks, and sharp stakes to be planted in them, and caused the whole to be carefully covered with turf. The English arrived in the evening, when Bruce was riding in the front of his army. Sir Henry Bohun, who rode up to charge him with his spear, was brought to the ground by his battle-axe. Early next morning the action commenced. Sir Robert Keith, at the head of the men-at-arms, destroyed the English archers. The English horse, under the Earl of Gloucester, rushing on to the charge, fell into the pits Bruce had prepared for them. Sir James Douglas, who commanded the Scottish cavalry, gave them no time to rally, but pushed them off the field. Whilst the infantry continued the fight, discouraged by these unfavorable events, they were thrown into a panic by the appearance of what they supposed another army advancing to surround them. This was a number of wagoners and sumpter boys, whom King Robert had collected and supplied with military standards, which gave them the appearance of an army at a distance. The stratagem was decisive, and an universal rout and immense slaughter ensued. This great and decisive battle secured the independence of Scotland, and fixed Bruce on the throne. He afterward invaded England, and laid waste the northern counties. He also

led an expedition into Ireland, in support of his brother Edward, who had been crowned king of that country, in the course of which he gained several victories. Peace was at last concluded between England and Scotland, at Northampton, in 1328, and on the 7th of June, 1329, Robert died, in the fifty-fifth year of his age, and was buried in the abbey of Dumfermline. His grand-daughter was the wife of Robert II., the first king of the house of Stuart, and from the issue of that marriage the present royal family is descended.

BRUMMELL, GEORGE BRYAN, best known as Beau Brummell, was born in June, 1778, and educated at Eton and Oxford. He became the leader of English fashion; by no means a mere dandy, but the best-dressed gentleman of the day. Neckcloths were his greatest victories. At his beck they were starched. He was fastidious in tying them. "These," solemnly said his valet, bearing forth a pile of crumpled linen, "these are our failures." So arbitrary was the king of fashion's power, that he could snub the Prince of Wales, who aspired to be the first gentleman in Europe. Coolness sprang up in the intimacy of the two, and the prince cut the beau. Brummell had full revenge, when he asked in St. James's street, just as George was stepping off, "Alvanley, pray who is your fat friend?" But the contest was unequal. Beau B. ran through his fortune, and had no nation to furnish the sinews of war. One day he wrote thus to Scrope Davies:

"MY DEAR SCROPE: Lend me two hundred pounds; the banks are shut, and all my money is in the three per cents. It shall be repaid to-morrow morning.

"Yours, GEORGE BRUMMELL."

The answer was prompt.

"MY DEAR GEORGE: 'Tis very unfortunate; but all *my* money is in the three per cents.

"Yours, S. DAVIES."

That night Mr. Brummell ran away to Calais. England and his creditors saw him no more. In France he dragged out a miserable existence, sinking from the admired of fashion to the shabby genteel; thence still lower; till at last he died at Caen in beggary and imbecility March 29th, 1840.

BRUNSWICK, the duchy of, lies in the north-west of Germany, between Hanover and Prussia, comprising 1,524 square miles, and in 1857, 269,915 people. Brunswick, its capital, has 42,000 inhabitants, and was formerly one of the Hanse Towns. The house of Brunswick was founded by Henry the Lion, who married Maud, daughter of Henry II. of England. The younger branch of this family came into possession of Hanover, and has given sovereigns to England since the commencement of the eighteenth century. Charles Frederick William, Duke of Brunswick, fell upon the battle field of Jena, 1806, and the duchy was in the power of Napoleon till 1813. The three elder sons were blind, and yielded their rights in favor of Frederick William, who was born in 1771. He joined the war against France in 1806, and continued, throughout his life, the determined enemy of Napoleon. His Black Brunswickers, so called from their dress and equipments being entirely black, held out upon the continent as long as resistance was of any avail, and finally their duke retired to England. In 1815, he again appeared in arms, and fell at Quatre-bras, commanding Wellington's van-guard, on the 16th of June. His death was atoned for by the bravery of his black hussars.

BRUTUS, LUCIUS JUNIUS, a celebrated Roman. He was the son of Marcus Junius by a daughter of Tarquin the Elder. When his father and brothers were beheaded by Tarquin, Brutus saved himself by feigning idiocy, whence his surname, signifying 'the brute,' was given him. He continued this appearance until Lucretia killed herself in consequence of the violence of Sextus Tarquin. This was the time for Brutus to rouse the Roman people to action, and display the energy of his mind. By his exertions the Tarquins were expelled and the monarchy changed to a republic. The consulship was instituted, and Brutus and Collatinus, the husband of Lucretia, were chosen the first to hold that dignity. When his sons joined in the conspiracy to restore the Tarquins, Brutus, convinced of their guilt, ordered their execution, that this example might confirm the liberty of Rome. The same year he was slain at the head of his troops, fighting against Aruns, the son of Tarquin, who also

fell in the encounter. This took place, B.C. 509. Brutus was mourned by the whole Roman people.

BRUTUS, MARCUS JUNIUS, was lineally descended from the above, whose republican principles he seemed to inherit. In the civil wars he joined Pompey, although the latter was his father's murderer, only because he looked upon him as just and patriotic in his claims. After the battle of Pharsalia, Cæsar not only spared Brutus, but made him one of his friends. He, however, forgot the favor when Cæsar displayed his ambition and tyranny, and conspired to stab Cæsar in the senate-house. Brutus was forced to retire into Greece by the excitement created by Antony. Here he gained many friends, but was soon pursued by Antony, accompanied by the young Octavius. A battle was fought at Philippi. Brutus, who commanded the right wing of the republican army, defeated the enemy; but Cassius, on the left, was overpowered, and Brutus found himself surrounded by the soldiers of Antony. He, however, made his escape, and soon after fell upon his sword, B.C. 42. It is said that, previous to this battle, a spectral figure twice the size of life, appeared to Brutus, and warned him of his fate.

BUCCANEERS. These French and English freebooters of America acquired great notoriety. After the assassination of Henry IV. of France, many Frenchmen settled in St. Christopher, an island of the Antilles. Being driven from this place in 1630, they sought refuge on the western coast of St. Domingo, and the neighboring island of Tortugas. Their wild and solitary life possessed a certain charm which induced many Englishmen to join them, and their numbers at length became considerable. They were hardy and enterprising, and, deprived of the softening influence of female society, nourished a spirit of reckless ferocity. They did not, however, display at first those stern features which afterward characterized them, but were comparatively peaceful and industrious. Those who were settled at St. Domingo, used to hunt the wild cattle of the island, whose hides they sold to the crews that landed on their coast. They were accustomed to *boucaner* (that is, to smoke) the flesh of these animals before large fires, and

thence received the name of boucaneers, or buccaneers. Increasing in strength and spirit, they defied the attempts of the Spaniards to subdue them, and soon made themselves formidable by their predatory excursions.

The Spaniards resolved to extirpate the wild cattle, and thus induce the buccaneers to become farmers for support, or else to join their more lawless comrades on the island of Tortugas. The buccaneers nourished a deep-seated hatred of the Spaniards, and it was their vessels which were most frequently attacked by the pirates. Sailing from the American ports, laden with the most precious productions of the New World, the size and strength of the galleons formed no adequate protection against the numbers and intrepidity of the buccaneers, who attacked them in boats, ill equipped it is true, but manned by crews of iron nerve and unquailing resolution. The spirit of the Spaniards became crushed by the repeated successes of the buccaneers, and before long they did not even attempt to defend themselves. Thus when Laurent, a famous buccaneer, found himself in a small vessel, with a few guns, and two Spanish ships each of sixty guns along-side, the desperation and fury of his resistance so overawed the Spanish officers, that they permitted him to escape, although they had him completely in their power.

The leaders of the buccaneers were chosen for superior daring, but enjoyed but few privileges save that of being foremost in danger. In dividing the spoils, all had an equal share, or, if any exception was made, it was in favor of those who had received very severe wounds in combat. The captain had no larger share than any of his followers, unless he happened to have displayed extraordinary skill and valor. Previous to dividing the booty, each was obliged to swear that he had kept back no part of the prize, and perjury, which was of rare occurrence, was punished by the exile of the offender to a desert island. The share of those who had fallen was appropriated to relieve the necessities of their relations, or as gifts to the church, in case there were no surviving friends or relatives. The buccaneers were scrupulous in observing the outward rites of religion, and offered up prayers for the success of each enterprise

before embarking in it. So formidable were the operations of the buccaneers, that they greatly diminished the trade between Spain and America. The baleful effects of the climate, and the nature of their occupation, gradually diminished their numbers, till they were at length extirpated by the French and English governments. From them originated the French settlements on the western part of St. Domingo, although their piracies were ended in the commencement of the eighteenth century.

Several of their leaders acquired a reputation for daring and enterprise which has preserved their names from oblivion. One of the most noted of these was Montbar, the son of a gentleman of Languedoc, who early imbibed a hatred for the Spaniards. While at school, performing the part of a Frenchman in a drama, in his combat with a fellow-student, who represented a Spaniard, he so far forgot the reality of his situation, in the illusion of the moment, that he would have slain his antagonist but for the intervention of the more cool-headed spectators. At an early age Montbar embarked for America, and was highly delighted when one day a Spanish galleon hove in sight. Long before the vessels met, Montbar had completed his preparations for the combat, and, with an unsheathed sword beneath his arm, was pacing the deck, in all the hot hurry of untried valor. The moment the vessels closed, calling to the boarders, he sprang on the deck of the galleon, and carried all before him by the impetuosity of his attack. While his comrades were busy in estimating and dividing the booty, he was sternly gazing on the stiffened bodies of the first victims of his hatred, like an eagle hovering over the slain. Arrived at St. Domingo, the buccaneers who came on board to trade, complained that the Spaniards, during their absence in the chase, destroyed their settlements. "Make me your leader," cried Montbar, "and I will teach these spoilers that there exists a power greater than theirs. I seek for no emoluments: the joys of battle are enough for me." Struck with his appearance and impetuosity, they chose him their leader, and had no reason to repent having done so, for he unweariedly pursued the Spaniards with invariable success, and succeeded in induc-

ing the Indians to forsake the Spaniards and league against them with the buccaneers.

BUCHANAN, GEORGE, the famous Latin poet and historian of Scotland, born 1506, died 1582.

BUCHANAN, CLAUDIUS, an eminent missionary to the East Indies, born near Glasgow, March 12th, 1766, died Feb. 9th, 1815.

BUENA VISTA, a mountain pass between San Luis and Saltillo in Mexico. Here, Feb. 23d, 1847, the Mexicans attacked the Americans. Santa Anna sent Taylor a summons to surrender at discretion. Old "Rough and Ready" immediately replied, "declining to accede to the request." Santa Anna's force was the flower of the Mexican army, and 20,000 strong. Taylor only had 4,500 men, of whom 4,000 were untried volunteers. The complete success of Taylor struck terror and dismay into the hearts of the Mexican nation. The American loss was 267 killed, 456 wounded, and 23 missing: that of the Mexicans exceeded 1,500.

BUENOS AYRES, formerly a Spanish province, and afterward a part of the Argentine Confederation, is now a republic by itself. The area is roughly estimated at 60,000 square miles; the population probably does not exceed 350,000. The western and northern parts of the country are rough, but large portions are extremely level; in the south, for instance, the pampas (immense plains) are more than 1200 miles long, and 500 broad, filled with wild cattle, and the abode of Indians hardly less wild. The fertility of a large proportion of the soil is surprising, although agriculture is neglected for the rearing of cattle. Among the mineral productions are gold, silver, copper, tin, and lead. Hides, tallow, and beef are exported in great quantities. The only town of much importance is the capital, Buenos Ayres, which was founded in 1535, and contains a population of 120,000. A few of the public buildings may well be called magnificent, but generally architecture is in a low state in Buenos Ayres, chiefly from the scarcity of good building material, chalk and brick forming but a very inferior substitute. In 1826, it was made the seat of government of the United Provinces of La Plata. In 1806, it was captured by the English, who were shortly afterward attacked by surprise, and

suffered great loss. The reinforcements which came over the following year, were received into the city with apparent submission, but then attacked with vigor, and compelled to conclude a truce, after suffering immense loss. The trade of the city is very considerable.

BUFFON, GEORGE LOUIS LE CLERC, Comte de, a famous French naturalist, born at Montbard in Burgundy, in 1707, died at Paris, April 16th, 1788. His "Natural History" continues to be read with pleasure, and at the time of its appearance differed from all previous works, which were merely masses of technical description, with no interesting general views and details.

BULL. A papal bull is an apostolical rescript or edict, of ancient use, and generally written on parchment. The bull is, properly, the seal, deriving its name from *bulia*, and has been made of gold, silver, lead, and wax. On one side are the heads of Peter and Paul; on the other, the name of the pope, and year of his pontificate. The celebrated golden bull of the Emperor Charles IV. was so called because of its golden seal, and was made the fundamental law of the German empire at the diet of Nuremberg, 1356. Papal bulls denouncing Queen Elizabeth and her abettors, and consigning them to hell-fire, accompanied the boastful Spanish armada, 1588.

BULL BAITING, a sport of Spain and Portugal, somewhat equivalent in those countries to the fights of the gladiators among the Romans. It is recorded as being an amusement at Stamford in England so early as 1209. Bull running was a sport at Tutbury in 1374. Among the sports of 'Merrie England' were the "Easter fierce hunts, when foaming boars fought for their heads and lusty bulls and huge bears were baited with dogs;" and near the *Clink*, London, was the Paris, or bear garden, so celebrated in the time of Queen Bess for the exhibition of bear-baiting, then a fashionable amusement. Bull-fights were introduced into Spain about 1260, and abolished there, "except for *pious* and *patriotic* purposes," in 1784. There was a bull-fight at Lisbon, at Campo de Santa Anna, attended by ten thousand spectators, Sunday, June 14th, 1840.

BUNKER HILL. This memorable battle was fought June 17th, 1775. On the eve-

ning of June 16th, Col. Prescott received orders to fortify Bunker Hill, but Gen. Putnam, who had the command of the expedition, finding Breed's Hill more suitable, the requisite fortifications were rapidly thrown up on that height. The British were unconscious of the enterprise until morning, when their ships-of-war, floating batteries, and the guns of Copp's Hill, opened a severe fire on the Americans. At one o'clock, the troops under Howe landed in Charlestown, and were soon after reinforced which swelled their number to about 5,000 men, with six field-pieces. The British troops were well equipped and officered, possessed all the advantages of strict discipline, and were by no means distrustful of the issue of the contest. The American army, on the other hand, having been hastily called together, was composed of men who had few ideas of military combinations, and whose weapons were generally fowling-pieces without bayonets, but who were all animated by one spirit. Their leaders were beloved and respected by them, and were men of tried truth and nerve; Putnam, Stark, Pomeroy, Warren, and Prescott, men whose names yet call a glow into the bosom of every patriot. The provincial troops amounted to perhaps 2,000 men, with two field-pieces. "Don't fire," said Putnam to his men, "till you can see the whites of their eyes." The British approached unmolested till within close gun-shot, when the tremendous fire of the provincials drove them back with great slaughter. In the second attack, Charlestown was set on fire and burned to the ground, adding its raging flames to the other horrors of the battle scene. As the ammunition of the Americans was nearly exhausted, the third attack carried the redoubt, although the provincials resisted the British with the butt-ends of their muskets, and slowly retreated from the hill. The Americans lost 115 killed (among them General Warren), 305 wounded, and 30 were made prisoners. The British lost 1,054 in killed and wounded.

As the Americans retreated across Bunker's Hill, Gen. Putnam used every exertion to rally them. He commanded, begged, cursed and swore like a madman. "Halt! Make a stand here!" he cried; "we can check them yet. In God's name form, and give them one shot more." It is said that for the torrent of

profanity in which the brave old general indulged at this time, he made a confession, after the war, before the church of which he was a member. "It was almost enough to make an angel swear," he said, "to see the cowards refuse to secure a victory so nearly won." But the undisciplined yeomanry were destitute of ammunition; thrice had they repulsed a force superior in strength and skill; and whatever victory the British had gained was more humiliating than defeat. A lofty monument now stands upon the site of the redoubt.

BUNYAN, JOHN, the son of a tinker, born at Elston, in 1628. At an early age he was dissipated, and served as a soldier in the parliamentary army. Reflection and reformation, however, brought out the bright points of his character. He became a member of a society of Anabaptists, and finally their teacher. As a dissenter he was imprisoned in Bedford jail, twelve years, and the occupation of his mind during his long confinement, was the composition of his unrivaled "Pilgrim's Progress," that wonderful religious allegory, bearing the impress of a strong mind and an ardent imagination. Bunyan died in 1688. Robert, his last male descendant in a direct line, died at Lincoln, England, Nov. 27th, 1855, aged eighty.

BURCKHARDT, JOHN LOUIS, famous for his travels in Africa, born at Lausanne in 1784. His country being oppressed by France, he went to London in 1806, and was engaged by the African association to explore Africa from the north. To facilitate his progress in Nubia and other parts of the country, he assumed the character of a Syrian Turk, and so thoroughly acquainted with the manners and religion of the East was he, that he underwent an examination by two learned jurists, and was pronounced by them a learned and true Mussulman. He died at Cairo, October 15th, 1817, and was buried in the Mussulman cemetery with great splendor.

BURGOYNE, JOHN, the natural son of Lord Bingley, a general in the English army, and also an agreeable dramatist. He entered the army at an early age, and, in 1762, had the command of a body of troops sent to Portugal for the defense of that kingdom against the Spaniards. He distinguished himself in the American war by taking Ticonderoga, but

after severe engagements at Stillwater and Saratoga, was forced to surrender, with his whole army, to General Gates, in 1777. Afterward he sat in parliament, and in 1781 he warmly advocated the discontinuance of hostilities.

BURGUNDIANS, a tribe of Germans, a branch of the Vandals, who occupied a part of France, in the fifth century, which has since been called Burgundy. It was long an independent state, but was attached to France in the latter part of the fifteenth century, on the death of Charles the Bold. The independent dukes of Burgundy rendered their name illustrious, and many of them were distinguished for their bravery and other high qualities.

BURIAL. This was the earliest mode of disposing of dead bodies, and the first idea of it is said to have been formed from observing a live bird covering a dead one with leaves. The antiquity of the custom of burning the dead rises as high as the Theban war; it was practiced among the Greeks and Romans, and Homer abounds with descriptions of such obsequies. It was very general about 1225 B.C.; it was revived by Sylla for fear the relics of the dead in graves should be violated by enemies, and was not in disuse till the time of Macrobius. Among the most ancient sepulchres were those circular mounds yet discernible in various countries, and in Britain called *barrows*. Several of these near Stonehenge having been opened, curious remains of Celtic ornaments, such as beads, buckles, and brooches, in amber, wood, and gold, were found. Places of burial were consecrated under Pope Calixtus I. in 210; the first Christian burial-place was instituted in 596; burial in cities, 742; in consecrated places, 750; in churchyards, 758. Woolen shrouds were used in England, 1666. The ancients had not the unwise custom of crowding all their dead in the midst of their towns and cities, within the narrow precincts of a place reputed sacred; much less of amassing them in the bosoms of their fane and temples, as has been the habit in European countries. The mortuaries of the Greeks and Romans were at a distance from the towns; those of the latter generally near the highways, whence came the necessity for inscriptions on the tombs; and the Jews had their sepulchres in gardens, and in fields, and among rocks and

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mountains. The practice of inhuming in churchyards and within religious edifices was introduced by the Romish clergy, who pretended that the dead enjoyed peculiar privileges from interment in consecrated ground. It is now the custom to bury the dead in cemeteries. One of the most celebrated of these is Père la Chaise. It takes its name from a French Jesuit, the confessor of Louis XIV. He died in 1709, and the site of his house and grounds at Paris is now occupied by this beautiful cemetery. The burying places of the Turks are handsome and agreeable, which is owing chiefly to the fine shrubbery and plants carefully placed over the dead. It was a practice of high antiquity to plant herbs and flowers about the graves of departed friends. The Romans strewed roses upon their tombs; the Greeks, amaranth and myrtle. The women in Egypt go weekly to pray and weep at the sepulchres, and throw sweet basil upon them. In Asia Minor and Turkey in Europe, the tombs are also adorned either with palm-leaves, boughs of myrtle, or cypresses planted at the head and foot. Between some of the tombs is put a chest of ornamental stone, filled with earth, in which are planted herbs and aromatic flowers. These are regularly cultivated by women who assemble in groups for that duty. The Athenian heroes were buried in coffins of cedar, because of the aromatic and incorruptible nature of that wood. Coffins of marble and stone were used by the Romans. Alexander is said to have been buried in one of gold. Glass coffins have been found in England, and the earliest record of wooden coffins there is in the burial of King Arthur, who was buried in an entire trunk of oak, hollowed, A.D. 542.

BURKE, EDMUND, a statesman and great political writer, was born at Dublin, January 1st, 1730. He was contemporary with Pitt and Fox. After finishing his education at Trinity College, Dublin, he entered his name at the Middle Temple as a law student, but devoted himself to literature. His political career commenced by his accompanying Hamilton, secretary of the lord-lieutenant of Ireland, to Dublin, and on his return he was made private secretary to the Marquis of Rockingham. On the fall of the Rockingham ministry, he wrote a pamphlet on the subject, and became an active member of the opposi-

tion, being chosen for Bristol, in 1774, without expense. His speeches in the senate eclipsed even the reputation of his writings, and were delivered with a vehemence which it was difficult to resist. He was strenuous for the conciliation of the American colonies. On the return of the Rockingham administration, Mr. Burke for a short time filled the office of paymaster-general, but he resigned the post, upon the succession of Lord Shelburne to the premiership. The leading features of his subsequent political life, in which he held no office, are his impeachment of Warren Hastings; his opposition to the limited regency in 1788; his prediction of the effects of the French revolution, and his separation from Mr. Fox upon those sentiments. This was his last great political act, all his subsequent ones being to establish and defend it. On this subject he published several pamphlets, the merit of which obtained him a pension, and many severe reflections from his opponents, to which he replied in "A Letter to a Noble Lord," replete with sarcastic irony. He died July 8th, 1797. Mr. Burke had a commanding oratory, to enhance which he spared no incidental act of gesticulation and manner. On one occasion, he is said to have drawn forth and brandished a dagger to give a greater effect to his words.

BURNS, ROBERT, the greatest of Scottish bards, was the son of a gardener, and was born near the town of Ayr, January 25th, 1759. He had some instruction and was fond of reading. His poetical talent was first displayed in some amatory verses, and his conversational talents caused him to be sought for by convivial parties, which tended to fix his habits of dissipation. The publication of his poems procured him a sum of money larger than he anticipated, and a high literary reputation. He was enabled to take a farm near Dumfries, and at the same time procured the office of exciseman. He married the early object of his affections, the "bonnie Jean" of whom he has written so tenderly in the most musical of his verses. She survived the poet who had immortalized her name, and died in the year 1834. Burns might have prospered and enjoyed a long life, had he but listened to the advice and remonstrances of his friends, and forsaken those ruinous indulgences that produced or at least hastened his



BIRTH-PLACE OF ROBERT BURNS.

death, which took place July 21st, 1796. Burns was emphatically the poet of truth and of nature. His most beautiful poems were composed in the spirit of truth, and glow with the fire of real feeling and passion. Full of affectionate and sad remembrances, he composed the verses "To Mary in Heaven," commencing;

"My Mary, dear departed shade,
Where is thy blissful place of rest?
Seest thou thy lover lowly laid,
Hear'st thou the groans that rend his breast?"

In this he celebrates their last meeting. The Mary of Burns was a peasant-girl, whose acquirements merely enabled her to read her Bible and psalm-book, and who walked barefooted to their trysting-place, and yet she inspired the most enthusiastic attachment in a man whose intellect cast a glory upon the hills, and woods, and streams of his native land, and a halo round the objects of his love, which will endure as long as the human breast is warmed with the glow of social and patriotic feeling.

BURR, AARON, was born in Newark, N. J., February 5th, 1756. His father was the pious president of Princeton College, and his mother

the daughter of that devout divine, Jonathan Edwards. But death robbed him early of their care, and his life was in deep contrast to such parentage. Brilliant talents he displayed in his youthful collegiate career, and bravery in the ardor with which he threw himself into the patriotic cause. He was a volunteer in Arnold's expedition against Quebec, and fought close by Montgomery when that brave man fell. He reached the rank of lieutenant-colonel. Ill health forced him to leave the army in 1779. He was soon foremost at the bar of New York, and from 1791 to 1797 was a member of the United States Senate. In 1800, he was a candidate for the presidency against Jefferson. The choice devolved upon the House of Representatives. On the thirty-sixth ballot Jefferson was elected president, and Burr vice-president. The murder of Alexander Hamilton by Burr in a duel in 1804, brought great hatred upon the latter. In 1807 Burr was tried for treason, being accused of an attempt to rear an empire in the south-west, but he was acquitted. His public life was at an end, and he lived in comparative obscurity till his death, Sept. 14th, 1836.

BURROWS, WILLIAM, born October 6th,

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1785, a gallant officer in the United States navy, who fell a victim in the moment of glory, Sept. 6th, 1813, commanding the *Enterprise*, which engaged the British brig *Boxer*; he received a mortal wound early in the action, and when the sword of the enemy was presented to him, he exclaimed, "I am satisfied; I die content;" and soon after expired. The action lasted forty-five minutes.

BUSACO, a mountain ridge in Portugal, celebrated for the repulse of the French under Massena, by the English under Lord Wellington, Sept. 27th, 1810.

BUTLER, RICHARD, an officer of the Revolutionary war, colonel of Morgan's rifle corps, shared at Saratoga, and many other places, the renown of that admirable body. After a life of honor, General Butler fell, in the defeat of St. Clair's army, by the Indians, Nov. 4th, 1791.

BUTLER, THOMAS, brother of Richard, and a brave officer, joined the army in 1776, was at Brandywine, served through the war, and was very severely wounded in the war with the Indians, at the battle where his brother fell. His latter years were embittered by disputes with General Wilkinson, which were closed by death, Sept. 7th, 1805, aged fifty-one. He would not yield to the general order which required officers and soldiers to cut the hair close to the head.

BUTLER, SAMUEL, an English poet, the son of a farmer, born in Stresham, Worcestershire, in 1612. His pungent satire of "Hudibras," in which the weak points of the Puritans are happily exposed, brought the author into notice, but did not better his circumstances, and he died poor in 1680.

BYLES, MATHEW, D.D., a clergyman of Boston, born in 1706. He was for some time pastor of the Hollis Street Church, but was removed from his pulpit in consequence of his Tory principles. His political opinions subjected him to a temporary imprisonment on board a guard-ship. He was however released, but a guard put over him in his own house. The guard was removed, and then replaced in consequence of further complaint against him. Finally, the presence of the sentinel was dispensed with. It was on this occasion, that the witty doctor remarked that he had been "guarded, regarded, and disregarded." When two selectmen stuck fast in

the slough opposite his house, he said to them, "Gentlemen, I have several times complained of this nuisance, and am therefore pleased to see you stirring in the matter." Byles corresponded with Pope, Lansdowne, and Watts, and possessed some poetical talent. His essays and poems were collected, and published in a volume. He died in Boston, July 5th, 1788.

BYNG, GEORGE, an English admiral, born in 1663. He became rear-admiral in 1703. In 1706, he relieved Barcelona, besieged by the Duke of Anjou; and in 1708, frustrated the efforts of the French to assist the Pretender by an invasion. In 1718, he defeated the Spanish fleet off Sicily. For these, and other services, he received many offices and honors, and was made Viscount Torrington. He died in 1733.

BYNG, JOHN, an English admiral, son of the preceding, served under his father in many expeditions, and, although esteemed an able seaman and a brave man, was ruined by partisan animosity. Failing in his attempts to relieve Minorca, in 1755, he was tried by a court-martial, and, although recommended to mercy, shot in 1757. After party fury had subsided, and his conduct had been dispassionately examined, his intentions were allowed to have been good, his courage indisputable, and his death the consequence of rancorous misrepresentation from personal dislike. His conduct in his last moments confirmed no part of the evidence against him; it was cool, determined, dignified, and resigned. Immediate posterity honored him as a British admiral; his connections, as a man of honor; and it was obtained from among the secrets of ministerial intrigue, that he was the victim of ministerial cowardice, undeserving of the disgrace of an execution, and obedient to orders which the men in office had not the courage to avow.

BYRON, GEORGE GORDON, Lord, one of the most celebrated English poets of modern days, was born in London, Jan. 22d, 1788. Admiral Byron, the great voyager, was his grandfather. His mother was a Scotch heiress, only daughter of George Gordon, Esq., of Aberdeenshire, and his father was Captain Byron, or, as he was popularly termed, for his reckless profligacy, 'Mad Jack Byron of the Guards.' The parents of the poet lived

unhappily together, and the heartless libertine who transmitted so many failings to his son, squandered the property of the woman he had married for her wealth, and reduced her to comparative poverty. Economy induced Mrs. Byron to take up her residence at Aberdeen in 1790, where her son was placed at school. Her management of young Byron was anything but judicious, and in her fits of passion, she even reproached him with the lameness of one of his feet, a deformity which although trifling was severely felt by the sensitive poet, and even engendered many of his misanthropic views. It was rarely that he alluded to it in a jesting way. In his youth, however, he was acquainted with a child who had a similar defect, and used to say to his nurse, in the Scotch dialect which he had acquired, "See the twa laddies wi' the twa club feet ganging up the high street." His rambles among the Highlands of Scotland had a strong effect upon his imagination, and probably kindled the spark which afterward brightened to a flame. In one of his poems he says:

"Long have I roamed through lands which are
not mine,

Adored the Alps, and loved the Appenine,
Revered Parnassus, and beheld the steep
Jove's Ida and Olympus crown the deep;
But 't was not all long ages' yore, nor all
Their nature held me in their thrilling thrall;
The infant rapture still survived the boy,
And Loch-na-gar with Ida looked o'er Troy,
Mixed Celtic memories with the Phrygian mount,
And Highland linns with Castalie's clear fount.
Forgive me, Homer's universal shade!
Forgive me, Phœbus! that my fancy strayed;
The North and nature taught me to adore
Your scenes sublime, from those beloved before."

To this passage the following note is appended by the author: "When very young, about eight years of age, after an attack of the scarlet fever at Aberdeen, I was removed by medical advice into the Highlands. Here I passed occasionally some summers, and from this period I date my love of mountainous countries. I can never forget the effect, a few years afterward in England, of the only thing I had long seen, even in miniature, of a mountain, in the Malvern Hills. After I returned to Cheltenham, I used to watch them every afternoon at sunset, with a sensation which I can not describe. This was boyish enough; but I was then only thirteen years of age, and it was in the holidays."

In the year 1798, on the death of his grand-uncle, he succeeded to a baronial estate and title, and became a chancery ward under the guardianship of the Earl of Carlisle, against whom he soon conceived a dislike. Placed at Harrow, he had to encounter all the temptations and annoyances inseparable from public education. School-boys are not famous for feeling, and the lameness of Byron was perpetually called to mind by the rudest practical sarcasms. He would often wake and find his lame foot plunged in a pail of water. Through Harrow, he fairly fought his way. "I had," said he, in one of his conversations with Captain Medwin, "a spirit that ill brooked the restraints of school discipline; for I had been encouraged by servants in all my violence of temper, and was used to command. Everything like a task was repugnant to my nature, and I came away a very indifferent classic, and read in nothing that was useful. That subordination which is the soul of all discipline, I submitted to with difficulty; yet I did submit to it; and I have always retained a sense of Drury's kindness, which enabled me to bear it and fagging too. The Duke of Dorset was my fag. I was not a very hard task-master. There were times at which, if I had not considered it as a school, I should have been happy at Harrow. There is one spot I should like to see again: I was particularly delighted with the view from the church-yard, and used to sit for hours on the stile leading into the fields; even then I formed a wish to be buried there." "There were two things that strike me at this moment, that I did at Harrow. I fought Lord Calthorpe for writing atheist under my name; and prevented the school-room from being burnt during a rebellion, by pointing out to the boys the names of their fathers and grandfathers on the walls."

In October, 1805, the young lord entered Cambridge university, where he was little distinguished for application, and showed no great respect for academic honors. He even evinced his contempt for them by keeping a young bear in his room, which he said he was training for a fellowship. In his twentieth year he took up his abode at Newstead Abbey, a fine old building, which he proceeded immediately to repair. His "Hours of

Idleness" now appeared, a collection of poems written during his minority, which was attacked by the *Edinburgh Review* with a degree of malignity and violence that provoked the youthful bard to vindicate his reputation in a satire entitled "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers." This severe and sweeping philippic appeared a few days after he had taken his seat in the House of Lords, and gained the favor of the public in a short time. He soon after went abroad, traveling through Portugal, Spain, and Greece. The scenes through which he passed are finely described in "Childe Harold's Pilgrimage." In the east he swam from Sestos to Abydos, and prided himself greatly on this daring feat. He returned to England in 1811, after an absence of two years.

He hastened to Newstead, but arrived too late to close the eyes of his mother. About this period, the acquaintance between himself and Thomas Moore commenced, an acquaintance which afterward ripened into the warmest friendship. On the 29th of February, 1812, appeared the two first cantos of "Childe Harold," and the success and sale of the work was instantaneous. The hero, a proud but melancholy wanderer, satiated with sensual pleasure, was at once recognized as a delineation of the noble author, notwithstanding his decisive denial. The "Giaour," the "Bride of Abydos," and the "Corsair," poems in all of which the author displayed his unrivaled talents, and accurate knowledge of eastern customs and manners, followed at short intervals. Of one of these, twenty thousand copies were sold in one day. On the 2d of January, 1815, Byron married Miss Milbanke, daughter of Sir Ralph Milbanke. The marriage was unhappy, and after various quarrels, and much distress, the parties separated. Ada, the daughter of unhappy parents, was taken from Byron, who, in 1816, left England forever. He gave in conversation the following melancholy account of his situation immediately before leaving England: "In addition to all my other mortifications, my affairs were irretrievably involved, and almost so as to make me what they wished. I was compelled to part with Newstead, which I never could have ventured to sell in my mother's lifetime. As it is I shall never forgive myself for having done

so; though I am told that the estate would not now bring half so much as I got for it. This does not at all reconcile me to having parted from the old abbey. I did not make up my mind to this step but from the last necessity. I had my wife's portion to repay, and was determined to add £10,000 more of my own to it, which I did. I always hated being in debt, and do not owe a guinea. The moment I put my affairs in train, and in little more than eighteen months after my marriage, I left England, an involuntary exile, intending it should be forever."

After his residence in Italy, where his dramas and many other poems were written, and where he was alternately dissolute and temperate, the revolution in Greece engaged his attention, and he determined to embark his person and fortune in the cause of liberty. He was received in Greece with enthusiasm, and proceeded to Missolonghi, where his reception was most gratifying to his feelings. He immediately formed a brigade of five hundred Suliotes. He was aware of the dissensions existing among the Greeks, but was confident of their ultimate success. He was urged to go to Zante, on account of the unhealthiness of Missolonghi. "I can not quit Greece," he wrote to a friend, "while there is a chance of my being even of (supposed) utility. There is a stake worth millions such as I am, and while I can stand at all, I must stand by the cause. While I say this, I am aware of the difficulties, dissensions, and defects of the Greeks themselves; but allowance must be made for them by all reasonable people."

On the 9th of April, while riding on horseback, he was overtaken by a rain-storm, and the feverish cold he took was the precursor of a fatal malady. He died April 19th, 1824; his last thoughts, as his words indicated, were with his wife and child. His funeral was solemnized in Missolonghi, and his death publicly mourned in Greece. His body was conveyed to England, and interred at Hucknall church, near Newstead Abbey. The exterior of the coffin bore the following inscription: "George Gordon Noel Byron, Lord Byron of Rochdale; born in London, Jan. 22d, 1788. Died at Missolonghi, in Western Greece, April 19th, 1824."

Most of Lord Byron's vices sprang from

his freedom from all control at an age when he most stood in need of friendly advice and friendly restraint, to guard him from those evils which beset young men, and particularly young men of rank, in the outset of their career. Yet his reckless gallantry, and laxity of morals, did not efface fine traits of feeling, benevolence, and a respect for virtue. His attachment to his daughter Ada was sincere and lasting; and he often spoke of his wife with affection and respect. Medwin says that his absent daughter occupied much of his thoughts. "He opened his writing desk, and showed me some hair, which he told me was his child's. During our ride and drive this evening, he declined our usual amusement of pistol-firing, without assigning a cause. He hardly spoke a word during the first half-hour, and it was evident that something weighed heavily on his mind. There was a sacredness in his melancholy that I dared not interrupt. At length he said: "This is Ada's birth-day, and might have been the happiest day of my life; as it is —!" He stopped, seemingly ashamed of having betrayed his feelings. He tried in vain to rally his spirits by turning the conversation; but he created a laugh in which he could not join, and soon relapsed into his former reverie. It lasted till we came within a mile of the Argive gate. There our silence was all at once interrupted by shrieks that seemed to proceed from a cottage by the side of the road. We pulled up our horses, to inquire of a *contadino* standing at the little garden-wicket. He told us that a widow had just lost her only child, and that the sounds proceeded from the wailings of some women over the corpse. Lord Byron was much affected, and his superstition, acted upon by a sadness that seemed to be presentiment, led him to augur some disaster. "I shall not be happy," said he, "till I hear that my daughter is well. I have a great horror of

anniversaries; people only laugh at it, who have never kept a register of them. I always write to my sister on Ada's birthday. I did so last year; and, what was very remarkable, my letter reached her on my wedding-day, and her answer reached me at Ravenna on my birthday. Several extraordinary things have happened to me on my birthday; so they did to Napoleon; and a more wonderful circumstance still occurred to Marie Antoinette." That Lord Byron should have joined to his religious skepticism some superstitious weaknesses, will surprise many; yet it should seem no incompatibility. There is little or no connection between reason and sentiment, and all imaginative persons are liable to this disease: for superstition is the malady of man himself, only as he is an imaginative animal. Byron once consulted a conjurer, more out of sport than curiosity. He was told that two years would be fatal to him, his twenty-seventh and his thirty-seventh. In the first he married, in the second he died.

BYZANTIUM, named from Byzas its founder, was situated on the site of the present city of Constantinople. It was founded by a Greek colony, B.C. 667. Philip of Macedon laid siege to it. One dark night his soldiers had almost gained the town, when a light shone suddenly from the north, and revealed to the inhabitants their danger. The thankful Byzantines built an altar to Diana, and assumed the crescent as the emblem of their city. When the Turks conquered Constantinople, they adopted it as their own device. From the Thracians, Scythians, and Gauls, and under the Roman emperors Severus and Gallienus, Byzantium suffered severely. During the reign of Constantine the Great, it was rebuilt and made the capital of the empire. The Byzantine empire is a name given to the Eastern Roman empire.

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CABOT, SEBASTIAN, a celebrated navigator, son of John Cabot, was born at Bristol, in 1467. He was the discoverer of Florida. He visited the eastern side of the island of Newfoundland. John Cabot and his son Sebastian discovered, on the 24th of June, 1497, the shores of Newfoundland. The neighboring island received the name of St. John, because it was discovered upon the festival of that saint. After having sailed in the English service, Sebastian went to Spain in 1526, where he was furnished with vessels with which he ascended the river La Plata. He made other voyages also in Spanish vessels. He returned to England, however, and was graced with various dignities, and intrusted with the direction of the Merchants' Company, formed for the purpose of making discoveries. He superintended Willoughby's expedition in 1553, and an act of Edward VI., dated 1549, grants him a pension of £166, a considerable sum if we consider the value of money at that period. He is supposed to have died in 1557.

CADE, JOHN, a native of Ireland, who, having been compelled to fly to France, returned to England in 1450, assumed the popular name of John Mortimer, and raised a formidable force in Kent, at the head of which he placed himself. He promised to lay down his arms, if the grievances of which he complained were redressed; but losing his authority over his followers they committed various outrages which were resented by the well-disposed part of the community. The rebels were defeated, a price was set on Cade's head, and he was killed by one Iden, a gentleman of Sussex, 1451.

CADMUS. This name belongs to several characters of mythology and history. One, a Phœnician, brought a colony of his countrymen to Greece, and introduced letters there, B.C. 1550.

CADOUDAL, GEORGE, a Chouan chief, who with Gen. Pichegru, was concerned in a conspiracy to take the life of Bonaparte when first consul. He was brought over to France in a British government vessel, but was seized

by the police, tried, condemned, and executed June 24th, 1804, aged thirty-five years.

CADWALLADER, JOHN, a distinguished military officer, born in Philadelphia. He commanded the Pennsylvania troops in the winter of 1777, and enjoyed the confidence of General Washington. At the battles of Princeton, Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth, he served as a volunteer or acted in his command, and died in 1786.

CÆSAR, CAIUS JULIUS, descended from the illustrious family of Julia, which traced its origin to Æneas and Venus, was born 100 B.C. In his infancy he witnessed the civil wars of Sylla and his maternal uncle, Marius. When Cæsar had arrived at man's estate, Sylla, then at the height of power, could not excuse his crime in being the nephew of Marius, and the son-in-law of Cinna. He was proscribed, and his sentence was revoked only by means of the earnest solicitations of the vestals, and the credit of his family. Sylla is said to have declared, in yielding to their urgency, that they would one day repent having saved the life of a young man in whom he beheld the spirit of more than one Marius. Young Cæsar commenced his military career in Asia. Returning to Rome after the death of Sylla, he gained applause and popularity by his eloquence, an art in which Appollonius of Rhodes was his instructor. While absent from Rome, pursuing his studies, he learned that Mithridates had attacked the provinces of the allies of Rome, and accordingly, leaving Rhodes for the continent, he assembled troops and led them against the king of Pontus.

On his return to Rome, finding Pompey at the head of the senate and the republic, and fearing that his connection with the partisans of Marius might prove disadvantageous to him, he joined the Pompeian party. The office of military tribune, and afterward that of questor, were conferred upon Cæsar. Upon pronouncing the funeral eulogium on his aunt Julia, while enjoying the latter dignity, he produced the images of Marius, which had not seen the light since the dictatorship of

Sylla. When promoted to the dignity of ædile, he caused the statues and trophies of Marius to be replaced. At this period he was accused of aiming at the supreme power, but the people, whose tastes he flattered, vaunted his devotion and courage, and the zeal with which he had discharged his official duties; and the multitude did not forget the magnificent spectacles for which they were indebted to him, and the ample arrangements which he had made for the accommodation of the spectators at the public shows. When the conspiracy of Cataline was discovered, Cæsar had the hardihood to recommend the conspirators to mercy, and sustained his opinion with a warmth which gave rise to a suspicion that he was not altogether a stranger to the plot. So strongly did the tide of indignation set against him, that the knights who composed the guard on that day, waited only for a sign from Cicero to kill him; but the latter, fearing that it would be impossible to substantiate his guilt, saved him from their fury. Cæsar, while engaged in ambitious schemes, mingled in the dissipation of the day, and concealed under the exterior of a man of pleasure the traits of a determined foe to liberty.

On the death of Metellus, Cæsar obtained the office of *pontifex maximus*, although two powerful men were his competitors. He had so plunged himself in debt by his heavy bribery, that on the day of the election, seeing his mother in tears, he embraced her, and said, "To-day you will see me a high-priest or an exile." Shortly after this, Clodius having been accused of attempting to corrupt the fidelity of Cæsar's wife, he divorced her, and said, "The wife of Cæsar must not even be suspected." He was then pretor; afterward the government of Spain fell to his lot. A saying of his at this time proved that he then entertained the most ambitious ideas. At a poor village in the Alps, some of his friends asked if, in that miserable place, power and rank occasioned discussion. "I had rather," said he to them, "be the first even in this place, than the second in Rome." He was by no means idle in his government, but made many conquests, while he did not neglect his private interests, for he extorted money enough to pay his enormous debts,

and enable him to purchase a vast number of creatures.

To obtain the consulate, he reconciled Crassus and Pompey, and made use of both, forming with them the first triumvirate. Although he had a colleague, he governed with absolute authority. Bibulus, who was associated with him, and vainly opposed his wishes, wittily declared that the Romans were not under the consulate of Cæsar and Bibulus, but under the consulate of Julius and Cæsar. Cæsar gained popularity by procuring the distribution of the lands of Campania.

Shortly after the union of Pompey with Julia, the daughter of Cæsar, the latter obtained the government of the Gauls and Illyria for five years, with the command of four legions. He triumphed over the Gauls, the Helvetians, the brave Belgians, and others, carried his arms beyond the Rhine, and raised the Roman eagles in hitherto unconquered Britain. During the ten years of the Gallic war, Cæsar is said to have possessed himself of eight hundred towns, and to have triumphed in arms over three million men. In the midst of his victories, he was mindful of his own interests, and robbed even altars and temples to increase his wealth. He is said to have quoted with approbation this sentence of Euripides, "Violate justice only for the sake of ruling." The soldiers were gained by liberal presents, and it seemed as if the army was the depositary of the immense wealth which Cæsar was accumulating. Thus the troops were the soldiers of Cæsar, and not of the republic. Rome had become venal: everything was for sale, and Cæsar was the purchaser of everything.

Crassus had been slain in a campaign against the Parthians, and Julia, the link that bound Cæsar and Pompey together, as the daughter of one and the wife of the other, was no more. The predominant party in the senate was favorable to Pompey, and the increasing power of the conqueror of Gaul was jealously seen. Although the term of Cæsar's command had not yet expired, the senate sent him a decree, the purport of which was, that if in a limited time Cæsar did not relinquish his command, he should be treated as the enemy of the commonwealth. Three tribunes of Cæsar's party, among them Mark

Antony, having been expelled from the senate for opposing this decree, fled to the camp of Cæsar in the garb of slaves. War was practically declared. The senate commanded the consuls to look to the safety of the republic, and Cæsar ordered his troops to advance to the Rubicon, a small river separating Cisalpine Gaul from Italy. The republic, which both parties invoked, was no more than a name; Cæsar and Pompey were both heads of factions, that sought to elevate themselves above the laws. Learning the decree of the senate, Cæsar marched directly to the Rubicon. There, the risks he was about to incur, and the evils he was about to bring upon his country, held his mind in suspense for a long time; but, after having reflected upon the hate and animosity of his enemies, and upon his own strength, he dashed forward, exclaiming, "The die is cast." His soldiers followed him. Arrived at Rimini, the terror of his arms spread to Rome, where disorder prevailed. Conflicting opinions distracted the city, and all energy seemed sunk in the consideration of the greatness of the danger, and the insufficiency of the means of defense.

Pompey left Rome, with the consuls, principal senators, &c., and from Capua went to Dyrrachium, to which last place he escaped under cover of night, leaving the whole of Italy in the power of Cæsar. The latter, sending his lieutenants to take possession of Sardinia and Sicily, advanced to Rome. The only act of violence which he committed, was the seizure of the public treasure deposited in the temple of Saturn. Pompey's party had idly imagined that the removal of the key was a sufficient safeguard. The tribune Metellus opposed the passage of Cæsar, who threatened him with death, sternly adding, "This is an act easier for me to do than to name." The tribune retired, and Cæsar took out all the treasure, even the most sacred deposits. Having subdued Pompey's lieutenants in Spain, Cæsar was named dictator. He then went to Greece for the purpose of crushing Pompey. Crossing the sea in a mere fishing-boat, he was exposed to great danger, and animated the pilot by the memorable exclamation, "Fear nothing! you carry Cæsar and his fortunes!" The fate of Pompey and of the republic was decided by the battle of Pharsalia, fought 48 B.C., in which

Cæsar was completely victorious. He pursued Pompey to Egypt, but was indignant when the head of his unfortunate rival was brought him by his assassins.

While he was in Alexandria, detained by the charms of Cleopatra, and the differences existing between the members of the family of Ptolemy, he witnessed the breaking out of a sedition which shortly became an open war, and called for the exertion of all his energy. After remaining some months in Egypt, he marched against Pharnaces, king of Pontus, whom he defeated with a celerity well expressed in his own words, "*Veni, vidi, vici*;" "I came, I saw, I conquered." There still remained to be conquered some formidable enemies; Scipio, Labienus, Cato, and Juba, the king of Mauritania, had powerful armies in Africa. After a campaign in which Cæsar displayed all his skill, Africa no longer sheltered a Roman opposed to him, except Cato, who shut himself up in Utica, and preferred death to submission. Cæsar, who admired elevation of soul, envied Cato the glory of his death, and wept for his fate, as he had shed tears at that of Pompey. The conqueror, after having subjected Africa, and ordered the rebuilding of Carthage, returned to Italy, where he was received with the acclamations of the senate and Roman people. Four triumphs were decreed to him. His liberality was felt by the people, for whose amusements he prepared festivals and shows.

The two sons of Pompey mustered a strong force in Spain, but were attacked in the plains of Munda, by Cæsar, and signally defeated. So obstinate was the battle, that Cæsar himself declared that he fought less for victory than life, but from the moment that both were secure, everything was in his power. He re-entered Rome the master of the world. The triumph which he then obtained for having vanquished Romans excited secret murmurs among the people and senators, but no one dared to utter a complaint in public. The senate decreed him extraordinary honors and unlimited authority. He was declared consul for ten years, and perpetual dictator; they gave him the titles of emperor, and father of his country. His person was declared sacred and inviolable. He had the privilege of being present at

spectacles in a golden chair, with a crown of laurel upon his head. The decree of the senate provided that, even after his death, this chair and the crown of gold should be conspicuously placed at all spectacles in honor of his memory. There was now but one thing wanting, the title of king. He is said to have deliberated whether he should take it.

He preserved the republican forms in the midst of an absolute government, and showed himself as able to maintain power, as to gain it. "His clemency," says Montesquieu, "was insulting. It was considered that he did not pardon, but disdained to punish." Having by victory obtained the highest power, he wished to enjoy it as if it had been transmitted to him, and sought too soon to banish the inquietudes which almost invariably trouble a power of recent growth. "I had rather," said he, "die at once, than live always in fear." He sent away his Spanish guard, contrary to the advice of his best friends, and trusting too readily the assertions of his flatterers, who declared, that after having put an end to the civil wars, the republic was more interested than he was, in his safety. His death was caused by this want of caution.

He had formed a plan for conquering the Parthians, and was on the eve of departing for Asia. His partisans, to reconcile the Romans to his assumption of the title of king, circulated a report that the books of the Sibyls declared, that the Parthians could only be subjugated by the Romans when their leader was a king. The rumor gave the enemies of Caesar a pretext for seeking his death. A conspiracy was formed against him, at the head of which were Brutus and Cassius, whom he had made prætors. The assassination was to take place on the ides of March, the day on which Caesar, according to report, was to assume the royal title. The conspiracy was not so secret as to prevent the circulation of some reports with regard to it, but Caesar refused to take any precaution. Moved, however, by the tears and entreaties of his wife Calphurnia, he had made up his mind to remain at home, when Decimus Brutus, by representing to him the importance of presenting himself at the senate-house, changed his resolution. As he was leaving his house, a certain Artemidorus placed in his hand a paper, containing an exposure of

the whole plot. Being unable to read this and other letters from the pressure of the crowd about him, Caesar gave them to his secretaries. He had no sooner entered the senate-house, than he was surrounded by the conspirators. Cimber, under pretext of respect, seized the skirt of his robe, a signal which Casca responded to by stabbing Caesar in the shoulder. The weapon was caught by the intrepid victim, who exclaimed, "Wretch! what art thou doing?" Caesar, though repeatedly wounded, defended himself against his assassins, until Brutus struck him, when, fixing his eyes upon him, he mournfully exclaimed, "And thou, too, Brutus?" Then, folding his head in his mantle, he fell, pierced with thirty-three wounds, at the base of Pompey's statue, March 15th, 44 B.C. He was then fifty-six years old. The body of Caesar, abandoned by all, was carried home by three slaves. When his will was read from the tribune by Antony, the people made the air ring with their cries of grief and anger. The funeral ceremonies were distinguished by uncommon magnificence. The senate, who dared not defend him in his hour of need, placed him among the gods, and ordered that his laws should be immutable.

The results of this assassination were deplorable, for jealousy, ambition, and personal anger armed the greater part of the murderers, and but few among them were animated by a love of liberty. Caesar, with many faults and foibles, possessed many fine traits, and was fitted by nature to command. His erudition was considerable, and his "Commentaries" are models of good writing. He has been pronounced the greatest man that Rome ever beheld. Clement, generous, and magnanimous, he was also insatiably ambitious. He was an orator, statesman, and scholar, as well as a successful general.

CAILLIE, RENE, a native of France, celebrated for his travels in Africa. He won the prize offered by the geographical society of Paris to the man who should first reach Timbuctoo (1827-8); and, besides other rewards, was presented with the cross of the legion of honor.

CALAIS, a seaport of France, in the British Channel, opposite to Dover. It is strongly fortified, and contains about 18,000 inhabit-

ants. In 1346, Edward III. of England, after his great victory of Cressy, laid siege to it, and concerted his measures so well, that his adversaries could not throw succors into the place. Nearly two thousand of the wretched inhabitants, who had been sent out of the place to lessen the consumption of provisions, came to the camp of the besiegers. Edward gave each of them a hearty meal and two shillings, and provided for their future safety. Calais was obliged to surrender to the English, after holding out a year, and remained in their possession until 1558, when it was invested and attacked by the Duke of Guise, and, after a siege of eight days, was obliged to capitulate. During the operations of Francis I. and the Duke of Bourbon against the Emperor Charles V., a congress was held at Calais, under the mediation of Henry VIII., of England, which proved unsuccessful. Calais was the last possession of England, in France, and its loss deeply mortified Queen Mary. "When I am dead," she said, "Calais will be found written on my heart."

CALDERON. DON PEDRO CALDERON DE LA BARCA HENAO Y RIANO, a Spanish poet and dramatist, born at Madrid, 1600, and died 1681. He served in a military capacity, but afterward embraced the clerical profession. He was the author of three hundred plays.

CALHOUN, JOHN CALDWELL, was born at Long Cane, in Abbeville district, S. C., March 18th, 1782, of Irish parentage. He was educated at Yale College and the law school in Litchfield, Conn. In 1811, he entered the lower house of Congress, whence in 1817 Monroe called him to the head of the department of war. In 1825, he was chosen vice-president. From 1831 to 1843 he represented his native state in the federal senate. In the latter year he was appointed secretary of state by Mr. Tyler, and in 1845 returned to the senate, in which he continued till his death, March 31st, 1850. Mr. Calhoun was one of the ablest statesmen and most forcible orators that have mingled in the public counsels of the country.



CALIFORNIA. This state on the shores of the Pacific, is a portion of the territory obtained from Mexico. It has an area of 188,982 square miles, and the population in 1860 was 379,994. It is traversed by two great ranges of mountains, the Sierra Nevada and the Coast range, having between them the splendid valley of the Sacramento and the Joaquin; on the eastern side wide sandy plains, and on the western the narrow slip of coast. Its

most important rivers are the Sacramento and the San Joaquin. California has a dry and a wet season; the first lasting from about the middle of May to September or October; the wet season setting in early in November, and lasting till May. To its dry season it owes its name, which is from the Spanish *caliente fornalla*, 'hot furnace.' In the great interior valley, the soil is of great fertility, and one day the state will be as rich in its agriculture

as in its mines. The country was discovered by the Spaniards in 1542, but they did not colonize it till 1768. Up to the great discovery of gold it was a scantily peopled tract. Sir Francis Drake, who visited it in 1578, received such reports of the existence of gold from the natives that he declared it to be his conviction that there was "no part of this country wherein there is not some special likelihood of gold." Yet little or no search seems to have been made for the precious metal. The shining scales of virgin gold were accidentally discovered in September, 1847, upon the estate of Captain Sutter. It soon became known, and emigration flowed toward the golden country from all Christendom. The scene was unparalleled in history. Towns and cities sprang up as if by magic. The fable of the Argonauts was revived and improved upon. The colonists formed themselves into a sovereign state, and California was received into the Union in September, 1850. Society was for a time very unsettled, but the disorders which bad men introduced culminated and met with a terrible and decisive check in the Vigilance Committee of San Francisco during 1856, and the law-abiding Anglo Saxon character has since been creditably maintained, California contained in 1860, 34,919 Chinese, attracted by the gold mining; they are industrious and despised, and continue their heathen worship.

San Francisco, the largest city of California, is said to have been a Spanish mission settlement in 1776. In 1845 it had only 150 inhabitants. In 1852 it had 34,776, of whom only 5,245 were women. In 1860 it had 56,802. The city has repeatedly suffered from sweeping conflagrations, but it has of late been built of more enduring materials. Sacramento is the capital. It was founded 1849, and in 1852 had more than 10,000 inhabitants.

CALIGULA, CAIUS CESAR AUGUSTUS GERMANICUS, a Roman emperor, was the son of Germanicus and Agrippina, and born A.D. 12. He received its surname from the *caligæ* (half boots) which he wore. His life, with a single exception, presented only a series of acts of horrible cruelty, disgusting absurdity, and daring impiety. The reputation of his father at first disposed the Romans to think favorably of the son, but after a few hollow displays

of clemency and liberality, he showed himself in his true light, and, even while a boy, committed incest. He married and repudiated several wives, the last of whom, Cæsonia, retained a firm hold upon his affections. His murders were numerous, and rendered memorable by the rank of the victims and the relation which they bore to him. It was Caligula who wished that the people of Rome had but one head, that he might sever it at a blow. If the cruelties of the tyrant call forth our indignation, his unmanly follies excite our contempt. His treatment of his horse Incitatus exhibited the ridiculous part of his character. This animal had a gorgeous stable, a house to entertain visitors, and frequently dined at the emperor's table, when he was presented with wine and gilded oats. His master even meditated elevating him to the consulship. Caligula appeared in public in the attributes of various divinities, male as well as female, and claimed homage as a Venus and a Mars. Among his absurdities may be reckoned the bridge of boats built from Baïæ to Puteoli; his expedition against Britain, when the soldiers gathered cockle-shells for spoils, and lastly, his design of decimating the German army for a revolt. To this last act the world owed its deliverance from the monster, who was murdered by Chærea and Cornélius Sabinus, military tribunes, A.D. 41, after a reign of four years.

CALONNE, CHARLES ALEXANDER DE, an eminent French statesman, born at Douai in 1734, succeeded to the management of an empty treasury in 1783, and skillfully met the claims upon it, without adding to the burthens of the people. He advised the abolition of the pecuniary exemptions enjoyed by the nobility, clergy, and magistracy. He was, however, obliged to retire from the vengeance of those bodies. He died in 1802.

CALVERT, GEORGE, Lord Baltimore, founder of Maryland, was of Flemish descent, born at Kipling, in Yorkshire, England, 1582, and educated at Oxford; in 1619, he was made by Charles I. one of the principal secretaries of state; resigned that office, 1624; made Baron of Baltimore, 1625; obtained a patent for Maryland, June 20th, 1632, and died at London the same year.

CALVIN, JOHN, a leader of the Reformation in the sixteenth century, was born at

Noyon, in Picardy, July 15th, 1509, and was destined for the church at an early age, being presented with a benefice in the cathedral of his native place when he was but twelve years old. His progress was rapid, but it was not long before he received the seeds of the new doctrines. In 1533, he was involved in a persecution with his friend Michael Cop, who had defended the reformed doctrines in a public discourse. Obligated to quit France, he repaired to Bâle, in 1534, where he composed his famous "Institutes of Christianity." He was induced to write this by the persecutions of Protestants, which disgraced the reign of Francis I. of France. Although received in different places with marks of respect, Calvin found the warmest welcome and the safest asylum in Geneva. After some agitation, the new doctrine was generally received at Geneva. On the refusal of Calvin and Farel to comply with the decrees of the council of Lausanne, the magistrates compelled them to leave the city in 1538. At Strasburg, Calvin's reception was favorable, but he turned a longing look upon Geneva. He was finally invited to return, and he gained a great ascendancy over the Genevese. The rigor of Calvin was excessive. Thus, a magistrate was deprived of his office, and imprisoned for two months, because "his habits were irregular, and he had leagued with the enemies of Calvin." James Gruet was beheaded, for having written "impious letters and libertine verses," and for having "labored to destroy ecclesiastical regulations." Geneva, in becoming the metropolis of the reformed worship, became the centre of a prodigious book-trade, and the city of all Europe in which the arts and sciences were cultivated with the greatest success.

Calvin died in Geneva, May 27th, 1564, in the fifty-fifth year of his age. His constitution was weak, and throughout life he had suffered much from disease. In 1539 he married a widow, by whom he had one son, who died young. She died in 1549, and he never married again. He was sombre and austere in his manners, of a melancholy disposition. He never knew the sweets of friendship, and his sole joy, if joy it was, was in ruling, and beholding the triumph of his opinions. Calvin never had any other title in the church of Geneva, than that of pastor.

His temper, according to his own confession, was impatient and opposed to all contradiction. Thus the tone of his polemical writings is almost always harsh and insulting. As a theologian, Calvin gained the highest rank among the men of his century, by his profound knowledge, by his tact, and, as he himself boasted, by his art in pressing an argument. As a writer he merits high praise. His mode of worship, bare and stern, appeared, in the eyes of many, to have elevated religion above all sublunary things, by stripping it of every object which had an attraction for the senses.

CALYPSO, a daughter of Atlas, who dwelt upon the island of Ogygia, where Ulysses was shipwrecked. He refused to marry the goddess, although immortality was the promised reward, preferring to revisit Ithaca and again behold his wife. He remained seven years on the island, and grief at his departure destroyed the enamored goddess.

CAMBACERES, JEAN JACQUES REGIS, was Duke of Parma, prince and arch-chancellor of the French empire, dignities which he enjoyed during the ascendancy of Napoleon, of whom he was a colleague in the consulate in 1799. His plan of a civil code, drawn up in 1796, was the basis of the celebrated Code Napoleon. He left France on the downfall of the emperor, and died in Paris, March 8th, 1824, aged seventy-one.

CAMBRAY, a strongly fortified town of the French department of the North, containing 20,000 inhabitants, celebrated in diplomatic history for several important treaties negotiated there. Its manufactures are extensive, one of the principal articles being cambric, which takes its name from this town. The town was taken by Charles V. in 1544; by the Spaniards in 1596; and by Louis XIV. in person, in 1677. In August, 1793, it was unsuccessfully besieged by the Austrians, when the republican general, Decay, replied to the imperial summons to surrender, that "he knew not how to do that, but his soldiers knew how to fight;" and in the campaign of 1815 it was taken by the British, and made the head-quarters of the allied armies.

CAMBRONNE, PIERRE JACQUES ETIENNE, baron, general, commander of the legion of honor, and distinguished for his personal

bravery, was born Dec. 26th, 1770. He commanded the small band which Napoleon led from Elba. At Waterloo, he was severely wounded, and taken prisoner. In that battle he commanded the old guard, and when he heard the British demand for capitulation, he answered nobly, "The guard dies, but does not surrender." He died in 1842.

CAMBYSES, a king of Persia, and son of Cyrus the Great, ascended the throne B.C. 530. He conquered and devastated Egypt. Offended at the superstitions of the Egyptians, he killed their god Apis, whose flesh was eaten by his soldiers, and plundered their temples. On mounting his horse at a subsequent period, his sword gave him a fatal wound in the thigh, the place where he had injured the bull, and the Egyptians looked upon this event as the retributive vengeance of the gods. He was dissolute, and destitute of moral principles. In his fits of intoxication, his brutality was feared even by those who had the greatest claims upon his forbearance. In a fit of drunken rage he gave his wife a kick which killed her. His throne was usurped by one of the Magi, who assumed the name of Smerdis, a brother of the king, who had been secretly murdered on account of a dream which prognosticated to the tyrant future troubles, and warned him to save himself by the death of his brother.

CAMDEN, in South Carolina, was the scene of two contests in the Revolution, in both of which the British were victors. The first was fought between Gen. Gates and Lord Cornwallis, Aug. 16th, 1780; the second between Gen. Greene and Lord Rawdon, April 25th, 1781. The British evacuated and burned Camden, May 13th, 1781. In the first of these battles the brave Baron de Kalb fell, pierced with seven wounds.

CAMILLUS, MARCUS FURIUS, an illustrious Roman, who obtained four triumphs and five times filled the office of dictator, but, being prosecuted on a charge of peculation, went into voluntary banishment. While he was absent, Brennus, at the head of an army of Gauls, took Rome, and besieged the senate in the capitol. Camillus, forgetting his wrongs, hastened to the relief of his country, defeated the barbarians, and was created dictator. He died B.C. 365, of the plague. He was generally honored and respected, although

party and personal prejudices more than once involved him in persecution. In the siege of Falerii, the schoolmaster of the town, who had the children of the senators under his care, led them out of the city under pretext of recreation, carried them to the Roman camp, and surrendered them to the Roman general, telling him that he might now propose to the besieged what terms he chose, since the treasures they valued most were in his hands. Camillus, indignant at this treachery, answered that the Romans warred with men, not with boys; and that, in the conduct of hostilities, integrity, as well as courage, should be prized. He ordered the schoolmaster to be stripped, and, with his hands bound behind his back, to be delivered to the boys to be lashed back to the town. The Falerians, before obstinate in their resistance, struck with this noble act, delivered themselves up to the Romans, convinced that it would be better to have such men for friends than foes.

CAMOËNS, LUIS DE, the most celebrated of Portuguese poets, was born in Lisbon, in 1517. His father was of a noble family, and his mother of the illustrious house of Sá. Camoëns studied at Coimbra, where his instructors valued no literature but that which was written in imitation of the ancients. But the genius of Camoëns was animated by the history of his country and the manners of his age; and his lyric poems belong, like the works of Dante, of Petrarch, Ariosto, and Tasso, to that literature which was renewed by Christianity, and to the spirit of chivalry, rather than to a purely classical style of writing. For this reason, the numerous partisans of the classic school did not applaud the performances of Camoëns in the early part of his career. On the completion of his studies, he returned to Lisbon, where he became warmly attached to Catharine d'Atayde, a lady of the court. Ardent passions are often united to great genius, and the life of Camoëns was alternately consumed by his feelings and his genius.

He was exiled to Santarem on account of the quarrels which his attachment to Catharine brought upon him. There, in his seclusion, he composed detached poems, which distinctly portray the state of his feelings at the time of their composition. The hope-

lessness of his situation led him to embark as a soldier in the Portuguese fleet sent against Morocco. In the midst of battles he composed poems, the glories and the dangers of war kindling his poetic spirit, and his poetic imagination in turn urging him onward to exploits. He lost his right eye by an arrow before Ceuta. On his return to Lisbon, he hoped that his wounds would entitle him to some favor, even if his talents were despised; but, although he had a double claim upon the notice of government, he encountered unexpected obstacles. Justly indignant at this neglect, he embarked for the Indies in 1553, and like Scipio bade farewell to his country, declaring that even his ashes should not repose there.

He landed at Goa, the principal Portuguese establishment in India; here his imagination was excited by the exploits of his countrymen in this part of the world, and, great as were his inducements to complain of them, he thought to consecrate their glory in an epic. But, incensed at the abuses which were committed by the government, he composed so severe a satire upon the subject, that the enraged viceroy of Goa banished him to Macao, where he lived several years, surrounded by the most glorious scenes which the fairy regions of the east can boast. Here he composed his "*Lusiad*." The expedition of Vasco da Gama to the Indies is the subject of this work, which is sustained by the skill of Camoëns in mingling details of Portuguese history with the splendors of poetry, and Christian piety with pagan fable.

Camoëns, on being recalled from his banishment, was shipwrecked at the mouth of the river Mecon, in Cochín China, and saved himself by swimming with one hand, while in the other he held the leaves of his immortal poem, the only treasure that he saved, above the reach of the greedy waves. Camoëns was persecuted by a new viceroy at Goa, and imprisoned for debt, but some of his friends becoming security for him, he embarked for Lisbon in 1569, sixteen years after having quitted Europe. The young king Sebastian took an interest in Camoëns, accepted the dedication of his epic poem, and, on the eve of departing on his unfortunate expedition against the Moors in Africa, felt more than any one else the genius of the

poet, who like himself gloried in dangers when they led the way to fame. But Sebastian was killed in the battle of Alcazar, in 1578; the royal line became extinct, and Portugal lost her independence. The unfortunate Camoëns was reduced by this event to such extremes, that, during the night, a slave, whom he had brought from India, begged in the streets to obtain food for his master. In this wretched state, he still composed lyric poems, and the finest of his detached pieces are those which contain complaints of his misfortunes. How brilliant was that genius which could extort inspiration from the very calamities which finally extinguished it. This hero of Portuguese literature, the only one whose glory belongs alike to his nation and to Europe, died in a hospital in 1579, aged sixty-two years. After his death, a monument was erected to his memory, and thousands, who would have denied succor while he was living, crowded to do homage to his inanimate remains.

CAMPBELL, THOMAS, was born in Glasgow, July 27th, 1777. At the age of twenty-two, "*The Pleasures of Hope*" gained him instant fame as a poet; it went through four editions at Edinburgh in a year. It is a curious fact that the first fourteen lines were the last that were written. Campbell's friend and critic, Dr. Anderson, had always urged the want of a good beginning, and, when the poem was on its way to the printer, again pressed the necessity of starting with a picture complete in itself. Campbell all along admitted the justice of the criticism, but never could please himself with what he did. The last remark of Dr. Anderson's roused the full swing of his genius within him, and he returned the next day to the delighted doctor, with that fine comparison between the beauty of remote objects in a landscape, and those ideal scenes of happiness which imaginative minds promise to themselves with all the certainty of hope fulfilled. Anderson was more than pleased, and the new comparison was made the opening of the new poem.*

"At summer eve, when Heaven's ethereal bow
Spans with bright arch the glittering hills below,
Why to yon mountain turns the musing eye,
Whose sunbright summit mingles with the sky?
Why do those cliffs of shadowy tint appear
More sweet than all the landscape smiling near?"

"Tis distance lends enchantment to the view,
And robes the mountain in its azure hue.
Thus, with delight we linger to survey
The promised joys of life's unmeasured way;
Thus from afar, each dim-discovered scene
More pleasing seems than all the past hath been;
And every form that Fancy can repair
From dark oblivion, glows divinely there."

The poem had put some money in the poet's pocket, and he gratified an early longing in a visit to Germany. At Hamburg, the sight of the many Irish exiles inspired him to that touching lament, "The Exiles of Erin." During this journey, also, he wrote "The Mariners of England." On his road from Munich to Linz, he witnessed from the walls of a convent the bloody field of Hohenlinden, and saw the triumphant French cavalry, under Moreau, enter the nearest town, wiping their bloody swords on their horses' manes. His lyric has enshrined the conflict forever. "John Leyden," says Sir Walter Scott, "introduced me to Tom Campbell. They afterward quarreled. When I repeated 'Hohenlinden' to Leyden, he said, 'Dash it, man, tell the fellow I hate him; but, dash him, he has written the finest verses that have been published these fifty years.' I did mine errand as faithfully as one of Homer's messengers, and had for answer, 'Tell Leyden that I detest him; but I know the value of his critical approbation.'" Scott knew "Hohenlinden" by heart; and when Sir Walter dined at Murray's in 1809, he repeated at the table, as Wilkie tells us, Campbell's poem of "Lochiel." He had it by heart after hearing it once, and once reading it.

Campbell sustained his reputation by "Gertrude of Wyoming" in 1809. His life was passed in literary labor, but his other productions were inferior. He was extremely sensitive to criticism. "I often wonder," said Sir Walter Scott in 1826, "how Tom Campbell, with so much real genius, has not maintained a greater figure in the public eye than he has done of late. The author not only of 'The Pleasures of Hope,' but 'Hohenlinden,' 'Lochiel,' &c., should have been at the very top of the tree. Somehow he wants audacity, fears the public, and what is worse, fears the shadow of his own reputation." * * * "What a pity it is," said Sir Walter to Washington Irving, "that Campbell does not write more and oftener, and give

full sweep to his genius! He has wings that would bear him to the skies, and he does, now and then, spread them grandly, but folds them up again, and resumes his perch, as if he was afraid to launch away. The fact is, Campbell is in a manner a bugbear to himself; the brightness of his early success is a detriment to all his further efforts. He is afraid of the shadow that his own fame casts before him."

In 1827, he was elected lord-rector of his own mother university at Glasgow, by the free and unanimous choice of the students, and was justly proud of his election. "It was a deep snow," writes Allan Cunningham, "when he reached the college-green; the students were drawn up in parties, pelting one another: the poet ran into the ranks, threw several snowballs with unerring aim, then summoning the scholars around him in the hall, delivered a speech replete with philosophy and eloquence. It is needless to say how this was welcomed." When his year had expired, he was unanimously re-elected, the students presenting him at the same time with a handsome silver punch-bowl, described by the poet in his will as one of the great jewels of his property.

Campbell was passionately fond of children. This once led to a ludicrous circumstance. He saw a fine child, about four years old, one day walking with her nurse in the park; and on his return home he could not rest for thinking of his child sweetheart, as he called her, and actually sent an advertisement to the *Morning Chronicle*, making inquiries after his juvenile fascinator, giving his own address, and stating his age to be sixty-two! The incident illustrates the intensity of his affections, as well as the liveliness of his fancy; for, alas! the poet had then no home-object to dwell upon, to concentrate his hopes and his admiration. His wife had long been dead, and his only son was a helpless imbecile. Several hoaxes were played off on the susceptible poet in consequence of this singular advertisement. One letter directed him to the house of an old maid, by whom he was received very cavalierly. He told his story, but "the wretch," as he used to say with a sort of peevish humor, "had never heard either of him or his poetry!" In his last years the poet him-

self sank into a state of comparative mental and bodily feebleness. He died at Boulogne, and was buried in the poet's corner at Westminster Abbey.

Campbell told a story with much humor. At a meeting of authors he once proposed Napoleon's health because he had murdered a publisher, Palm! He liked "Gertrude" the best of his poems, and once said, "I never like to see my name before 'The Pleasures of Hope;' why, I can not tell you, unless it was that, when young, I was always greeted among my friends as Mr. Campbell, author of 'The Pleasures of Hope.' Good morning to you, Mr. Campbell, author of 'The Pleasures of Hope.' When I got married, I was married as the author of 'The Pleasures of Hope;' and when I became a father, my son was the son of the author of 'The Pleasures of Hope.'" The phrase followed him out of life, for the inscription on his coffin was:

"THOMAS CAMPBELL, LL.D.
AUTHOR OF THE 'PLEASURES OF HOPE.'
DIED JUNE 15, 1844.
AGED 67."

CAMPO-FORMIO, a village of Udine in Friuli, a province of Venice, belonging to the Austrians, famous for the treaty signed here Oct. 17th, 1797, by which the Emperor of Austria ceded to the French republic the whole of the Austrian Netherlands, and consented to their remaining in possession of the islands of Corfu, Zante, Cephalonia, and all the islands in the Adriatic, together with the Venetian territories in Albania. He also acknowledged the Cisalpine republic as an independent state; ceded to it the countries in Lombardy which had formerly belonged to Austria, and consented that it should possess Bergamo, Brescia, and other Venetian territories, together with the duchies of Mantua and Modena, the principalities of Carrara and Massa, and the cities of Romagna, Ferrara, and Bologna, belonging to the pope. France yielded up to Austria, Istria, Dalmatia, the city of Venice, with a large portion of the dominions of that republic, and the Venetian islands in the Adriatic, lying to the north-east of the Gulf of Lodrino.

CANADA, a country in North America, belonging to the British, and divided since the year 1791 into Canada East, or Lower Canada, and Canada West, or Upper Canada.

The population of Canada is 2,506,755, and its extent 349,821 square miles. Of late years it has received a large immigration from Great Britain. In Canada East there were 890,261 inhabitants, by the census of 1851, of whom the greater portion were French Canadians, the remainder being English, Scotch, Irish, and Americans. It is divided into thirty-six counties. Seigniories, or grants of the French government, and townships, or grants of the English, are the minor subdivisions. A governor-general, whose residence is at Quebec, is at the head of the British American government. The houses of the Canadians are generally low, and built of stone, with little finish. Education is generally at a low ebb among them, although Quebec and Montreal sustain some highly reputable seminaries. The commerce of the province has gradually increased under the fostering spirit of the British government. The fur trade, of which Montreal is the depot, is considerable, and timber, pot and pearl ashes, grain, &c., are exported in great quantities. Grass, wheat, barley, rye, &c., are the principal productions of the soil. The majestic St. Lawrence is the main river of the Canadas, but there are also others of great importance.

The French Canadians possess the characteristics which distinguish the volatile inhabitants of France. The passionate vivacity, the eagerness in pursuit of pleasure, the levity, and, it must be added, laxity of principle, exhibit the connection between the parent stock and the transplanted race. Their amusements in winter consist of sleighing expeditions, in which the spirited little Canadian horses prove their worth, varied by dancing, and social gayeties. Where the females are distinguished for their temperance, the men are unfortunately addicted to the use of spirituous liquors, and can scarcely be persuaded to abandon them in winter, alleging the severity of the weather, which frequently depresses the mercury in the thermometer to forty degrees below zero, as an excuse.

Canada West is settled for the most part by emigrants and the descendants of emigrants from Great Britain and Ireland. Population (1851), 999,847. It contains forty-two counties, divided into numerous townships.

A large proportion of the emigrants to Canada now settle in this province, induced by the very great fertility of the soil, and the value and abundance of the timber. The forests increase in extent as they spread to the regions of the north. In these wooded districts, vast sheets of water expand in solitary splendor, haunted only by the beasts of prey, or Indians hardly less wild. The established religion of the Canadas is that of the Church of England, but a large portion of the inhabitants are Catholics. The British constitution forms the basis of that of British America.

The French, at a very early period, seemed to be aware of the importance of the discovery of Canada by Cabot, and the cod-fishery began to employ their men as early as the commencement of the sixteenth century. In the early part of that century a Frenchman is said to have made a chart of the entrance of the St. Lawrence. In 1524, Francis I. of France sent four ships, under Verazzani, a Florentine, to prosecute discoveries in this country. In 1535, James Cartier, of St. Maloes, sailed up the St. Lawrence, formed alliances with the natives, took possession of the territory, built a fort, and wintered in the country. Henry IV. appointed the Marquis de la Roche lieutenant-general of Canada and the neighboring countries. In 1608, the city of Quebec was founded, and from that period the establishment of a permanent French colony commenced. In 1629, an English expedition took possession of Quebec, but it was surrendered again to the French by the treaty of St. Germain. This expedition was headed by Sir David Keith. In 1690, a bold attempt was made, but without success, to subject Canada to the English crown. The attempt was renewed in 1711, but equally in vain. Canada continued in the occupation of the French till the breaking out of the war between France and England in 1756. In 1759 the British government formed the project of attempting its conquest, and the English took possession of Quebec after a gallant resistance on the part of the French; in which the English general Wolfe, and Montcalm the French commander, both perished. The latter, on being told that his wound was mortal, nobly exclaimed, "Then I shall not live to see the city surrendered to

the British!" The whole province of Canada was soon after subdued by the English, and was confirmed to Great Britain by the treaty of 1763. In 1775, Canada was invaded by a body of continental troops, led by Montgomery; Montreal was taken, but the gallant general perished in the unsuccessful attempt upon Quebec. During our last war with Great Britain, Upper Canada became the theatre of a sanguinary struggle. During 1837 and 1838 insurrections broke out against the government, and some small battles were fought. From 1791 till 1840, the two provinces had distinct governments. In the latter year they were united. The act of union provides for the appointment of a legislative council by the crown, and an assembly chosen by the people. The royal governor of Canada is governor-general of British North America. Quebec and Toronto, which were the capitals of the separate provinces, were made joint seats of government.

In 1858, Ottawa, formerly called Bytown, a thriving town in Canada West, on the Ottawa River, was designated by the crown as the capital of the united provinces. The population of Ottawa was 14,669 in 1861. It is the centre of a great lumber trade.

Quebec, stands on a promontory, on the north-west side of the St. Lawrence, 400 miles from its mouth, containing about 51,000 inhabitants. It is divided into two parts, the Upper and the Lower Town. The Upper Town is built on a bold precipice of naked rock, rising to the height of 345 feet. Quebec, for an American city, is certainly a peculiar town: a military town, most compactly and permanently built, stone its sole material; environed, as to its important parts, by walls and gates, and defended by numerous heavy cannon; garrisoned by troops, having the arms, the costume, the music, the discipline of Europe, foreign in language, features, and origin, from most of those whom they are sent to defend; founded upon a rock, and its higher parts overlooking a great extent of country; between three and four hundred miles from the ocean, in the midst of a great continent, and yet displaying fleets of foreign merchantmen in its fine capacious bay, and showing all the bustle of a crowded seaport; its streets narrow, populous, and winding up and down almost mountain de-



PEAK OF TENERIFFE.

clivities; situated in the latitude of the finest parts of Europe, exhibiting in its environs the beauty of a European capital, and yet, in winter, smarting with the cold of Siberia; governed by people of different language and habits from the mass of the population, opposed in religion, and yet leaving that population without taxes, and in the full enjoyment of every privilege, civil and religious. Its siege and capture in 1759, by Gen. Wolfe, was fatal both to the English and French commanders. In 1776, General Montgomery and Arnold attempted to take Quebec by storm, but Montgomery fell, and Arnold was compelled to retreat.

Toronto, on the northern shore of Lake Ontario, has an excellent harbor, and is the centre of trade for a broad back country; population in 1861, 44,821. Montreal, on an island in the St. Lawrence, 180 miles above Quebec, and 200 below Lake Ontario, is at the head of ship navigation. The streets are regular, the houses are built of gray stone, and present a singular appearance from being covered with tin. Montreal College is a very flourishing institution. Population 90,323.

CANALS. The first, regular chain of arti-

ficial water intercommunication, of which history has transmitted to us the record, was that between the Nile and the Red Sea. This canal route was examined with great care by the French engineers, and several portions found in 1798 in such a state of preservation as only to demand cleansing. The system of modern canal improvement may be stated to have commenced in Italy, at Viterbo, 1481, when sluices with double doors were invented, and first used on a large scale, near Milan, by Leonardo da Vinci. The canals of the delta of the Rhine commenced, it is true, in the dark ages, but it was not before the end of the fifteenth century, that they were planned and constructed with scientific regularity of design. The most stupendous canal in the world is one in China, which passes over two thousand miles, and to forty-one cities; it was commenced in the tenth century. The Erie canal in New York, three hundred and thirty miles in length, was begun in 1817. The Bridgewater canal, the first great work of the kind in England, was begun by the Duke of Bridgewater, in 1758. Brindley was the architect. [See BRINDLEY.]

CANARIES, a group of seven islands in CAN

the Atlantic, off the coast of Africa, belonging to Spain. Teneriffe is the largest and most important. The Peak rises 11,946 feet above the sea. These are supposed to be the Fortunate Isles of the ancients. In 1330 a French ship, driven among them by stress of weather, made them known to the modern world. They were seized by the Spaniards, who planted the vine, which still flourishes, about 1420. The canary-bird is a native of these isles. It was brought into England in 1500.

CANDIA, the ancient Crete, a large island in the Mediterranean, lying about eighty miles south of the Morea. The climate is mild, and the soil productive, capable, as was proved in ancient times, of supporting 1,200,000 inhabitants, a population which Turkish tyranny and indolence have diminished to 159,000. It was, in mythological accounts, the kingdom of Saturn. After becoming a republic, and a pirate isle, it was conquered by the Romans, and then by the Saracens in 823. In 962, the Greeks regained possession of it. It was sold to the Venetians in 1204, and was fiercely contended for by the troops of the Porte and the republic. Hither the Christian chivalry of Europe rushed to display their valor against the infidels, and the capital was only surrendered after a siege of twenty-five years, Sept. 27th, 1669. Candia continued in the hands of the Turks, until its cession to Mehemet Ali in 1830. In 1840 it was restored to the sultan. The wild goat of Crete is the supposed origin of all the domestic varieties.

CANNÆ, a city on the Adriatic, at the mouth of the Aufidus, where the Romans were defeated by the Carthaginians, under Hannibal, May 21st, 216 B.C. Hannibal had 10,000 horse and 40,000 foot, while the Roman troops, headed by Æmilius Paulus and Terentius Varro, amounted to 87,000 men. The opponents of Hannibal had two to one against him in infantry, while Hannibal had five to one against them in cavalry. The light-horse and slingers began to skirmish, after whom Hasdrubal charged the troops of horse that were led by Æmilius, and broke their ranks. The last blow that ended all resistance was given by the same hand that aimed the first. Hasdrubal, having cut in pieces all the Roman horse that opposed him,

fell back upon the rear, and came up to the Numidians, with whom he joined and made a charge upon Varro. The Romans whom they charged appeared incapable of resistance, and were completely routed. Livy says that 40,000 foot and above 2,700 horse were slain; Polybius accounts the loss much greater. The prisoners taken amounted to 3,000 foot and 300 horse, according to Livy; according to others, to 8,000. Hannibal collected the rings, the badges of the fallen Roman knights, and sent many bushels of them to Carthage, as tokens of his triumph. He lost 4,000 Gauls, 1,500 Spaniards and Africans, and 200 horse. Had he pursued his victory and marched forthwith to Rome, instead of quartering his troops in the seductive Capua, he might probably have ended the war; but he did not trust his own good fortune to such a length. Varro, the consul whose imprudence brought on the defeat, saved himself by flight, while his brave colleague, Æmilius, perished on the field of battle.

CANNING, GEORGE, a brilliant English statesman, born April 11th, 1770. His life was spent on the political arena, and he succeeded Lord Liverpool as premier in February, 1827; but worn by his toils, both in body and mind, he died August 8th, 1827.

CANOVA, ANTONIO, the most celebrated and successful sculptor of the nineteenth century, was born in the Venetian territory, at Possagno, Nov. 1st, 1757, and from his twelfth year devoted himself to the art in which he became so celebrated. When quite young he modeled the figure of a lion in butter with exquisite skill. This was placed upon the table of the seigneur of the place, Falieri, whose attention it attracted. The ingenious artist was sought for, found, and placed with a statuary. At seventeen, his statue of Eurydice was sculptured, and highly praised. In 1779 he went to Rome under the patronage of the Venetian senate. His works are numerous, and his subjects various; the female figures being the most perfect and beautiful. Canova had a method of finishing his statues, by applying to the marble a peculiar preparation, which destroyed the glare and glitter of the stone, and imparted to it the soft and mellow lustre of wax. Modest, moral, and amiable, Canova was free from professional jealousy, and liberally patronized young art-

ists of merit, removing many of the obstacles which oppose the early steps of devotees to the fine arts. He was created Marquis of Ischia, with a large pension, by Pope Pius VII., who was by no means backward in acknowledging his merit. The amiable artist died at Venice, Oct. 13th, 1822, leaving behind him many monuments of his talents, industry, goodness, and liberality. A writer, speaking of the comparative merits of the Medicean and the Canova Venus, says, "I am by no means convinced of the great superiority of the ancient over the modern work. It is certain the general attitude and aspect are copied in the latter, which deprives the artist of a great share of the merit of originality; but if we were to regard the works alone, without any reference to their formation, I am not sure that the palm would not be given to Canova. As a friend of mine, no mean judge, said to me, 'If they were both dug out of the earth now, and nobody knew anything about either, the Canova statue would be preferred.'"

CANUTE, the Great, King of Denmark and England, succeeded his father Sweyn in the former kingdom, about the year 1015. He commenced his reign by an expedition against England, but hearing that the King of Norway had invaded Denmark, he was obliged to make a precipitate return. Having repulsed the invader, he resumed his enterprise, and landing on the southern coast, committed dreadful ravages; but Edmund Ironsides opposed him with such bravery, that Canute agreed to divide the kingdom with him. On the murder of Edmund by Edric in 1017, Canute obtained the whole kingdom in an assembly of the states, and put to death Edric, and several of the English nobility who had basely deserted their sovereign. He likewise levied heavy taxes on the people, and particularly on the inhabitants of London. The King of Sweden having attacked Denmark, he went thither and slew the Swedish monarch in battle. Canute built churches, made a pilgrimage to Rome, cherished the interests of learning, and distinguished himself by his piety. Canute's reproof of his courtiers is well known. These flatterers having assured him he had power over all things, he seated himself upon the sea-shore, and commanded the waves not to approach his feet. The element advanced with its usual rapidity, and Canute, rising,

said to his courtiers in a tone of great solemnity: "He alone can rule the waves, who has said to them, Thus far shall ye go, and no farther." Canute died at Shaftesbury, 1036.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE. The Cape, nearly at the southern extremity of Africa, long in the hands of the Dutch, was found, on the conquest by the English, in the year 1795, to be 550 English miles in length, and 233 in breadth. This flourishing colony was originally founded by the Dutch. Van Riebeck, surgeon of one of the Dutch company's ships, having touched at the Cape, was struck with the extent of the bay, capable of containing more than one hundred vessels; its situation, half-way between Europe and India; and the nature of the soil, which seemed proper for every kind of cultivation. On his return, he communicated his ideas to the company, who approved of his plan and gave him full powers to carry it into execution. Van Riebeck accordingly embarked with four vessels, and, after arriving at the Cape, purchased from the inhabitants land for an establishment, for which he gave them merchandise, to be selected at their own choice, to the value of 50,000 florins, 1651. The possession of this region was for a long time a source of contest between the Dutch and English. It was taken by the English in 1797, and, after having been surrendered to the Dutch in 1802, was again occupied by the former in 1806, and has since remained in their possession. Cape Town is resorted to by ships bound to the Indian Ocean, for supplies of water and provision. The Hottentots, or Bushmen, are a degraded race, but instead of endeavoring to better their condition, the Europeans have contributed to prolong, and in fact consolidate, their evil habits, furnishing them with spirituous liquors, the agency of which insures their destruction, or reduces them to an abject state which is far worse than death itself. The cruelty practiced on the natives by the Dutch almost exceeds belief. When a party of Dutch wished to settle in any spot, they proceeded to clear it by the death of the natives, with as much coolness as an American squatter would exhibit, in hewing down the forest-trees to open a place for the erection of his log-house, or in picking off with his rifle a few of the wild animals which threatened to be troublesome. The Dutch manner of proceed-

ing was summary. Having selected the hut of some poor wretch as an object of destruction, they first set fire to it. Let us imagine the dismay and horror of a poor family at finding flames breaking forth around, above them, in every direction. Rushing forth, the wretched owners of the miserable dwelling would implore pity from their cruel enemies. The Dutch boors would be too much engaged in loading their pieces and discharging them upon the males, to heed the cries of the females, who, with their children, were generally saved. The indifference with which the boors regarded the death of the Bushmen, is strikingly illustrated in the following anecdote. A boor, presenting himself at the secretary's office at Cape Town, after having traversed a lonely tract, was asked if he had not found the Bushmen troublesome? "Not very," replied he, with great coolness, "I only shot four."

In 1848, the population was 200,546. Cape Town, the capital of the British possessions in this region, was the first settlement of the Dutch.

CAPE VERDE ISLANDS, a group of islands, in the Atlantic, opposite to and 390 miles from Cape Verde, belonging to Portugal. Their number has been variously stated from ten to fourteen. The air is unwholesome, but some portion of the soil is fertile. Rain is unfrequent, and the drought has been so severe that numbers of the inhabitants have perished from the consequent famine. The salt manufactured at Mayo, a small island, is exchanged for flour, and this trade is chiefly carried on by means of American vessels. The inhabitants, who are mostly negroes, numbered 86,738 in 1850. These isles were known to the ancients as the Gorgades, but were not visited by the moderns till 1446.

CAPET. The family name of a royal race, thirty-six members of which have reigned in France, and eighty-two in other European states. The word signifies 'broad-head,' or perhaps 'broad-hat,' and was first given to Hugo, son of Hugo the Great, Duke of France and Count of Paris, by his adherents, in the tenth century. He seized the throne on the death of Louis V., the Indolent, the last of the Carolingian race, A.D. 987. Louis had reigned but one year, and was poisoned by his queen, who loved him not.

CAPO D'ISTRIA, John, Count of, a native of Greece, was born at Corfu, in 1760. He entered the diplomatic service of Russia, was intrusted with several important missions, and assisted to manage the intrigues by which that power fomented the disaffection of the Greeks toward the Turks. In 1827, he was elected president of the Greek republic. In this responsible station, his talents appear to have been of a high order, although the weakness of the state, and the disorders which reigned throughout Greece, embarrassed his abilities. He was assassinated in 1831, his leaning toward Russian policy gaining him enemies.

CAPPADOCIA, a province of Asia, once of great importance as an independent kingdom, at times, although nominally dependent upon Persia, whose satraps governed it. The Pontus Euxinus lay upon the north, Armenia on the east, Cilicia and Syria on the south, and Lycaonia on the west. It was divided into Cappadocia Magna, and Cappadocia Minor, afterward Cappadocia Proper, and Pontus. The kingdom was founded by Pharnaces, 744 B.C. The people are said to have been addicted to every vice that man is capable of committing. They worshiped the sun. Arche-laüs, the last king, bequeathed the country to the Romans, A.D. 17.

CAPRI, the ancient Capræ, a beautiful rocky island in the Gulf of Naples, whose inhabitants are 6,000 in number. Besides being valuable on account of its oil and wine, it is enriched by quails, which come hither in great numbers from Africa, and are caught with ease. The charms of this island induced Tiberius to select it for his retreat when he chose to retire from the active administration of government, and give himself up to the most revolting debauchery, occasionally reminding his subjects of his existence by ordering the execution of Rome's best citizens.

CAPUCHIN FRIARS, a sort of Franciscans, to whom this name was given from their wearing a great *capuchon*, or cowl, an odd kind of cap, or hood, sewn to their habit, and hanging down upon their backs. They were founded by Matthew Baschi, about 1525. Although the rigors of this order have abated, still the brethren are marked for their extreme poverty and privations.

CARABOBO, a province of Venezuela, in

South America. The famous battle of Carabobo, which decided the independence of Venezuela, was fought between Bolivar and La Torre, the Spanish general, June 24th, 1821.

CARACALLA, ANTONINUS BASSIANUS, the eldest son of the Emperor Severus, born A.D. 188, and associated with his father in the government at the age of thirteen years. After his father's death, he assassinated his brother Geta, who shared the throne with him, in 212. Caracalla received the surname of Alemannicus, for basely murdering a tribe of the Germans whom he pretended to assist. He visited Egypt, and displayed every where the greatest cruelty. He was finally assassinated at Edessa, A.D. 217, by Macrinus, the prætorian prefect.

CARACTACUS, king of the Silures, a British tribe of Wales, who, being taken prisoner by the Romans, was led before the Emperor Claudius, A.D. 52. He was unawed by the power and splendor which surrounded him, but was surprised, as he told the emperor, that the possessors of so much wealth and grandeur could envy him his humble cottage. The magnanimity of his bearing, and the candor and moderation of his remarks, so moved the emperor, that he gave orders to have the captive monarch set at liberty. This was the only good action performed by Claudius that is extant.

CARBONARI ('colliers'), the name of a secret political society of Italy which existed for many years, but the origin of which is doubtful. The Carbonari were sworn foes of oppression, "Hatred to tyrants!" being the initiatory oath. The places where they met were called *huts*; the interior the *colliery*, and the exterior the *wood*. Tolerance in religious matters was secured by their principles. In 1820, when Italy was disturbed by plots, 650,000 new members were admitted, in the month of March. In that year the society was suppressed by the Austrian government; though there is reason to think it yet exists.

CARDINALS were originally the parish priests at Rome; title began to be used, 308; college of, founded by Pope Pascal I., 817; did not elect the popes till 1160; wore the red hat, to remind them that they ought to shed their blood, if required, for religion, and were declared princes of the church, 1243; the cardinals set fire to the conclave, and sep-

arated, and a vacancy in the papal chair for two years, 1314; Cardinal Carassa was hanged by order of Pius IV., 1560; as was Cardinal Poli, under Leo X.; the title of eminence first given them by Pope Urban VIII., about 1630. Paul II. gave them the scarlet habit, 1464. The cardinals are now ecclesiastical princes in the Church of Rome. They are the council of the pope, and constitute the conclave or sacred college.

CAREY, WILLIAM, D.D. of the English Baptist mission at Serampore, was born Aug. 17th, 1761. He was the son of a poor man, and commenced business in life as a shoemaker. By industry and application he acquainted himself with Hebrew and various other languages. In 1793, he left England for India. He translated the Scriptures into Bengalee, and into all the principal languages of northern Hindostan, and compiled also a voluminous Bengalee dictionary. He died in 1834.

CARLOS, commonly known as Don Carlos, son of Philip I. of Spain by his first wife, Mary of Portugal, was born at Valladolid, Jan. 8th, 1544. Four days after, his mother died in the midst of preparations for the celebration of the birth of the prince. Carlos was naturally feeble, and had one leg shorter than the other. The excessive indulgence with which he was treated in youth, fostered his strong passions, and rendered him vindictive and obstinate. In 1560, Philip caused the states, assembled at Toledo, solemnly to recognize Don Carlos as heir to the crown. A headlong fall down the staircase of the palace of the Cardinal Ximenes at Alcalá, in 1562, nearly deprived the young prince of life. His skull was fractured, and trepanning was necessary. Of course a royal prince of Spain could not be restored without a miracle, and the credit of Carlos's recovery was divided between the bones of a holy friar and the image of Our Lady of Atocha. These sanctified instrumentalities did not work a radical cure, for the brain of their patient had received a permanent injury.

Writers vary greatly in the portraits which they draw of Don Carlos. According to some, he was born with those qualities which adorn a hero, with a love of glory joined to high courage, a proud disdain of opposition, and a desire of extended power. According

to others, his actions were those of a madman, whom accident and opposition irritate, but address or submission calms. It is certain that after this accident he displayed much eccentricity of conduct, and gave himself to reckless gratification of his passions.

One night, as he was traversing the streets of Madrid, some one accidentally threw a little water on his head. Instantly stopping, Don Carlos ordered his attendants to set fire to the house, and cut the throats of its inmates. They parted, as if to execute his commands, but returning immediately, assured him that it was impossible to obey him, because the holy sacrament was on the point of being administered to a sick person in the offensive dwelling. This reply pacified the prince.

Cardinal Epinosa, president of the council of Castile, and afterward grand-inquisitor, banished a comedian named Cisneros from the place, where he was to have performed that night for the prince's diversion. It was probably by Philip's order. Carlos, meeting the cardinal, seized him roughly by the collar, and, laying his hand on his poniard, exclaimed, "You scurvy priest, do you dare to prevent Cisneros from playing before me? By the life of my father, I will kill you!" The trembling prelate, throwing himself upon his knees, was too happy to escape with his life from the hands of the infuriated prince.

An unfortunate money-lender, one Grimaldo, after having supplied the prince with some money he had asked, added in the usual high-flown style of Castilian politeness, that all that he had was at his disposal. Carlos took him at his word, and instantly demanded a hundred thousand ducats. In vain Grimaldo protested that he had only used a form of speech current in all good society. The best bargain he could make was to be let off with sixty thousand, to be furnished within twenty-four hours.

A shoemaker having made a pair of boots much too tight for the prince, the latter ordered them to be cut to pieces and stewed. "Villain!" exclaimed he, to the terrified tradesman, "thou must eat these or die!" In vain the unfortunate man represented the cruelty of the sentence, and the trivial nature of his offense. He was not permitted to depart until he had eaten up his boots.

Don Alonzo de Cordova, brother of the

Marquis of Las Nevas, having failed to repair instantly to the prince's chamber, at the summons of his bell, the furious prince seized him by the waist, and, but for the cries of the sufferer, which procured the assistance of servants, would have dashed the chamberlain through the window into the moat.

Yet Carlos at other times behaved in a most generous manner, and he obtained the affections of those members of the royal family who approached him most nearly. One of these, romance has closely linked with his unfortunate fate. In 1559, a marriage had been proposed between Don Carlos and Isabella, daughter of Henry II. and Catharine de Medici of France. Philip judged proper to substitute himself for his son. It has been said that Carlos loved Isabella, that their passion was mutual, and that he never forgave his father for having deprived him of his bride.

Carlos may have cherished such a sentiment, no doubt, but that Isabella loved the sallow and sickly boy is hardly probable. She was kind to him, and always befriended him, but it was the kindness of an amiable woman and a relative. She appears to have possessed a complete control over him, so that his conduct in her presence was never extravagant.

Philip served Carlos a second trick of this kind. He was led, in 1565, to hope for a union with the Archduchess Anne, his cousin, and daughter of the Emperor Maximilian, but Philip shortly afterward opposed the match, and, on the death of Don Carlos, married the lady himself. Thus he successively deprived his son of two females, whose attractions might have bound him to domestic life, and softened the wilder and more obdurate portions of his character.

In 1653, Philip, who had no heir but Don Carlos, whom he doubtless judged incapable of governing, sent for his nephews, the Archdukes Rodolphus and Ernest, whom he received in person, for the purpose of securing the succession to them. The following year, Don Carlos, who was discontented, and at variance with his father, projected his escape from Spain under the pretext of going to the relief of Malta, then besieged by the troops of Solymán. He collected fifty thousand ducats, and was on the eve of departing,

when a forged letter of the viceroy of Naples, urging his stay in Spain, induced him to change his resolution. It is unnecessary to dwell upon the various projects of Don Carlos for securing fame and distinction in other countries, all of which were crossed by his stern parent, who regarded him with a jealous eye, and punished several of his confidants and friends.

Philip appeared to repose implicit confidence in the Duke of Alva, Ruy Gomez de Sylva, and Espinosa. Don Carlos had an invincible repugnance to these men, either from jealousy of the confidence they enjoyed, or from considering them as authorized and privileged spies upon his conduct. He could not bear to dwell upon the thought that the Duke of Alva had obtained the government of Flanders, which he had solicited for himself. When Alva came to pay his respects to him previous to his departure for the Netherlands, the prince fiercely said, "You are not to go to Flanders; I will go there myself." Alva endeavored to pacify him, saying that it was too dangerous a mission for the heir to the throne; that he was going to quiet the troubles of the country, and prepare it for the coming of the king, when the prince could accompany his father, if his presence could be spared in Castile. But this explanation only served to irritate Carlos the more; and, drawing his dagger, he turned suddenly on the duke, exclaiming, 'You shall not go; if you do, I will kill you.' A struggle ensued; an awkward one for Alva, as to injure the heir-apparent might be construed into treason. Fortunately, being much the stronger of the two, he grappled with Carlos and held him tight, while the latter exhausted his strength in ineffectual efforts to escape. But no sooner was the prince released than he turned again, with the fury of a madman, on the duke, who again closed with him, when the noise of the fray brought in one of the chamberlains from an adjoining room; and Carlos, extricating himself from the iron grasp of his adversary, withdrew to his own apartment.

"I'll kill you" seems to have been his favorite threat. Louis de Foix, a French engineer, the celebrated architect who built the Escorial, is said to have been commanded by Don Carlos to make him a book heavy

enough to kill a man at one blow. De Thou, the historian who relates this, says, "This prince desired the book, after having read in the annals of Spain that an imprisoned archbishop had made a leather cover to a brick of the size of his breviary, and used it to kill his jailer, whom he struck dead." De Foix told the historian that he made the prince a book, composed of ten tablets of a blue stone, covered with plates of steel, concealed under plates of gilt, and this book, six inches by four, weighed more than fourteen pounds. He said also that Don Carlos, wishing to be alone in his chamber, employed him to make him a machine, with which by means of pulleys he could fasten and unfasten his door without rising from his bed. The prince had always under his pillow two drawn swords, a brace of loaded pistols, and at the bedside, half a dozen arquebusses and an arm-chest.

These precautions and preparations alarmed Philip. Don Carlos was often heard muttering against the conduct of his father. He went about frequently repeating that there was a man with whom he had quarreled, whom he desired to kill. At Christmas time it was the custom of the royal family to take the sacrament together in public; and to prepare himself for this sacred ceremony, Carlos went to confession. He confessed that he was meditating murder, without revealing his intended victim. The confession being revealed to Philip, he exclaimed, "I am the man whose life he seeks! but I will take care to prevent the execution of his designs."

The dark surmise of the father was confirmed. Don Carlos's confessor refused him absolution. Several learned divines were got together to give their opinions on the case. One of the number, wishing to draw from Carlos the name of his enemy, told him that this intelligence might possibly have some influence on their judgment. The prince replied that "his father was the person, and that he wished to have his life!" What more palpable proof of insanity could be put on record! At the same time that he was brooding over this assassination, he was also projecting schemes to fly from the palace and his father. Both designs were of course revealed to the king, who now took prompt measures for his arrest. De Foix was ordered to arrest the action of the pulleys which closed the door of

the prince's chamber. This was done privately, and with so much skill that the prince never perceived it. He slept soundly on the night of the 18th of January, 1568, when the Count of Lerma first entered his apartment, silently removed all separate weapons, and sat down upon the chest which contained the remainder. The king then entered, preceded by Ruy Gomez de Sylva, the Duke of Feria, several other noblemen, and guards, Don Carlos being still buried in sleep. Being awaked, and seeing his father, he exclaimed, "I am lost," and mingled prayers for death with loud cries and menaces. Philip coldly replied that his life was not in danger; ordered him to rise; removed his attendants, seized a casket filled with papers, which was under the bed, charged those whom he intrusted with the care of the prince not to lose sight of him, and to prevent his writing or communicating with any one, and withdrew. Out of that room Don Carlos never again passed. The windows were barred up, the door secured, a guard of twelve halberdiers were constantly stationed in the passages leading to it, and night and day there were noblemen appointed to keep watch over the prisoner himself. All communication with the outer world was cut off. He was as one buried alive.

The guards dressed him in black. They removed the bed itself, leaving only a small trundle-bed in its place. The confinement soon told upon his health; and the unhappy prisoner seems to have hastened his end by his own wild behavior. At one time he would abstain from food for days together; then he would eat enormously. He would also deluge the floor with water; then walk about half-naked with bare feet on the cold pavement. He caused a warning-pan filled with ice and snow to be introduced several times in a night into his bed. But Mr. Prescott tells us that for this last practice he might have pleaded the medical authorities of his time, and that it was only the hydropathic treatment of that day. He caused a large fire to be built, under pretense of cold, and threw himself into it, to perish in the flames. It required the utmost exertions of his guards to save him. He endeavored to choke himself by swallowing a large diamond which he wore about him.

Philip is said to have discovered in the cask-

et which was found concealed under the bed of Don Carlos, communications with the rebels of the Netherlands. The excessive precautions which Philip took to justify his conduct, have disposed posterity to judge favorably of Don Carlos. It is certain that many of the most influential grandees of Spain vainly petitioned for his liberation.

Some historians are of opinion that Carlos was condemned to death by the inquisition, that the sentence was secretly executed, that the prince partook of some poisoned broth, and died a few hours afterward. Some believe that his veins were opened in the bath, others that he was strangled; while Ferreras, and the Spanish historians in general, declare that he died of a malignant fever, occasioned by an improper regimen and by violent fits of passion; that he received the last sacraments with piety, and wished to have the blessing of his father. It is difficult to determine the manner or date of the prince's death, but we incline to refer it to the 24th of July, 1568. The same year Isabella died, aged twenty-three, but her death was natural and had no connection with the fate of Don Carlos. We do not know how much faith to repose in the Spanish historians who defend the memory of Philip as the protector of religion, and represent his son as a languid member of the church, a partisan of the revolted Calvinists of the Netherlands, and, above all, a determined opponent of the inquisition. Whether or not Philip adopted any measures to hasten the death of his son, beyond the close confinement we have mentioned, it is clear that he sternly intended that Don Carlos should not survive him.

CARLSBAD, an aristocratic watering-place in Europe, is in Bohemia. The arrival of distinguished strangers is heralded by trumpeters stationed on a tall tower near the market-place; the tone and length of the blasts depending on the character of the equipage. The popular spirit manifested throughout Europe against despotic governments, induced the congress of Carlsbad, Aug. 1st, 1819; whereat the great continental powers decreed measures to repress the rage for free institutions, and denounced liberal opinions and the liberty of the press.

CARMELITES, or WHITE FRIARS, one of the four mendicant orders, and bound by

austere rules, appeared in 1141. Their rigor was moderated about 1540. They claim their descent in uninterrupted succession from the prophet Elijah, and take their name from Mt. Carmel, on which mountain they have a monastery, built, they say, on the spot where the Tishbite and his pupil Elisha had their abode.

CARNOT, LAZARE NICOLAS MARGUERITE, born in Burgundy, 1753. He was distinguished for his mathematical abilities, and in the revolution commenced his career as captain of a corps of engineers. He voted for the death of the king. Carnot distinguished himself in a military and civil capacity, but was obliged to leave Paris, June 18th, 1799; being soon after recalled, he was made, in April, 1800, minister of war. He was a firm republican, opposed the ambitious views of Napoleon, and equally so the attempts of the royalists. He died at Magdeburg, August 3d, 1823. Carnot was a man of integrity and talents, brave, learned, and patriotic, and honored by all parties.

CAROLINE, wife of George IV. of England, was born in May, 1768. She was the daughter of the Duke of Brunswick, and in 1795 became the bride of the Prince of Wales. Her daughter, the Princess Charlotte, died at an early age, regretted by all. The prince abandoned Caroline, and, in order to procure her ruin, accused her of infidelity. The trial of the unhappy queen reflects disgrace upon the profligate prince. She refused the offers which were made to induce her to quit England with the empty name of queen, and asserted her rights with dignity and firmness. She finally succumbed under the persecution of her enemies, and died Aug. 7th, 1821.

CARRIER, JOHN BAPTIST, born in 1756, originally an obscure attorney, rose to infamous notoriety in the French revolution. Under his direction, the greatest cruelties were perpetrated, and 15,000 individuals perished in little more than a month. He was finally apprehended and condemned to death by the revolutionary tribunal, Dec. 16th, 1794.

CARROLL, CHARLES, of Carrollton, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, survived all his associates in that momentous act. He was a native of Annapolis, Md., and was born Sept. 20th, 1737. His parents were of Irish descent and of the Roman Catholic religion, and he was sent to France to be ed-

ucated in that faith. After studying civil law in France, he repaired to England to acquire a knowledge of the common law. He returned to his native land in 1765, a finished scholar, and soon distinguished himself by able political writing and active opposition to the arbitrary aggressions of the British ministry. He was elected to the congress of 1776, and placed his name to the Declaration of Independence. He was possessed of a large estate, and as he advanced to sign the immortal document, a member sportively remarked, "There goes half a million at the dash of a pen." But his wealth vanished from his view, when he looked upon the interests of his country.

He retired from Congress in 1778, and was thereafter a member of the state legislature till 1789, when he entered the first federal congress as senator from his native state. In the senate he remained till 1792. His latter days were spent amid honoring friends and in the tranquil enjoyment of study and literature. Charles Carroll of Carrollton, the last on earth of those who signed the charter of our liberties, died Nov. 14th, 1832, at the ripe age of ninety-four.

CARTER, ELIZABETH, an English literary lady, daughter of a clergyman of Kent, born in 1717. She was acquainted with Latin, Greek, French, German, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Hebrew, and Arabic. In 1749, her translation of Epictetus was commenced. She died in 1806, having enjoyed a high literary reputation, and the esteem of all who knew her.

CARTHAGE, the rival of Rome, and long the mistress of Spain, Sicily, and Sardinia, was a colony of the Tyrians, and one of the latest Phœnician settlements on the African coast of the Mediterranean. The precise time of its foundation is unknown; yet most writers agree that it was built by Dido about 869 B.C., or according to others 72 or 93 years before the foundation of Rome. The tradition is that Dido was a Tyrian princess, who fled to Africa to avoid the persecutions of her brother Pygmalion. She outwitted the natives in making purchase of a piece of land whereon to build her citadel. They agreed for a certain sum to give her as much land as she could encompass with a bull's hide (*byrsa*). When the money was paid, the artful princess cut the hide into narrow

thongs, with which she found herself able to inclose a very large space. The citadel which she subsequently erected on this spot, was called, in memory of the transaction, Byrsa.

Carthage flourished for several centuries, attaining the zenith of its glory under Hannibal and Hamilcar. At one time the city contained 700,000 inhabitants. Its power excited the jealousy of the Romans. The latter, proud and strong, determined on the conquest and ruin of their wealthy rivals. The three famous wars between Rome and Carthage are known as the Punic wars. They brought forth all the energies of the hostile parties. The Carthaginians confided in their inexhaustible wealth and the superiority of their navy the Romans in their superior hardihood and energy. The Romans were ultimately victorious, and, above all others of their leaders, Scipio acquired the greatest renown. For his successes and his struggles in Africa, he obtained the name of Africanus. It must not be supposed that the Carthaginians tamely submitted to the Roman arms: on the contrary, even to the last, they defended their city against the invaders, with unequalled bravery. Gold and silver vessels were surrendered by the luxurious Africans to procure the means of carrying on the war; and the women, with patriotic devotion, cut off their fine long hair, and twisted it into bow strings. All their exertions were unavailing. The skill and bravery of the Romans, who fought under the eye and example of Scipio, prevailed, and in the third Punic war, Carthage was totally demolished, B.C. 146. The siege was wondrous for its horrors, for the desperate resistance of the Carthaginians, and the self-devotedness of their women. As the Roman troops drove the Carthaginians before them in every quarter, a few firm heroines, among whom was the wife of Asdrubal, the Carthaginian general, with her children, endeavored to maintain their position in the temple in which they had sought refuge. Finding it impossible to defend this, the wife of Asdrubal determined to set fire to it and perish. She dressed herself accordingly in a splendid garb, and having fired the building, first stabbed her children and then plunged into the flames. The city was thirty-six miles in circumference, and when it was

fired by the Romans, it burned incessantly for seventeen days. Thousands perished in the conflagration, rather than yield, so that out of the great population, only fifty thousand surrendered themselves to Scipio and were saved. Caesar planted a small colony on the ruins of Carthage, and Augustus sent thither three thousand men. Adrian, after the example of his imperial predecessors, rebuilt a portion of it, and gave it the name of Adrianopolis. This new Carthage was conquered from the Romans by the arms of Genseric, A.D. 439, was for more than a century the seat of the Vandal empire in Africa, fell into the hands of the Saracens in 697, and was utterly destroyed.

The riches and commerce of the Carthaginians were immense, and their naval power, at one time, supreme. They bore the character of a faithless and treacherous people, and the proverb *Punica fides* (Carthaginian faith), is well known. Their religion was gloomy and cruel. Human victims were offered to the gods to appease their wrath: these sacrifices were usually their own children, whose mothers, unmoved by their cries and agonies, gave them to the glowing, red-hot Moloch. Captives also were thus immolated. Criminals were executed by crucifixion, to which other aggravated tortures were frequently added. The government was oligarchical, and centered in the city, which ruled all the other territory. The boundaries coincided nearly with those of the present state of Tunis.

CARTHUSIANS, a religious order founded by Bruno of Cologne, who in 1084 retired from the world to Chartreuse in the mountains of Dauphiny. Their austere rules were formed by Basil VII., general of the order. The monks could neither leave their cells nor speak, without express leave; and their clothing was two hair-cloths, two cowls, two pair of hose, and a cloak, all coarse. The general takes the title of prior of the Chartreuse, the principal monastery, from which the order is named, and whose monks in these degenerate days are famous for a generous liqueur they have the secret of compounding. Bruno the founder died in 1101, aged seventy-four.

CARUS, MARCUS AURELIUS, a Roman emperor, was born at Narbonne, about the year

230. He rose to a military command by his virtues, and was elected emperor in 283.

CARVER, JOHN, the first governor of Plymouth colony, died from a sun-stroke, April 3d, 1621. He was of Mr. Robinson's flock, who went from England to Leyden.

CARVER, JONATHAN, was born in Canterbury, Ct., in 1732. He served in the expedition against Canada, and on the conclusion of peace in 1763, attempted to explore the territory acquired by Gt. Britain, beyond the Mississippi. He hoped to reach the Pacific in the latitude of the great lakes, and open a shorter route to the East Indies. Failing of this, yet he explored the borders of Lake Superior, then comparatively unknown. He went to England, but was obliged to deliver up his maps and papers to the plantation office. He died in want at Boston in 1780.

CASAS, BARTHOLOMEW DE LAS, a Spanish prelate, the apostle of the Indians. His life was passed in laboring to improve the natives of the New World, and he received the grateful title of protector of the Indians. He came to Hispaniola in 1502, returned to Spain in 1551, and died at Madrid in 1566, aged 92.

CASHMERE, the most extensive of the alpine valleys of the Himalaya range is 75 miles in length by 40 in breadth, and lies imbedded in high mountains. The costly shawls of Cashmere, which can be woven of no other wool than that of Thibet, were first brought to England in 1666.

CASIMIR, the name of several kings of Poland. Casimir III., called the Great, succeeded Ladislaus in 1333. He united to his warlike qualities, the virtues of a great monarch, and from his devotion to their welfare, was called the peasants' king. He was killed by a fall from his horse, in 1370, aged 61.

CASS, LEWIS, born in Exeter, N. H., Oct. 9, 1782, was educated at Exeter Academy from his tenth year. Removing with his parents to Wilmington, Del., he became a teacher. Seeking his fortune in the West, he crossed the Alleghanies on foot, when 17 years old, and settling in Marietta, O., studied law, was admitted to the bar in 1802, became member of the legislature in 1806, and marshall of the State 1807-11.—Volunteering to repel Indian aggressions, he was elected Col. of the 3d Reg. O. Vols., and entered the service of the U. S. at the begin-

ning of the war of 1812. Reaching Detroit with the advance force, he urged the immediate invasion of Canada, was the author of the proclamation of that event, and the first to land on the enemy's shore, winning the first battle, that of Tarontoe. He rose in the regular army to the rank of Brig. Gen., and was Maj. Gen. of Ohio Vols. He was Gov. of Michigan Territory 1813-31, Sec. of War in Gen. Jackson's Cabinet, 1831-6, Minister to France 1836-42, and U. S. Senator 1845-48. In May, 1848, he received the Democratic nomination for the Presidency, but was defeated by Gen. Taylor. He was re-elected U. S. Senator in 1849, and became Sec. of State in Pres. Buchanan's Cabinet in 1857. His various trusts he discharged with marked ability. His writings, speeches and state papers would fill several volumes. He had great abilities, with remarkable prudence and judgment. It is said that he never even tasted of spirituous liquors. He died June 17, 1866, aged 84 years.

CASSANDER, one of the generals of Alexander the Great. After his death, Cassander murdered Roxana and her son, seized Macedonia for his share of the empire, and founded a new kingdom. He died 298 B. C.

CASSANDRA (ALEXANDRIA). According to the ancients, she received the gift of prophecy from Apollo, who loved her, but as she refused to fulfill the conditions upon which the knowledge was imparted, the offended deity deprived her predictions of the power of commanding belief. Thus, when she foretold the fall of Troy, her words were discredited. Troy was taken, Cassandra dishonored at the altar by Ajax, and then dragged away as the slave and companion of Agamemnon with whom she was slain by Clytemnestra.

CASSINI DE THURY, CÆSAR FRANÇOIS, director of the royal observatory after his father James, was born at Paris, June 17th, 1714. He died Sept. 4th, 1784, and was succeeded by his son, Count John Dominic, with whom ended this family of astronomers, who had been at the head of the royal observatory in Paris since its foundation in 1670.

CASSIUS, LONGINUS CAIUS, was the friend of Brutus, and opposed to the interests of Cæsar, to whom, however, he surrendered after the battle of Pharsalia. When he perceived that Cæsar aimed at supreme power,

he conspired against him. "The lean and hungry Cassius," as Shakspeare calls him, was among the first to strike the master of the world with his dagger. He married the sister of Brutus, and in the distribution of the provinces, obtained Africa as his share. He was defeated with Brutus at Philippi, B.C. 42, and ordered his freedman to run him through the body.

CASTIGLIONE, one of the most brilliant victories of the French arms under Gen. Bonaparte, fought in Italy against the main body of Austrians commanded by Wurmser. The battle lasted from the 2d to the 6th of July, 1796. The Austrian loss in this obstinate conflict was seventy field-pieces, between 12,000 and 15,000 prisoners, and 6,000 killed and wounded.

CASTLEREAGH. **ROBERT STEWART**, Baron Castlereagh, and Marquis of Londonderry, was born in Ireland, June 18th, 1769. He was a prominent statesman of the Tory party, and represented England at the congresses of Vienna in 1814 and 1815. He was a man of fine person, and an industrious minister, but as an orator he signally failed. He mixed his metaphors sadly. Here is one of them which Moore versified:

"The level of obedience slopes
Upward and downward, as the stream
Of hydra faction kicks the beam."

Lord Castlereagh, in a fit of excitement resulting from over-exertion, cut his throat, Aug. 12th, 1822.

CATALINE, **LUCIUS SERGIUS**, a celebrated Roman, descended from a noble family. When he had squandered away his fortune by his debaucheries and extravagance, and had been refused the consulship, he secretly meditated the ruin of his country, and conspired with many high-born Romans as dissolute as himself, to murder the senate, plunder the treasury, and set Rome on fire. This conspiracy was timely discovered by the consul Cicero, whose eloquence at this crisis will never be forgotten. Cataline, after he had declared his intentions in full senate, and attempted to vindicate himself, on seeing five of his accomplices arrested, fled to Gaul, where his friends were raising a powerful army to support him. The remaining conspirators were punished. Petreius, at the head of the consular troops, defeated the

rebels in Etruria, Jan. 5th, B.C. 62, in a hotly contested battle which cost Cataline his life. The crimes of this man were of the blackest dye, murder and licentiousness marking every stage of his career.

CATHARINE of Arragon, youngest daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, sovereigns of Arragon and Castile, was born in 1488. In 1501 she was married to Arthur, eldest son of Henry VII., and after his death to his brother, afterward Henry VIII. By him she had several children, who died young, with the exception of Mary, afterward Queen of England. Henry repudiated her in 1533, on pretense of religious scruples grounded on her marriage to his brother. She maintained her rights with dignity, and died at Kimbolton Castle, in 1536.

CATHARINE, the only daughter of Lorenzo de Medici, Duke of Urbino, and wife of Henry, Duke of Orleans, afterward Henry II. of France, was born in 1519. She was the mother of three successive kings of France, and one queen of Navarre. In 1559, she became a widow, and her son Francis succeeded to the throne, during whose reign her influence was supplanted by the Guises. On the accession of her second son, Charles IX., in his eleventh year, she acquired the regency, and brought eternal infamy on her name by the horrible treachery to the Huguenots, and the massacre of St. Bartholomew's day. She died in 1589. She was very extravagant, seemingly incapable of setting bounds to her expenditures. When upbraided with her prodigality she would exclaim, "One must live!" Her talents were as commanding as were her vices odious.

CATHARINE I. and **II.** of Russia. [See **ROMANOFF**.]

CATO, **MARCUS PORTIUS**, commonly called the Censor, was born at Tusculum, 232 B.C. He distinguished himself in the army at the age of seventeen, and was remarkable for his temperance and abstinence. In Sicily and Africa, as military tribune and quæstor, he was noted for the fidelity with which he discharged his duties. The censors were two magistrates whose duty was to survey and rate, and correct the manners of the people. Their power was also extended over private families, and they restrained extravagance. The office was established 443 B.C., and abol-

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ished by the emperors. When Cato was made a censor, he opposed Valerius Flaccus, his colleague, in his attempt to repeal the Oppian law, which was once passed for the suppression of luxury. He conducted the war in further Spain with great success, and took no part of the spoils to his own share. On his arrival at Rome he was honored with a triumph. As consul he manifested his dislike to luxury, in whatever shape it was presented. He also distinguished himself by his hatred to Carthage, always concluding his speeches in the senate with the expression, "*Prætereæ censeo Carthaginem esse delendam*" (Besides I think it necessary to destroy Carthage). He died B.C. 147. In his old age he gave himself up to scholastic enjoyments.

CATO, MARCUS PORCIUS, surnamed *Uticensis* from the place of his death (Utica), was the great-grandson of the preceding, and born about 95 B.C. The virtues he displayed in his early childhood seemed to prognosticate his future greatness. At the age of fourteen, he earnestly asked his preceptor for a sword to stab the tyrant Sylla. He served in the army against the insurgent gladiator Spartacus, and though his services entitled him to the office of tribune, he never applied for it till he saw it in danger of being filled unworthily. He was very jealous of the safety and liberty of the republic, and watched carefully over the conduct of Pompey, whose power and influence were great. In the conspiracy of Cataline he supported Cicero, and was instrumental in procuring the capital punishment of the conspirators. When the provinces of Gaul were decreed for five years to Cæsar, Cato observed to the senators that they had introduced a tyrant into the capitol. Being sent to Cyprus against Ptolemy, by the influence of his enemies, who hoped to injure his reputation, his prudence extricated him from every danger. That prince submitted to him, and, after a successful campaign, Cato was received at Rome with the most distinguished honors, which he, however, modestly declined. He strenuously opposed the first triumvirate between Cæsar, Pompey, and Crassus, and foretold to the Roman people all the misfortunes that soon after followed. After repeated applications he was made prætor, but unsuccessfully applied for the office of consul. When Cæsar had passed

the Rubicon, Cato advised the Roman senate to deliver the care of the republic into the hands of Pompey, and when his advice had been complied with, followed him with his son to Dyrrachium, where after some considerable success there, he was intrusted with the care of the ammunition, and the command of fifteen cohorts. After the battle of Pharsalia, Cato took command of the fleet, and when he heard of Pompey's death on the coast of Africa, he traversed the deserts of Libya, to join himself to Scipio. He, however, refused to take the command in Africa, but when he heard of Scipio's defeat, fortified himself in Utica. Cæsar approached the city, but Cato disdained to fly, and strengthening his resolution by reading Plato's treatise on the immortality of the soul, gave himself the fatal wound, Feb. 5th, B.C. 45. Cæsar, on hearing of his fate, exclaimed, "I envy thee thy death, since thou couldst begrudge me the pleasure of saving thy life."

The suicide of Cato was termed the era destructive of the liberties of Rome. The patriot and philosopher considered freedom as that which alone sustains the name and dignity of man, and would not survive the independence of his country. Yet by this rash act of suicide, as Montesquieu has said, Cato carried his patriotism to the highest degree of political frenzy, leaving aside all moral considerations; for Cato dead could be of no use to his country; while had he preserved his life, his counsels might have moderated Cæsar's ambition, and have given a different turn to public affairs.

CAUCASUS, a chain of mountains inhabited by a great number of tribes, and of vast extent, lying between the Black and Caspian seas, and covering 127,140 square miles, being about seven hundred miles long, and, at the widest, a hundred and fifty miles broad. According to the ancients, Prometheus was tied on the top of Caucasus by Jupiter, and continually devoured by vultures. As great perfection of form and an ancient origin were attributed to the inhabitants of this region, the highest rank in ethnological classification has been termed the Caucasian race.

CAULAINCOURT, ARMAND AUGUSTINE LOUIS DE, Duke of Vicenza, an eminent minister of the French empire under Bonaparte, died in 1827 at the age of fifty-four.

CAVAIGNAC, EUGENE, was born in Paris, Dec. 15th, 1802. After a regular course of study at the Polytechnic school, he entered the army, and in 1830 was sent to Africa for refusing to fire upon the inhabitants of Metz, in case of an insurrection. He distinguished himself greatly in 1836 by holding the citadel of Tlemcen with a small body of troops, against repeated assaults by the Arabs under Abd-el-Kader. From this period he was actively and creditably engaged in the Algerine war, and rose so rapidly in the service, that in 1847, he was a general of brigade, succeeding Lamoriciere in the command of the province of Oran, and in February, 1848, was appointed by the provisional government, general of division and governor-general of Algeria. During the few weeks he held this office he showed administrative abilities of a high order. Having been elected a member of the national assembly, he left Algiers and arrived in Paris just after the disturbances of the 15th of May, 1848. He was immediately appointed minister of war and put in command of the troops, which, in anticipation of the impending insurrection, were rapidly concentrating in Paris. By the middle of June 75,000 troops of the line were at hand to support the 190,000 national guards already on the ground. On the 22d of June the disaffected began to throw up barricades, and in twenty-four hours one of the most formidable insurrections ever organized in Paris was in full progress. In this emergency, Cavaignac, who had been appointed dictator, acted with coolness and sagacity. Instead of spreading his troops over the city to prevent the erection of barricades, as advised by some, he concentrated them at points where the insurgents were strongest, and bringing them into action in large masses was enabled to overwhelm all opposition. The contest lasted four days, with immense destruction to life and property, and resulted in the total defeat of the rebels. Cavaignac, true to his republican principles, immediately resigned his dictatorship; but his services being deemed too valuable to be lost to the country, he was appointed president of the council, with power to nominate his ministry. He chose it from among the more reasonable and moderate of the pure republicans, afterward admitting several members of the old dynas-

tic opposition. He resolutely removed from office the Socialists, the "Montagne" and the Red Republicans of every shade or sect. A large military force was retained in Paris, and every preparation made to prevent further insurrections. The national workshops were suppressed, but a provision of 3,000,000 francs was made for the poor.

In the election for president, Cavaignac was the leading candidate against Louis Napoleon. He retired into private life without a murmur, after an administration reflecting great credit upon his integrity and his civil and military ability. For several years afterward he was less in public life, but he was deemed, on account of his staunch republicanism, so formidable an opponent to the autocratic schemes of Louis Napoleon, that after the *coup d'etat* of December, 1851, he was one of the number selected for arrest. He was released on condition of leaving the country, and spent several years in Brussels. Within a year or two before his death he was permitted to return to France. At the elections in 1857, Gen. Cavaignac was one of the few successful republican candidates, being chosen to represent one of the constituencies of Paris in the legislature of the empire. His course was looked forward to with much interest. But on the 28th of October, 1857, while out shooting, he died suddenly from aneurism of the heart.

CAVE, EDWARD, a bookseller at St. John's Gate in London, who in 1731 founded the *Gentleman's Magazine*, the first periodical of the sort in England, was born in 1691, and died in 1754.

CAVENDISH, WILLIAM, the first Duke of Devonshire, was born in 1640. He distinguished himself in the House of Commons against the court, and was a witness in favor of Lord Russell, with whom he offered to exchange clothes to enable him to effect his escape. In 1684 he succeeded to the title of Earl of Devonshire, and about the same time was fined £30,000 and imprisoned for assaulting Col. Culpepper, who had insulted him, and whom he dragged by the nose from the presence chamber. He gave bond for the payment of the fine, which, however, he saved by the arrival of the Prince of Orange. In 1689, he was made a privy counselor, and at the coronation of William he served as

lord high steward. He was rewarded with the title of Duke of Devonshire, and during the king's absence, after the death of the queen, was appointed one of the regency. He died in 1707.

CAXTON, WILLIAM, the first English printer, was born in the county of Kent, in the latter part of the reign of Henry IV., was apprenticed to a worthy London mercer, and dwelt in Holland a score and a half of years, as agent for English merchants. There he became acquainted with the new mystery of printing. Under the patronage of Lady Margaret, sister of Edward IV., and bride of the Duke of Burgundy, Caxton translated a French book, titled "The Recuyell of the Historeys of Troye," and printed it at Ghent in 1471. This was the first book ever printed in the English language. In a note the printer said of the work: It "is not wretton with penne and ynke as other books ben to thende that all men may have them att ones, for all the bookes of this storje named The Recule of the Historys of Troye then empyrnted as ye here see, were begonne in oon day and fynysht in oon day." A few years later he established a printing-office at Westminster, and in 1474 produced "The Game of Chess," the first book printed in Britain. Caxton wrote or translated about sixty different books, all of which passed through his own press, before his death in 1491.

CECIL, WILLIAM, Lord Burleigh, a celebrated English statesman, born in 1521. He was dismissed from the office which he held under Henry VIII., upon the accession of Mary, but was the chief counselor of Elizabeth. After being privy counselor, secretary of state, and master of the court of wards, he was chosen chancellor of Cambridge, and raised to the peerage. He died in 1598. As a minister, Burleigh was noted for wariness, application, sagacity, calmness, and a degree of closeness which sometimes degenerated into hypocrisy.

CECIL, ROBERT, Earl of Salisbury, son of the preceding, on account of his deformity and weak constitution, received the rudiments of his education at home. In 1588 he served in the fleet against the Armada, and in 1591 was knighted, and sworn of the privy council. In 1596 he was appointed secretary of state, to the great disgust of the Earl of Essex. The

year following he was ambassador in France, and in 1599 succeeded his father in the court of wards. He kept up a secret correspondence with James of Scotland, whom he proclaimed on the death of Elizabeth, in consequence of which he became the favorite of that monarch. On the death of Lord Dorset, in 1608, he became lord high treasurer, discharging the duties of the office with fidelity, and dying from excessive exertion in 1612, aged forty-nine.

CECROPS, a native of Sais, in Egypt, came to Attica 1556 B.C., founded the city of Athens, instructed the uncivilized Greeks, introduced the worship of Minerva, and laid the foundation of the future prosperity of Greece. He died after a reign of fifty years.

CELEBES, an island in the East Indian seas, separated from Borneo by the Strait of Macassar, having an area of 70,000 square miles, and containing several separate states. The fruits and flowers of this island are abundant, and numbers of wild animals are found here. The Dutch, who possess a part of the island, obtain here gold, ivory, sandal wood, rice, cotton, camphor, ginger, long pepper, and pearls. The population is estimated at between two and three millions.

CELLINI, BENVENUTO, united the talents and skill of a sculptor, engraver, and goldsmith. He was born in Florence in 1500, and enriched his native city with his works. Wild, fiery, and impetuous, although honest, he was frequently involved in quarrels in which he entirely disregarded the rank and strength of his opponents. At the siege of Rome, in 1527, according to his own account, he killed the Constable of Bourbon. Although he behaved with gallantry during the siege, he was accused of secreting the Roman crown jewels, and imprisoned. Francis I., having procured his release, invited him to the French court, but Florence was not to be forgotten by the sculptor, and thither he returned, and died Feb. 13th, 1570.

CELSUS, AUGUSTUS CORNELIUS, a celebrated physician and medical writer of Rome, who flourished about A.D. 37.

CELTÆ, one of the ancient nations of Gallia, whose country extended from Brittany to the Alps and Rhine. Their government was aristocratical, and their aptitude for warlike pursuits great.

CELTIBERIA, an ancient country in the north-east of Spain, along the Iberus. The Celtiberians were completely subdued by the Romans in the Sertorian war.

CENTAURS, an ancient people of Thessaly, about Mount Pelion. As little was known with regard to their actual history, they formed the favorite theme of writers of fable and traditionary tales, being represented as half horse and half man, and being, according to some, the offspring of an intermixture of the human and brute races, or, according to others, the children of Ixion and the Cloud. They were probably young men who, having learned to break and ride horses, hunted the wild bulls that ravaged the neighborhood of Mount Pelion, during the reign of Ixion. Hence they were called Centaurs. In fables, Hercules, Theseus, and Pirithous are said to have contended against them.

CENTRAL AMERICA, the central portion of the long isthmus that unites North and South America, has an area of about 150,000 square miles. Under the Spanish rule it formed the kingdom of Guatemala. For a short time after the revolt from Spain it was united to the Mexican empire of Iturbide. In 1821 its independence was declared, and after some sanguinary struggles, a federal republic was established. This has since been dissolved, and the country is now divided into the distinct republics of Guatemala, San Salvador, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, and Honduras; under which heads further mention will be found. The country is mountainous, containing numerous volcanic summits, the soil fertile, and the products various. The original inhabitants were the Toltecas Indians from Mexico, whom it was found no easy task by the Spaniards to expel. These people, like the Mexicans, had made considerable advances in the arts, as their buildings of various descriptions proved.

CERRO GORDO, a mountain pass on the road from Vera Cruz to Mexico. It was stormed by Scott's army, April 18th, 1847, and the Mexicans under Santa Anna driven from their strong position. There were 12,000 of the Mexicans, horse and foot, besides powerful batteries of artillery. Three thousand, including five generals, surrendered as prisoners of war; Santa Anna fled by a defile on a baggage mule; the remnant of his army,

leaving over a thousand killed and wounded on the field of battle, scampered off on the road, and were pursued as far as Jalapa. This brilliant victory, which destroyed the Mexican army, cost Scott 63 killed and 368 wounded, out of a total force of 8,500.

CERVANTES SAAVEDRA, MIGUEL DE, was born of a noble family, at Alcala de Henares, in New Castile, in 1547. He early cultivated poetry, and preserved throughout his life a strong inclination for the muses. In 1569, Cervantes, in the flower of his age, went to seek in Italy glory or fortune. He first entered the service of Cardinal Acquaviva, in the capacity of page. The war between the Turks and the Venetians offered him a field more worthy of his birth and courage. He was enrolled beneath the banners of the Duke of Paliano, Mark Antony Colonna, general of the naval force sent to succor the island of Cyprus. This expedition was unfortunate; but, in the following year, the victory of Lepanto established the naval honor of Christendom, and in this engagement, whose glory he shared, the left hand of Cervantes was maimed for life. In 1575 he was taken by a corsair and carried to Algiers, where he suffered the evils of slavery for six years. The tale of "The Captive," inserted in his novel of "Don Quixote," describes vividly the scenes through which he passed. His marriage followed close upon the publication of "Galatea," in 1584. This novel celebrates his mistress Catharine Salazar y Palacios. His pen then became the only support of Cervantes. The gloomy reign of Philip II., and that of his successor Philip III., were unfavorable to the efforts of genius, but while the latter of these monarchs filled the throne, the inimitable novel of "Don Quixote" made its appearance. The first part appeared at Madrid in 1605, and the second in 1615. The other works of Cervantes are forgotten in the contemplation of this. One day, as Philip III. was standing in a balcony of his palace at Madrid, he observed a student reading on the banks of the river Manzanares, who seemed to be repeatedly interrupted in his occupation by the excess of his delight, striking his forehead and showing other tokens of the extraordinary amusement his book afforded him. "Either that fellow is mad," said the king, "or he is reading 'Don Quixote.'" Inquiry proved

Philip right in his conjecture, for the student was reading Cervantes' matchless tale of chivalry.

The history of the knight of La Mancha still excites the interest of people of all countries, of all ranks, and of all ages. Who delights not to recall his principal adventures, the attack on the windmills, the affair of the puppets, the affray with the wine-skins, the vigil of arms, the scene of his studies? This celebrated work was written in prison, Cervantes having become obnoxious to the authorities of La Mancha, who procured his imprisonment by the employment of one of the thousand arts known to the civil functionaries of Spain. He revenged himself by making his hero a townsman of his judges, and in choosing their country for the theatre of his exploits. Cervantes died at Madrid, on the 23d of April, 1616, in his sixty-ninth year. It is a coincidence worth noting, that on the same day, Shakespeare expired. He was interred pursuant to his own directions, in the church of the fraternity of the Trinity in that city. His intimate friends mourned for the virtuous citizen and the man of worth. The wits of his day, who had decried his talents, did not consider his loss an irreparable one, and were far enough from believing that Spain would one day have only the romance of "Don Quixote" to oppose to the master-works of other nations.

CEVENNES, a chain of mountains in the south of France, forming a branch of the Alps; the highest summits are 6,500 feet high. Their fastnesses afforded an asylum to the Huguenots in the religious wars of France.

CEYLON, an island off the Coromandel coast of Hindostan. It is a little less in size than Ireland. The climate is generally healthy, the soil fertile, and the variety of its productions surprising. In the bosom of the earth are found precious metals; the rocks are enriched with valuable gems, and the tropical fruits grow wild here. Ceylon yields the chief supply of cinnamon to the world. Among the ancients the elephants of Ceylon were noted for their size and beauty. They often make predatory incursions in troops, and do great injury to the crops. In the recesses of the forests are also found leopards, jackals, monkeys, hyenas, bears, and rac-

coons: The number of inhabitants exceeds 1,500,000. The Cingalese, who form a portion, are divided into castes like the Hindoos, and profess the religion of Buddha. "Ceylon," says Bishop Heber, "might be one of the happiest, as it is one of the loveliest, spots in the universe, if some of the old Dutch laws were done away; among which, in my judgment, the most obnoxious are the monopoly of cinnamon, and the compulsory labor of the peasants on the high roads, and other species of *corvees*." These restraints have since been removed by the British. The natives of Ceylon claim that their island was the seat of Paradise.

Ceylon was known to the Greeks and Romans. The Arabs called it Serendib. There is a tradition that St. Thomas, the apostle, preached the gospel here, but it is more generally believed that Nestorian missionaries accompanying Persian merchants were the first to introduce Christianity. Churches were founded here about the middle of the sixth century, but none were existing when the Portuguese discovered the island in 1505. Xavier soon after made many Catholic converts. The Portuguese so exasperated the natives, that the Cingalese took part with the Dutch, who succeeded in expelling them in 1656. The Dutch, being regarded in the light of benefactors, were rewarded with lavish grants of territory, but repaid kindness by ingratitude, and bloody wars arose, in which the Europeans were invariably victorious. In 1795, the English took possession of this island, which was formally ceded to them in 1802, and completely subjected in 1815.

CHERONEA, an old city of Bœotia, where were fought two battles of note in ancient history. In the first, Aug. 2d, B.C. 338, Philip of Macedon defeated the United armies of Athens and Thebes, thus mastering the liberties of Greece. In the second, B.C. 86, Archelaus, lieutenant of Mithridates, was defeated by Sylla, and 110,000 Cappadocians slain. Chæronea was the birthplace of Plutarch.

CHAISE, FRANCIS DE LA, a French Jesuit, and confessor to Louis XIV. of France, from 1675, to his death, 1709. It is supposed with every rational probability that Father de la Chaise instigated the revocation of the edict of Nantz. The beautiful cemetery of Pere la

Chaise at Paris occupies the site of his house and grounds.

CHALDEA, an ancient country of Asia, near the junction of the Tigris and Euphrates; it was the southerly part of Babylonia, and was extremely fertile. The Chaldeans were an Asiatic tribe originally, and possessed great astronomical knowledge. It was they who founded the mighty empires of Babylon and Assyria. The knowledge of which they boasted was eventually confined to the priests, who added to their sciences the arts of prophecy, magic, &c.

CHALMERS, THOMAS, D.D., foremost among the divines and preachers of Scotland, was born March 17th, 1780, at Anstruther in Fife. From the country parish of Kilmany the fame of his eloquence and zeal was bruited abroad, and in 1815 he was transferred to Glasgow. Crowds thronged the Tron church, not only on the Sabbath, but on week days. A series of Thursday discourses on astronomy, displaying, amid the glow of blazing eloquence, the sublime poetry and religion of the heavens, were published about the same time as the "Tales of My Landlord." The sermons rivaled even the rapid sale of the magic pages of Scott. In 1827, Dr. Chalmers was appointed to the chair of divinity in the university of Edinburgh. His reputation as a divine was enhanced by the works of his pen. He headed the secession of 1843 from the established church of Scotland, and was one of the founders of the Free Church. His health was undermined by his great labors, and he died in 1847.

CHAMBERS, EPHRAIM, the first person in England who undertook a work in the form now known as a cyclopædia, or encyclopædia. His dictionary published in 1728, in two folio volumes, was the origin of what is now termed Rees' Cyclopædia. He was born about 1680, and died May 15th, 1740.

CHAMPE, JOHN, a native of Loudon county, Va. At the age of twenty-four, in the year 1776, he entered the Revolutionary army with the rank of sergeant-major, in Lee's cavalry. His reputation for resolution and address was such, that he was selected to attend the seizure of Arnold, that the execution of the traitor might save the life of Andre. His orders were given him, he left the American camp as a deserter, arrived at

New York after a perilous journey, and, after being closely examined by Sir Henry Clinton, was admitted to serve under him. He failed in the attempt to accomplish his object, and went to Virginia with the royal troops. Escaping, he rejoined his friends, after many hardships. When Washington took command of the army, during the administration of President Adams, it was his intention to bring Champe into the field at the head of a company, but he learned to his grief that the gallant fellow had died in Kentucky.

CHAMPLAIN, a lake of the United States, lying between New York and Vermont, 130 miles long, and from 1 to 15 miles broad. The river Chamby, or Sorelle, forms the outlet by which its waters are discharged into the St. Lawrence. The lake takes its name from Samuel de Champlain, a French naval officer who founded Quebec and Montreal in Canada, of which he was governor-general, in the seventeenth century. Of its waters, near Plattsburg, a naval engagement was fought the 11th of September, 1814, in which Macdonough, the commander of an American fleet, gained a complete victory over the British. [See PLATTSBURG.]

CHAMPOLLION, J. F., a French archæologist, who did more than any other man of science toward explaining the hieroglyphics of Egypt. His death in 1832, at the age of forty-one, in the midst of his triumphant researches, was regretted as an almost irreparable loss.

CHANNING, WILLIAM ELLERY, an eminent Unitarian divine, was a native of Newport, R. I., April 7th, 1780. He died in 1842.

CHANTREY, Sir FRANCIS, was born at Norton in Derbyshire, April 7th, 1781, and was apprenticed to a wood carver. His own force and talent raised him to good success among modern sculptors. He was knighted by the queen in 1837. He died Nov. 25th, 1841.

CHAPULTEPEC, a castle commanding one of the approaches to the city of Mexico. It was stormed by the American army, Sept. 12th, 1847, and two days after, Scott entered the city in triumph.

CHARLEMAGNE (a compound word signifying Charles the Great), King of France, Emperor of the West, was born in 742, at the chateau of Saltzburg, in Upper Bavaria.

He was the grandson of Charles Martel, and the son of Queen Bertrade and Pepin the Short, on the death of whom, in 768, he was crowned king, sharing France with Carloman, his younger brother; but the conditions of the partition were frequently changed without ever giving mutual satisfaction, and the nobles, who had long sought to weaken the royal authority, would without doubt have profited by the animosity which existed between these two princes, if the death of Carloman, which took place in 771, had not given Charlemagne an opportunity of becoming sole king of France by refusing to share the rule with his nephews. Their mother fled with them to Italy, and found a protector in Desiderius, King of the Lombards. They fell into the hands of Charlemagne, on the taking of Verona, and of their future fate, history says nothing. If Pepin had need of courage, activity, and extreme prudence to found a new dominion, Charlemagne found it necessary to enchain the minds of men by fear and admiration, for the means employed to effect usurpation had enfeebled the sovereign power.

The people of Aquitania were the first who tried to aim at independence. Charlemagne marched against them with a small force, but he relied upon Carloman, his brother, to whom a part of Aquitania belonged, and who in consequence was compelled to unite with him. Carloman found him at the appointed spot, at the head of his troops, but fearing to fall before the power of his brother, Carloman hastily retraced his steps. Abandoned thus unexpectedly, in a manner which could not fail to encourage the rebels, Charlemagne did not hesitate for a moment: without considering the number of his followers, or that of his enemies, he pursued his way, gained a brilliant victory (770), arranged the affairs of Aquitania with a promptitude and foresight which displayed the energy of a great man and the skill of a politician, and disconcerted the tributary princes of France, who thought to profit by the youth of the monarch. When Charlemagne found himself sole master of France, he formed the project of subjugating the Saxons. These people, who were still pagans, occupied a large portion of Germany; like all barbarous nations, they preferred plunder to fixed establish-

ments, and they were divided into many tribes, whom it was difficult to unite in the same interest. Charlemagne began to wage war upon them in 772, and did not complete their subjugation until 804; so obstinately did they resist, for thirty-two years, the conqueror, who, sometimes indulgent to imprudence, and often severe to cruelty, as eager to convert as to conquer them, was in reality master of their country only when he had reduced it to a desert. The two most celebrated chiefs of the Saxons were Witkind and Alboin, who finally embraced Christianity in 783. The cruelties of Charlemagne to the Saxons, resembled despair; and his indulgence to them proved that, pressed by other affairs, he was willing to make any concession which could bring him off with honor.

While he was fighting on the banks of the Weser, Pope Adrian implored his succors against Desiderius, King of the Lombards, who sought to possess himself of Ravenna, and urged the pope to crown the sons of Carloman, in order to display Charlemagne in the light of an usurper of the throne of his nephews, and thus stir up a large portion of France against him. Flying to the scene of action with the rapidity which the danger rendered necessary, Charlemagne seized the person of Desiderius, sent him to end his days in a monastery, and caused himself to be crowned King of Lombardy, in 774. Thus ended that kingdom, which shortly afterward took its ancient name of Italy, but preserved the laws it had received from the Lombards.

Charlemagne passed into Spain in 778, besieged and took Pampeluna, and made himself master of the country of Barcelona; but his troops, on their return, were defeated in the pass of Roncesvalles, by a part of the Saracens, and the mountain Gascons, the unruly tributaries of Charlemagne, who were so intractable, that more than thirty years afterward, strong forces were required to oppose them. At this battle fell the famous Roland, his nephew, whose fate has been celebrated by romance writers and poets. The disaffection of the inhabitants of Aquitania having induced Charlemagne to give them a separate monarch, he chose the youngest of his sons, well known as Louis the Mild,

778. At the same time the continual efforts of the Lombards and Greeks to reconquer Italy, and the want of fidelity in his nobles, made him feel the necessity of rallying them about the throne, and he gave them for a king, Pepin, the second of his sons; the eldest, who bore the name of Charles, remained with him to assist him in his expeditions. He had another son, Pepin, whose mother he had repudiated. This son, having been convicted of taking part in a conspiracy against him, was devoted to the monastic life.

On his return from Spain, Charlemagne found himself obliged to march against the Saxons, and each year renewed the necessity of a warlike expedition. He caused 4,500 of them to be put to death; a ferocious revenge which only served to prolong and invigorate their resistance. Thence he went to Rome to have his two sons, Pepin and Louis, crowned by the pope, thus confirming the people in the belief that the head of religion could alone render the royal power legitimate and sacred. The year 790, the twenty-seventh of his reign, was the first which he passed without taking up arms, and this peace lasted only until the spring of the following year. Charlemagne had formed the project of re-establishing the empire of the west. Irene, who reigned as empress at Constantinople, in order to prevent the dismemberment of the empire, proposed to Charlemagne to unite their children, which would have placed Europe under one government. Her proposal was accepted, but ambition impelled Irene to dethrone her son in order to seize the power herself, and she offered her hand to Charlemagne. This singular union, which ambition alone could suggest and carry into effect, would have presented a new spectacle to the world, had not the empress been hurled from her throne. Charlemagne was crowned emperor of the west, by Pope Leo III., in the year 800; and, although his journey to Rome had no other object, he affected to be much surprised at the honors which were heaped upon him. He was declared Cæsar and Augustus; the ornaments of the ancient Roman emperors were decreed to him; all the consecrated forms were followed; nothing was forgotten but the fact that it was impossible that an empire should subsist, the power of

which was shared by the children of the deceased monarch. Charlemagne, after having made one of his sons a monk, had the misfortune to lose, in 810, Pepin, whom he had created King of Italy; the year following Charles, the eldest, followed his brother to the grave; there only remained, of his legitimate children, Louis, King of Aquitania, whom he associated with him in the empire in 813, his great age and his infirmities making him feel that he was approaching the termination of his career. He died the 28th of January, 814, in the seventy-first year of his age, and the forty-seventh of his reign. By his will, made in 806, confirmed by the French lords assembled at Thionville, and signed by Pope Leo, Charlemagne divided his estates among his three sons. He left his subjects the power of choosing a successor, after the death of the princes, provided he was of the blood royal. He provided that they should not have recourse to the trial by battle, in the case of dispute, but to that of the cross. This judgment consisted, in doubtful circumstances, in conducting to the church two men, who stood upright with their elevated arms crossed, during the celebration of divine service, and the victory was gained by the party whose champion remained motionless the longest.

Charlemagne was buried at Aix-la-Chapelle. His body is said to have been disposed in the following manner. He was seated upon a throne of gold, clad in his imperial habits. He had a crown upon his head, and was girt with his sword. He held a chalice in his hand, the book of the Evangelists upon his knees, his sceptre and gold buckler at his feet. The sepulchre was filled with pieces of gold, perfumed and sealed, and above, a superb triumphal arch was raised, with this epitaph: "Here rests the body of Charles, the great and orthodox emperor, who gloriously enlarged the kingdom of the French, and governed it happily for forty-seven years." Charlemagne was a friend of letters and of learned men. He was marked by his plainness and frugality of costume. He was the tallest and the strongest man of his time. Force he used to conquer, but he instituted wholesome laws to govern.

CHARLES I. and II., of England. [See STUART, HOUSE OF.]

CHARLES GUSTAVUS, son of John Casimir, Count Palatine of the Rhine, ascended the throne of Sweden on the abdication of his cousin Christina in 1654. He obtained over the Poles the famous victory of Warsaw, besides taking a number of important places. The Poles, calling to their assistance Muscovy, England, and Denmark, obliged Sweden to conclude a peace; but the war breaking out again, Charles took Cronenburgh, and laid seige to Copenhagen; his navy having been

defeated, he was obliged to return home, and died in 1660.

CHARLES XI of Sweden, son of the preceding, was born in 1655. On his accession a peace was concluded with Denmark, but in 1674, in the war with that power, he lost several places, which were restored at the peace of Nimeguen. He married the sister of the King of Denmark, and died in 1697. In his reign the arts and sciences began to flourish in Sweden.



CHARLES THE TWELFTH.

CHARLES XII. of Sweden, son and successor of the preceding, was born in 1682. He came to the throne at the age of fifteen, and at his coronation snatched the crown from the hands of the Archbishop of Upsal, and placed it on his own head. He was well educated, and very fond of bodily exercises. The commencement of his reign gave no splendid proof of genius or talent. On the formation of a confederacy against him by Russia, Denmark, and Poland, he seemed to arouse from his slumber. He gave the casting voice in the council for the most vigorous measures, and immediately prepared to carry them into effect. He renounced at once even limited enjoyments, and bent all his energies to support the character he had marked out for himself. Of the confederated powers, he attacked each in turn, beginning with Denmark, which produced a peace with that power. Nov. 30th, 1700, he obtained a brilliant victory over the Russians at Narva;

although his force consisted of only 8,000 men, he attacked them in their intrenchments, slew 30,000 and took 20,000 prisoners. His next enterprise was against Poland, and after several battles he dethroned Augustus, and placed Stanislaus upon the throne. He returned to the invasion of Russia, and obtained some signal advantages over Peter the Great, but at length experienced a terrible defeat at Pultowa, July 8th, 1709. Almost all his troops were either slain or taken prisoners; he himself was wounded in the leg, and carried off on a litter. Charles sought an asylum in Turkey, where he was hospitably received by the grand seignior, who provided for him a residence at Bender. He availed himself of his asylum to persuade the grand seignior to enter into a war with Russia, and employed much money, much time, and many menaces to induce it. His conduct was at length so violent, that he was ordered to leave the Turkish territories. He refused to obey.

The sultan directed that he should be forced away; but Charles, with his retinue, resisted the attack of the janizaries, till superiority of numbers obliged him to take shelter in his house, which he defended with great spirit, and did not yield till the premises were in flames. He then sallied out, sword in hand, but being entangled by his long spurs, he fell and was taken prisoner. After having been confined as a prisoner six months, he finally set out on his return to his own dominions. In 1716, he invaded Norway, but after penetrating to Christiana, was obliged to return to Sweden. He resumed the attack in the winter of 1718, but was killed by a cannon-shot at the siege of Frederickshall, Dec. 11th, aged thirty-six years, having reigned twenty-one. Charles was liberal, active, and firm, but rash, obstinate, and cruel. At the battle of Narva, he had several horses shot under him, and as he was mounting upon a fresh one, he said, "These people find me exercise." When he was besieged at Stralsund, a bomb fell into the house while he was dictating to his secretary, who immediately dropped his pen, and started up in a fright. "What is the matter?" said the king, calmly. "The bomb! the bomb! sire," said the agitated secretary. "Well, sir," resumed Charles, "what has the bomb to do with what I was dictating to you? Go on." When struck by the ball that caused his death, he instinctively grasped his sword-hilt, as if seeking for revenge. Charles was exceedingly temperate, abjuring wine, and living frequently upon the coarsest bread. No woman ever exerted any influence over him. His dress consisted of an old cloak, a blue coat with brass buttons, a plain waistcoat and breeches of leather, high boots with spurs, and long leather gloves. His wild career of war gained him the name of 'the madman of the north.'

CHARLES I, King of Sicily and Naples, born in 1220, was the son of Louis VIII. of France. Having married the daughter of the Count of Provence, he thereby became his successor, and added to his dominions the counties of Anjou and Maine. He was taken prisoner with his brother Louis, in Egypt, in 1248. On his return he defeated Manfred, the usurper of the Sicilian crown, and assumed the title of King of Naples. He

also defeated his rival, Conradin, Duke of Suabia, and took him and the Duke of Austria prisoners. Charles brought infamy on his name, by causing his royal captives to be put to death, at Naples, on a public scaffold. After this he laid Tunis under tribute, and quelled the Ghibellines. In 1276, he gained the title of King of Jerusalem, and meditated an expedition against Constantinople. But his arbitrary conduct occasioned a general insurrection in Sicily, where 8,000 of the French were massacred on Easter Monday, 1282. This massacre is known by the name of the "Sicilian vespers," the bell for evening prayers being the signal of revolt. The Sicilians chose Peter of Arragon for their king. Charles died in 1285.

CHARLES MARTEL, son of Pepin Heristel, and mayor of the palace under Chilperic and Thierry IV., kings of France. He gained many victories, the principal of which was over the Saracen general, Abdahralman, in 732. On the death of Thierry, in 737, no successor was appointed, and Charles conducted the government. He died in 741, and left his dominions between his sons Carloman and Pepin; the latter of whom became the first king of the Carlovingian race, which name was taken from the founder, Charles Martel.

CHARLES IV., Emperor of Germany, was the son of John of Luxemburg, and grandson of the Emperor Henry VII. He ascended the throne in 1347. In his reign the golden bull was given at the diet of Nuremberg, 1356, which established the Germanic constitution. Charles died in 1378. He was a learned man and a great patron of letters.

CHARLES V., Emperor of Germany, and King of Spain (in the latter capacity, Charles I.), was born at Ghent, in 1500. He succeeded to the kingdom of Spain in 1516, and to the empire on the death of Maximilian in 1519. Francis I. of France disputed with him the latter title, and their rivalry occasioned a violent war in 1521. Charles was joined by Henry VIII. of England, and after several important actions, took Francis prisoner at the battle of Pavia. A peace having been concluded in 1529, Charles turned his arms against Africa, where he defeated Barbarossa, entered Tunis, and re-established

Muley Hassan on the throne. Soon after this he renewed hostilities against France, ravaging Champagne and Picardy, till he was at length obliged to retire, and peace was restored in 1538. In 1541 he attempted the conquest of Algiers, but his fleet was dispersed by a storm, and the emperor was obliged to return in disgrace. He again leagued with England against France, but Fortune was not so favorable to him as she had formerly been, and he was glad to enter into a treaty in 1545. The Protestant princes of Germany confederated against him, and obtained liberty of conscience for those of their religion. In 1556, he resigned the crown to his son Philip, and retired into a monastery in Estremadura, where he passed the remainder of his days in religious exercises, mechanical pursuits, and gardening. He died in 1558. He encouraged artists, and once picked up a pencil which Titian had dropped, and presented it to him, saying, that Titian was worthy of being served by an emperor.

CHARLES THE BOLD, Duke of Burgundy, the son of Philip the Good, was born in 1433. There were constant wars between him and Louis XI. of France, who instigated Charles's subjects, the Liegeois, to revolt against him. Charles seized on Guelderland and Zutphen, and afterward invaded Switzerland, but his army was put to rout and his baggage taken by the Swiss. He collected another army, but was again defeated, and slain while besieging Nancy, in 1477. As he was that day putting on his helmet, the golden lion which formed the crest, fell to the ground, and he exclaimed, "*Ecce magnum signum Dei!*" (Behold the great sign of God!)

CHARLES IX., of France, son of Henry II., and Catharine de Medici, was born in 1550, and succeeded to the throne in 1560; his mother conducted the government; but she so abused her trust that the Huguenots revolted, and a civil war ensued, in which the insurgents were unsuccessful. The massacre of St. Bartholomew's ensued. It is said that Charles repented of this horrid crime on his death-bed, in 1574.

CHARLES X. of France and Navarre, ascended the throne which had been filled by his brothers, the unfortunate Louis XVI. and Louis XVIII., in September, 1824. He bore

for some time the title of Count of Artois, and afterward that of Monsieur. He was fond of expensive pleasures, and distinguished for his mild manners. Charles was crowned at Rheims, being anointed with the holy oil, which it was absurdly pretended had been brought from heaven by a dove. He swore to maintain the charter, but he had not been long seated on the throne, before he began to play those fantastic tricks which seem to belong peculiarly to the province of legitimacy. The press, that vast moral engine at which tyrants tremble, became obnoxious to the monarch, and a censorship was established in 1827. The king showed himself rather favorably disposed to the Greeks, which produced him a temporary popularity. The ministry of Prince Polignac, however, caused great indignation, on account of the arbitrary tone of the measures adopted; and the unwarrantable prosecution of the liberal press hastened the revolution of 1830, when the Parisians overcame the royal troops, and the French legislature exiled Charles X., imprisoned the ministers for life, and seated Louis Philippe on the throne. Charles was born Oct. 9th, 1757. He died at Gratz in Hungary, Nov. 6th, 1836.

CHARLES EMMANUEL I., Duke of Savoy, surnamed the Great, was born in 1562. Though of a weak constitution, he was of an enterprising spirit, and, taking advantage of the internal commotions of France in the reign of Henry III., he seized part of Dauphiny and Provence; and on the death of that monarch, he aspired to the crown, but was disappointed. A war broke out, and the French troops took possession of part of Savoy. By the mediation of the pope, however, peace was concluded. The duke made a treacherous attempt to seize Geneva, but his troops were repulsed, and the prisoners that were taken were hung up by the Genevans as robbers. On the death of Francis, Duke of Mantua, in 1613, this restless prince laid claim to the succession, but was obliged to relinquish it. The French persuaded him to turn his arms against Genoa, and he gained some advantages, but the interference of Spain effected a peace. He aspired to the imperial crown, and made an attempt on the duchy of Montserrat, which involved him in a war with France and Spain. He died in 1630, it is supposed of grief for the loss of Pignerol.

CHARLESTON, a city and seaport of South Carolina, had in 1860, 40,578 inhabitants, being about 2,400 less than in 1850. It is the natural commercial emporium of South Carolina, and of much of North Carolina and Georgia also. It stands at the head of a bay on the point between the mouths of Cooper and Ashley rivers, seven miles from the sea. It has long been a wealthy commercial city. Fort Moultrie, on Sullivan's Island, was assaulted June 28, 1776, by sea and land by the British, who were severely defeated. May 12, 1780, Gen. Lincoln with his army of over 5,000 men capitulated to Sir Henry Clinton after a month's siege. The British evacuated the place Apr. 14, 1783. Charleston was a principal center of the secession movement, and the scene of the first rebel hostilities against the United States, by the bombardment of Fort Sumter, April 12, 1861, resulting in its surrender to the rebels the next day. Soon after the harbor was blockaded, and sea and land forces were kept actively employed against the place during the whole of the war. It was not however taken until Sherman's north-

ward march caused its evacuation April 18, 1865, when the Union troops entered it. About a third of it had been destroyed.

CHARLOTTE AUGUSTA, daughter of Queen Caroline and George IV. of England, a beautiful, amiable, and accomplished lady, became, at the age of twenty, the wife of Prince Leopold of Coburg (afterward King of Belgium), May 2d, 1816. Nov. 5th, 1817, the unfortunate princess, in becoming the mother of a child that did not survive her, lost her life. The physician who had attended her, shot himself. The princess was beloved by the English nation, and her death deeply lamented.

CHARON, in mythology, the son of Erebus and Nox. He was the ferryman of hell, being supposed to carry the dead across the waves of Acheron, Cocytus, and the Styx, receiving an obolus in pay. This coin was placed in the mouth of the dead, as, without it, it was thought that the deceased would be condemned to long and restless wanderings on the dreary banks of Acheron. Charon was represented as an old man, of a forbidding aspect, dressed in rags.



THE CHARTER OAK.

CHARTER OAK, a stately tree in a cavity of whose trunk the royal charter of Connecticut was hidden by Capt. Wadsworth, when demanded by Andross, Oct. 31st, 1687. The story is that the debate of the assembly upon obeying Sir Edmund's demand was prolonged until evening; when suddenly the lights were

extinguished, the parchment snatched from the table, and borne off to its hiding-place. This oak was an ancient forest-monarch at the first settlement of Hartford. The cavity in which the charter was put gradually closed, but in time the heart of the tree rotted away, leaving a larger opening. Before dawn, Aug.

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21st, 1856, the revered tree was prostrated by the wind, and only a ragged stump left standing. With a touch of sentiment strange for this prosaic age, the bells of the city were knelled for an hour at twilight.

CHARYBDIS, the rapacious daughter of Neptune and Terra, whom Jupiter changed into a whirlpool. The whirlpool whose origin was thus related in mythology, was on the coast of Sicily, opposite the formidable rock called Scylla on the Italian shore. It was very dangerous to mariners, and proved fatal to part of the fleet of Ulysses. No whirlpool is now found that corresponds to the description of the ancients. The words, *Incidit in Scyllam qui cult vitare Charybdim*, became proverbial, to show that in our eagerness to avoid an evil we often fall into a greater.

CHASE, SAMUEL, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Somerset county, Maryland, April 17th, 1841. His father was an Episcopal missionary and personally superintended his education. Having acquired eminence and popularity as a lawyer in Annapolis, and by his resistance to the stamp act, he was elected to the continental Congress in 1774, and in 1776 undertook a mission to Canada to excite opposition to the mother country. He was a delegate to Congress, 1774-78 and 1784-85. In 1783, he went to England as agent of the state of Maryland to recover property intrusted to the Bank of England, and while there formed the acquaintance of Pitt, Fox, and Burke. In 1791, he was made chief-justice of the general court of Maryland. Washington appointed him associate justice of the supreme court of the United States, vice John Blair of Virginia, who had resigned. He was impeached by the house of representatives in 1804, for alleged misdemeanors in political trials, but acquitted in his trial before the senate, which, after long attracting public attention, ended March 5th, 1804. He died at the age of seventy, June 19th, 1811. He was a man of integrity, boldness, and decision. While on the bench in Maryland, in 1794, nobody being willing to assist in the arrest of the ringleaders in a riot, "Summon me," cried Judge Chase; "I'll be the *posse comitatus*;" and he was as good as his word.

CHATEAUBRIAND, FRANCOIS AUGUSTE, Vicomte de, was born in Brittany of an an-

cient family, in 1769. During the terrors of the French revolution, he resided chiefly in England, paying, however, a visit to the United States, and roaming into the backwoods. When Bonaparte had restored order he returned to France, and in 1802 gained great fame by his "Genius of Christianity." In 1806 he set out on those oriental journeyings recorded in his "Itinerary from Paris to Jerusalem." Under the Bourbons he took part in public life and honors. These he abandoned when Louis Philippe was crowned, occupying himself thenceforth in literary labors, and dying in 1848.

CHATHAM, WILLIAM PITT, Earl of, was the son of Robert Pitt, Esq., of Boconock, in Cornwall, and born Nov. 15th, 1708. On quitting the university at Oxford he went into the army as cornet, but soon left the military life, and, in 1735, obtained a seat in parliament for Old Sarum. His eloquence was first displayed on the Spanish convention, in 1738, and, in a short time, Sir Robert Walpole found him the most powerful opponent he had ever encountered. The dowager Duchess of Marlborough left Mr. Pitt a legacy of £10,000 for his conduct at this period. In 1746, he was made vice treasurer of Ireland, and the same year paymaster-general of the army. In 1755, he resigned his places; but the year following, he was appointed secretary of state for the southern department. In this post, however, he did not remain long, on account of some difference with the king; but such was his popularity, that his majesty found it necessary to recall him. In 1757, he became prime minister, in which situation he gave a new turn to affairs, and by the vigor of his measures, subverted the power of France in Europe, Asia, and America. In the midst of his glory, George II. died, and Mr. Pitt resigned the helm to Lord Bute; when his lady was created a peeress, and he himself rewarded with a pension. His acceptance of a coronet in 1766, when he returned to the ministry, hurt his popularity, for the people had loved to call him 'the great commoner.' The witty Lord Chesterfield called it a "fall up-stairs," and said, "Everybody is puzzled to account for this step. Such an event was, I believe, never heard or read of, to withdraw, in the fullness of his power and in the utmost gratification of his ambition, from the House of

Commons (which procured him his power, and which could alone insure it to him), and to go into that *hospital of incurables*, the House of Lords, is a measure so unaccountable, that nothing but proof positive could make me believe it; but so it is." Mr. Pitt took the title of Earl of Chatham, and the sinecure office of the privy seal in the new cabinet, which place he resigned two or three years afterward. During the war of our revolution, he opposed the ministers, and their scheme of taxation; and in a speech on the subject of the independence of the colonies, April 7th, 1778, he exerted himself so energetically, as to fall exhausted into the arms of those around him. He died on the 11th of the following month. A public funeral and monument were voted by parliament; an annuity of £4,000 was annexed to the earldom of Chatham, and his debts were discharged.

CHATTERTON, THOMAS, a youth whose precocious talents and sad fate have excited great interest, was born at Bristol, in 1752, of poor parents. In his twelfth year he wrote a poem of some merit, and at the age of sixteen successfully imitated the style of antique English writers, and introduced to the world as works of great antiquity, the fruits of his own mind. The reception he met with in London, led him to form extravagant hopes, which were, however, never realized, for the wretchedness of his situation induced him to commit suicide by poison at the age of eighteen in 1770. The poems which he wrote at fifteen he ascribed to a monk of the fifteenth century, named Thomas Rowley. For precocious talent this marvellous boy is without a peer in English literature.

CHAUCCER, GEOFFREY, the father of English poetry, was born in London, in 1328. He was high in favor with Edward III., and married Philippa, the sister of Lady Catharine Swynford, afterward the wife of John of Gaunt. This prince was Chaucer's steady patron. He filled several responsible offices, and was sent abroad as ambassador. His fortunes varied with those of the party to which he was attached, but he finally lived in pleasant retirement at Woodstock, and completed the "Canterbury Tales." He owned a house in London, in the garden of the convent of Westminster, where the chapel of Henry

VII. now stands. Here he died, Oct. 25th, 1400, and was interred in the neighboring abbey, the first of the illustrious line of poets whose ashes have there been laid to rest.

CHAUNCEY, CHARLES, was the grandson of the erudite and excellent president of Harvard University, where he was educated. He was born Jan. 1st, 1705, and was ordained pastor of the first church in Boston, in 1727. He died in his eighty-third year, Feb. 10th, 1787. His learning, independence, and patriotism were constantly and clearly displayed. The works which he has left behind bear incontrovertible proof of his talents. He was the particular friend of Dr. Cooper of Boston, and an anecdote which regards the two gentlemen, is worthy of preservation. It must be kept in mind that Dr. Chauncey was habitually absent, like many literary men, and that Dr. Cooper was famous for inviting brother clergymen to officiate for him; so much so, that it was currently reported that he used to walk out upon Boston neck every Saturday afternoon, and invite the first gentleman with a black coat whom he saw coming into town, to preach for him. A negro servant of Dr. Chauncey was in want of a coat, but as he had high ideas of his own importance, he wished, if possible, to obtain a new garment, instead of being habited in the dark, discarded vestments of his worthy master. After having, one morning, brought the usual supply of wood into Dr. Chauncey's study, he remained standing, and the doctor, although rather busy, was not long in noticing him.

"Well, Sambo, what do you want?"

"Want a coat, sar. De old one so patched to pieces, I 'fraid to go nowheres."

"Very well, Sambo, go to Mrs. Chauncey, and tell her to give you one of mine."

The doctor resumed his studies, but Sambo retained his position. His master observing him a second time, but forgetting what had just passed between them, again asked, "What do you want, Sambo?"

"O! just a coat, sar. Old coat full of holes."

"Very well; go to Mrs. Chauncey, and she will give you one of mine."

A second time the doctor resumed his book, but finding the black still stationary, he began to recall what had passed, and exclaimed,

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with some asperity, "Well, sir, why don't you go?"

"'Cause I 'fraid, Massa Chauncy."

"Afraid? of what?"

"Why, sar, I 'fraid to wear a black coat, 'cause—no—no—it won't do—I can't tell you, sar."

"I insist upon it."

"Well, then, if I must—sir, 'fraid, 'cause—oh no! massa, you'll be so angry."

"I wish I had my cane here!" exclaimed the doctor.

Sambo, finding, from his impatient glance at the tongs, that there was a possibility of seizing a substitute, cried out, "Oh! sar! nebber mind dé cane, I'll tell you why I 'fraid to wear one of your coats—I 'fraid if I had annoder black coat—that Dr. Cooper will ask me to preach for him!"

The doctor burst into laughter. "Go, go, Sambo, and ask Mrs. Chauncy to buy a coat of whatever color you fancy!"

Sambo hastened off, grinning with delight, to get a scarlet coat, and Dr. Chauncy ran to Dr. Cooper to tell him of the whole affair.

CHEMISTRY was introduced into Europe, about 1150, by the Spanish Moors, who had learned it and distillation from the African Moors, and these from the Egyptians. In Egypt, they had, in very early ages, extracted salts from their bases, separated oils, and prepared vinegar and wine; and embalming was a kind of chemical process. The Chinese also claim an early acquaintance with chemistry. The first chemical students in Europe were the alchemists; but chemistry could not be said to exist as a science till the seventeenth century; during which its study was promoted by the writings of Bacon, and the researches of Hooke, Mayow and Boyle. In the early part of the eighteenth century, Dr. Stephen Hales laid the foundation of pneumatic chemistry, and Boerhaave combined the study of chemistry with medicine. These were succeeded by Black, Bergman, Stahl, &c. In 1772, Priestley published his researches on air, and then commenced a new era. He was ably seconded by Lavoisier, Cavendish, Scheele, Chaptal, &c. The nineteenth century opened with the brilliant discoveries of Davy, continued by Dalton, Faraday, Thomson, &c. Organic chemistry has been very greatly advanced by the labors

of Berzelius, Liebig, Dumas, Laurent, Hofmann, &c., during the last thirty years.

CHERBOURG, a French seaport on the Channel, containing 24,212 inhabitants. In 1418, it was taken by Henry V. of England, and near it took place the famous naval battle of La Hogue, between the French and English, May 19th, 1692. Cherbourg is remarkable for its vast breakwater, and its extensive basin and docks, constructed by the French government.

CHESTERFIELD, PHILIP DORMER STANHOPE, fourth Earl of, born in London, in 1694. After studying in his youth with assiduity, at Cambridge and Leyden, he entered public life in 1715, soon after the accession of George I. He distinguished himself in the lower house of parliament as a brilliant and effective debater, which reputation he sustained in the House of Lords, after the death of his father. Till 1748, when deafness compelled him to retire, he took an active part in public life. He displayed great diplomatic skill in two foreign embassies, and his lord-lieutenancy in Ireland, in 1745, though lasting only a few months, has been always mentioned with high praise. After a sickly and melancholy old age, he died March 24th, 1773. The only writings of this accomplished personage that are at all remembered, are his "Letters" to his natural son, remarkable for their ease of style and their worldly knowledge, but deficient in the loftier points of morality. They were not intended for publication. The character of Lord Chesterfield has been much misrepresented and misunderstood. He was unequalled in his time for the solidity and variety of his attainments, for the brilliancy of his wit, for the graces of his conversation, and for the polish of his style. His embassy to Holland marked his skill, his dexterity, and his address as an able negotiator; and his administration of Ireland indicated his integrity, his vigilance, and his sound policy as a statesman and a politician. In the House of Lords his speeches were more admired and extolled than any others of the day. Horace Walpole had heard his own father, had heard Pitt, Pulteney, Wyndham, and Carteret; yet in 1743, he declared that the finest speech he had ever listened to was one from Chesterfield. Dr. Johnson called him a lord among wits,

and a wit among lords. When Lord Chesterfield arrived in Ireland, all the Catholic places of worship were closed. A Mr. Fitzgerald saying mass in the obscure garret of a condemned house, an immense crowd had assembled, and the floor giving way, the officiating priest, with many of his flock, were buried in the ruins, and the greater number were maimed and wounded. Lord Chesterfield, horror struck at the event, ordered that all the chapels in the capital should be opened. A zealous Protestant thinking to pay his court to the lord lieutenant, came to inform him that one of his coachmen was a Roman Catholic, and went privately to mass. "Does he, indeed?" said his lordship; "then I shall take care that he never drives me there!" The Bishop of Waterford related that the vice-treasurer, Mr. Gardiner, a man of good character and considerable fortune, waited upon Lord Chesterfield one morning, and in a great fright told him that he was assured upon good authority that the people in the province of Connaught were actually rising; upon which the viceroy looked at his watch, and with great composure answered him, "It is nine o'clock and time for them to rise; I believe, therefore, that your news is true." Lord Chesterfield preserved a Catholic population in the most perfect peace and obedience, during the whole of that rebellion which in Episcopal England and Presbyterian Scotland, had nearly restored the Stuarts to the throne they had forfeited by their blind and bigoted attachment to papal institutions.

CHILI, a republic on the western shore of South America, which has an area of 180,000 square miles. The eastern part of Chili is mountainous, and many volcanic summits here elevate themselves from the lofty chain of the Andes. Innumerable small and rapid rivers irrigate the rich soil, and the climate is remarkable for its healthiness. The mineral and vegetable productions are valuable and abundant. Exclusive of the independent Indians, the population has been estimated at 1,200,000. The Roman Catholic is the established religion.

Pedro de Valdivia who was sent thither by Pizarro, overcame the opposition of the aborigines, and founded several cities in the north and south, but the Araucanians defeated the Spaniards, and having taken their

leader prisoner, put him to death. It was many years before the Spaniards were permitted by the Indians and Dutch to enjoy quiet possession of Chili. In 1809, a revolutionary movement took place, and the party which espoused the cause of independence was at first successful; but in 1814 nearly the whole country was subdued by a Spanish army from Peru. Chili remained under the control of the royalists until 1817, when General San Martin, with a body of troops from Buenos Ayres, entered the country, and being joined by the people generally, defeated the royalists in several engagements. The independence of the country was finally achieved at the battle of Maypu, April 5th, 1817. The government has since experienced many changes, but Chili has been perhaps less disturbed than any of its sister republics.

Santiago, the capital of the republic, has 50,000 inhabitants. Valparaiso, the principal port and centre of commerce, has 30,000. The southern part of Chili is inhabited by the Araucanians, a powerful aboriginal nation over whom the republic has only a nominal authority. They maintained their independence through many contests with the Spaniards. They subsist by cultivating the land and raising cattle. A Toqui (hereditary noble) is at the head of government, and he strictly maintained the neutrality of his people during the South American struggle for independence. Among the many interesting customs of this people, we may mention that they amuse themselves with a species of chess and backgammon, both of which they knew previous to the arrival of the Spaniards.

CHILLINGWORTH, WILLIAM, a celebrated English divine and Protestant polemic. He was born at Oxford, 1602, and died in 1644, having been appointed chancellor of Salisbury, in July, 1638.

CHILTERN HUNDREDS, a phrase often encountered in English political history. It is an estate of the crown in Buckinghamshire, the stewardship whereof is a nominal office, conferred on members of parliament when they wish to vacate their seats; for by accepting an office under the crown, a member becomes disqualified, unless he be again returned by his constituents. This custom has existed time immemorial.



CHINESE LADY OF RANK.

CHINA is a vast country of Asia, bounded on the north by Chinese Tartary, from which the famous Chinese wall separates it; on the east by the Eastern Sea; on the south by the Chinese Sea and Further India; and on the west by an extensive and sandy desert, and long ridges of mountains, which divide it from Western Tartary and Thibet.

Inclusive of the tributary countries, and those states which have voluntarily placed themselves under the protection of China, the population is estimated at 353,000,000 inhabitants, which are scattered over a surface of about 5,250,000 square miles. The subjected countries are Manchouria, Mongolia, and Tourfan; the protected ones, Thibet, Bootan, Corea, and Loo-choo. China Proper is divided into eighteen provinces. The Yang-tse-kiang and the Hoang-Ho, or Yellow River, are the two principal rivers of

China. The former is more than 3,000 miles long, the latter about 2,500. The face of the country is greatly diversified; the northern and western parts being the most broken.

A distinguishing feature of the climate is the unusual excess in which heat and cold prevail in some parts of the empire at opposite seasons of the year; as well as the low average of the thermometer in comparison with the latitude. The soil is diligently tilled, rice being the prevalent crop. But the production of most importance to 'outside barbarians,' is tea, which is the universal beverage throughout China, while enough is grown to supply other countries with a hundred million pounds each year.

The commerce is very extensive; the principal articles of export being tea, silk, nan-kins, porcelain, and the valuable vegetable productions of the east. The imperial canal

and the Chinese wall are monuments of Chinese skill and industry. The religion of China is Buddhism, or the religion of Fo. The language of the Chinese is peculiar, its characters being symbols of ideas, instead of sounds. The Chinese are, to a certain degree, well educated, but revengeful, timid, vain, and deceitful. Polygamy is permitted, and the condition of females wretched in the extreme. Poor parents are permitted to drown their female children, and this is done without remorse.

The Chinese is, on the whole, by far the best native government of Asia. It is better, far, than any of the Mohammedan despotisms; it is better than any government that the Hindoos ever possessed, and it is far preferable to the theocracies of the Birmans, Siamese, and other Chinese nations. The absence of a powerful and influential priesthood, and of an hereditary and privileged aristocracy, as well as of petty principalities with delegated and hereditary authority, may be stated as among the leading causes of the prosperity of the Chinese empire.

The government of China is patriarchal; the emperor has the title of "Holy Son of Heaven, sole Governor of the earth, and Great Father of his people." But it is patriarchal on the largest scale of which there is any record, for the family consists of more than three hundred million members. China may be considered as a huge school-house, the master having the birch constantly in his hand, frequently using it, and delegating his authority to thousands of ushers, who are equally liberal in its application. But the rod, although the chief, is not the only instrument of government. There is the *canque*, or wooden ruff, a kind of portable stocks or pillory, very convenient to the executors of the law, but exceedingly inconvenient to the wearer, who can neither sleep nor lie down for it. Then there is imprisonment in cages; furthermore decapitation, not however very frequent; and in extreme cases their crucifixion, or as it is technically called, the death by painful and slow means. The grand panacea, however, after all, is the rod. The general application of this vigorous instrument of administration, is by no means confined to China, but embraces the other countries of the east, from Japan to Bengal, including nearly one-

third the human race. There the rod, under its various appellations of bamboo, cane, cudgel, or birch, is actively at work from morning till night, and afterward from night till morning. The grand patriarch canes his first ministers; the prime minister canes his secretary of state; the secretaries of state admonish the lords of the treasury, by belaboring their backs; these enforce their orders to the first lord of the admiralty by applying what is equal to the cat o' nine tails. Generals cane field-officers, and field-officers the captains and subalterns. Of course the common soldiers of the celestial empire are caned by everybody. The husbands cane their wives, and the wives cane their children. The Chinese and their neighbors may be truly described as well-flogged nations.

Whatever may be the actual antiquity of the Chinese nation, no doubt seems now to exist that they very early knew the art of printing, the composition of gunpowder, and the properties of the magnetic compass, which have been considered by European nations three of the most important discoveries of modern times. To these may be added two very remarkable manufactures, of which they were unquestionably the first inventors, and in which they yet excel, those of silk and porcelain. Their mode of printing differs from ours, but its effect in multiplying and cheapening books is the same, and it was practiced by them as far back as the tenth century. Gunpowder they did not use in fire-arms, but for fireworks, of which they are extremely fond, and with which they have amused themselves from a very remote date.

The empire is very ancient, and is said by the Chinese to have existed forty-one thousand years before the Christian era. We give a list of the dynasties which have sat upon the throne in more modern times.

The Hia dynasty, 2207 to 1767 B.C.

The Shang dynasty, 1767 to 1122 B.C.

The Chow dynasty, 1122 to 256 B.C.

The Tsin dynasty, 256 to 257 B.C.

The Hiang dynasty, 207 B.C. to 220 A.D.

From 220 to 280, China was divided into three kingdoms, the Shohang dynasty, 220 to 263; that of the Goei in the north, 220 to 265, and that of the El in the south, 220 to 280.



GREAT WALL OF CHINA.

The Tsin dynasty, 265 to 420.
 The U-ta dynasties, 420 to 589.
 The Sui dynasty, 589 to 617.
 The Tang dynasty, 617 to 907.
 The Hehu-u-ta dynasty, 907 to 960.
 The Song dynasty, 960 to 1279.
 The Mogul Khans, 1279 to 1368.
 The Ming dynasty 1368 to 1644.
 The Ta-tsing dynasty :
 Shun-tchi, 1644 to 1669.
 Kang-hi, 1669 to 1693.
 Yong-tching, 1693 to 1736.
 Kien-long, 1736 to 1796.
 Kia-king, 1796 to 1821.
 Taou-kwang, 1821 to 1850.
 Sze-hing, or Yih-Chu, 1850.
 With the Chow dynasty, during whose

reign Confucius lived, authentic history may be said to commence.

During the reign of Ching the first emperor of the fourth dynasty, B.C. 256, the great wall was built. Elated with his own exploits, he formed the design of making posterity believe that he was the first emperor that filled the Chinese throne, and for this purpose ordered all the historical books, which contained the fundamental records and laws of the ancient governments, to be burned, and four hundred of the learned to be put to death, for having attempted to save some of the proscribed volumes.

In the thirteenth century the Chinese called in the aid of the Mongols to beat off the eastern Tartars. These fierce allies soon subdued

not only the Tartars, but the people whom they came to defend, and seized the mastery. Kublai Khan (he who 'in Xanadu a stately pleasure dome decreed') was a monarch of eminent talents, and endeared himself to the Chinese by his equity and virtues. In less than a century his successors so degenerated that the Chinese regained the ascendancy. Some of the expelled Mongols found refuge among the Tartars, and from these united strains came the race known as the Manchous, who in 1644 expelled the last Chinese dynasty, and founded a permanent Tartar dominion, which is yet in power.

When China was sundered into two or three states, the northern portion was called by the neighboring nations Cathay, under which name it became known to the Russians and Mongols; whilst the inhabitants of India called the southern part Chin, under which name the Portuguese and other Europeans became acquainted with it. Not till the seventeenth century was it discovered that Cathay was China.

The Chinese are passionately addicted to the use of opium. The government formerly prohibited its importation, and in attempts to enforce this restriction came in collision with the British, whose merchants were largely engaged in the contraband traffic. Hostilities commenced in 1839, and continued till Aug. 29th, 1842. By the treaty of peace, the Chinese were to pay \$21,000,000; the ports of Canton, Amoy, Foo-choo-foo, Ning-po, and Shanghai were thrown open to the British; and the island of Hong-kong was ceded to the British crown; a great inroad being thus made upon the exclusiveness which the Chinese had so rigorously observed.

As to the insurrection that broke out in 1851, conflicting accounts are given. The insurgents gained ground steadily, capturing the important cities of Nanking, Amoy, Shanghai, and besieged Canton; but victory afterward passed to the imperialists, and many of the towns held by the rebels were retaken. The following is one version of the nature of this outbreak. Taou-Kwang, the last emperor, during the latter years of his reign became somewhat liberal in his views, and favored the introduction of European arts. His son and successor, a rash and narrow-minded prince,

quickly forsook this wise policy and adopted reactionary measures. An insurrection broke out in consequence, in the southern province of Quang-si, August, 1850, which quickly became of alarming importance. At first the insurgents proposed only to expel the Tartar dynasty. In March, 1851, a leader arose among them, first by the name of Tien-teh, 'celestial virtue,' but afterward assuming other names. He is said to be a native of Quang-si, of obscure origin, who obtained some education at Canton, and also became acquainted with the principles of Christianity from a native convert, and from the missionary Roberts. He announced himself as the restorer of the worship of the true God, Shang-ti, and had derived many of his dogmas from the Scriptures. He declared himself to be the monarch of all beneath the sky, the true lord of China (and thus of all the world), the brother of Jesus, and the second son of God, and demanded universal submission.

In addition to the dangers thus besetting the peace of China, new disturbances with England broke out in 1857, and a war commenced, but the attention of the British was diverted by the serious crisis in India.

Peking, the capital of the empire, has a population of 2,000,000. The principal streets vary from 140 to 200 feet in width, but the buildings do not correspond, few of the houses being above one story. Nanking was the capital before the time of the Mongols, and had 4,000,000 inhabitants, now dwindled to 300,000. It is one of the principal seats of Chinese learning, and is noted for the porcelain tower attached to one of its pagodas. Canton is a place of much commercial importance, from having formerly been the only port open to American and European vessels. It has a million of inhabitants. The surrounding scenery is charming, and the eastern hills present a most noble prospect. The houses, with the exception of those of the mandarins and wealthy merchants, are low; the streets long, narrow, and well-paved, spanned, here and there, by triumphal arches, and shaded at the sides by continuous ranges of piazzas. But the main charm of the city consists in its beautiful pleasure gardens, which are studded with fish-pools. The exports are tea, India ink, varnish, porcelain, rhubarb, silk, nan-

keen, &c. The climate of Canton is considered healthy, although the heat of summer and the warmth of winter are great.

CHIPPEWA, a town in Upper Canada, on a river of the same name, two miles north-west of Niagara Falls, where the British troops under Gen. Riall were signally defeated by the Americans under Gen. Brown, July 5th, 1814. On the 25th of the same month, a second action ensued, in which the British were successful, though Riall was wounded and captured.

CHIVALRY. The institution and spirit of chivalry, forming a prominent and important feature of history, has been regarded by writers and men of erudition in various points of view, and while some have condemned it as altogether injurious and absurd, others have dignified it with the title of sublime. There have been found men of modern days, and those the fortunate possessors of more than common abilities, who could sigh over the degeneracy of the times, and lament that the age of chivalry is gone. But if the material and least worthy part of it has passed away, its spirit still remains, still invites men to high and honorable deeds, and is indeed imperishable and immortal. The vows of knighthood, the ceremonials of installation, the pomp and ceremony of knightly feats,—these have gone; but the devotion of the patriot, the ardor of the warrior, the warmth of the lover, the fidelity of the friend, the loyalty and truth of the man of honor, do not sleep in the graves of Charlemagne, Roland, and Bayard.

In seeking for the origin of chivalry, we are led back to the feudal ages, and the consideration of the condition of the Germanic tribes, when its peculiar spirit first began to display itself. The tribes were composed not of superiors and inferiors, but of masters and slaves; of men whose birthright was ease and honor, and of others who inherited ceaseless toil. By the noble-born, labor of any kind was considered degrading, and the profession of arms alone worthy of being followed; so that the lords of the soil were a race of independent warriors, whose thirst for fame was a continual excitement. The different feudal sovereigns were nominally subject to a legitimate prince, and were bound to follow his banner into battle, at the head of their vassals, and to respond to his call by bringing,

at a moment's warning, an armed force to his support. Still, when removed from the presence of his sovereign, the feudal lord was a petty despot, whose vassals felt that he possessed absolute power of life and death over them.

Unlimited authority gave rise to various abuses, and it was well that chivalry, with its high tone of honor and morality, sprang up in ages of general darkness, fraud, and oppression. The commencement of chivalry may be ascribed to the beginning of the tenth century. To the feudal system it owed its origin, and with that it died out. From the twelfth to the fourteenth century, it had a great influence in refining the manners of most of the nations of Europe. The knight swore to accomplish the duties of his profession, as the champion of God and the ladies. He devoted himself to speak the truth, to maintain the right, to protect the distressed, to practice courtesy, and in every peril to vindicate his honor and character. Great enterprises contributed to bind numbers of knights together, and led to the formation of various societies and orders; and when these military adventurers were not leagued together in any of the holy wars, a reciprocity of principle and an identity of religion held them in a common chain. Animated by a love of justice, a veneration for the fair sex, a high-minded regard for truth, a thirst for military glory, and a contempt for danger, the knights went forth to brave peril, to rescue the unfortunate, and to crush the oppressor. Numerous individuals set forth with no fixed purpose but that of discovering some wrong and righting it. These wandering champions were called knights errant, and their exploits were sung in camp and court by the minstrels, whose lays immortalized the sons of chivalry. Chivalry degenerated, but not rapidly. After the lapse of many years from its foundation, the number of its ceremonials increased; its pageantry was disgraced by frippery and folly; its vows were unobserved; a devotion to the sex was succeeded by boundless licentiousness; and the wandering spirit of knight-errantry was displaced by an affectation of eccentricity. In the fourteenth century the honors of knighthood were restricted to the nobility, and then arose the various forms and ceremonies, which at length concealed the

original design of chivalry, and brought on a premature decline.

The knightly education of a youth generally commenced with his twelfth year; when he was sent to the court of some noble pattern of chivalry, to learn dancing, riding, the use of his weapon, &c., and where his chief duty was assiduous attention to the ladies in the quality of page. According to his progress in years and accomplishments, he became squire to some knight; and when he fairly merited the distinction, he was himself knighted. This honor was not conferred upon a youth before his twenty-first year, unless high birth, or extraordinary valor and address, seemed to warrant the setting aside of the usual regulation. Sometimes the honor was won by many a field of bloody toil, with many drops of sweat and gore; and not unfrequently one daring achievement, artfully planned, gallantly carried into execution, procured the wished-for spurs and the anticipated accolade. The ceremony of conferring knighthood was often performed on the field of battle where the honor had been earned; often it required and received the most imposing preparations and ceremonies. The young candidate guarded his arms for a night, and this was called the vigil of arms. In the morning he bathed in water, which was the emblem of the truth and purity he swore to preserve sacred. Clad in spotless garments, he knelt before the altar of the nearest church, and, having presented his sword to the officiating priest, received it again with the benediction of the reverend man. After taking the oath of allegiance, he knelt before his sovereign, who gave him the accolade, or blow upon the neck, with the flat of his sword, saluted the young warrior, and said, "In the name of God and St. Michael [or, in the name of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost], I dub thee a knight. Be loyal, brave, and fortunate."

It was customary for two knights of the same age and congenial tempers to form a friendship, and this brotherhood in arms lasted generally until one of the two was laid in the grave. The courtesy of chivalry softened the asperity of war, gave charms to victory, and assuaged to the vanquished the pain of a defeat. All that ingenuity could plan, and wealth produce, to give splendor to knighthood, was displayed in the age of chivalry.

Magnificent tournaments were held, where even kings entered the lists and contended for the prize of valor before the eyes of thousands of spectators, among whom beautiful ladies appeared the most deeply interested. In fact, knights often contended about the charms of their lady-loves, and wore their favors in their helmets. If the ladies of Rome attended gladiatorial shows in throngs, we can not wonder that the beauties of the age of chivalry looked forward to a tournament with great impatience, and eagerly strove for the honor of filling the post of temporary queen and distributor of the prizes.

Chivalry exerted a powerful influence on poetry, and formed the subject of the poems of the troubadours of the south of France, as well as supplied themes for the poetical controversies of the knights, which were decided at the *Cours d'Amour* (courts of love), first established in Provence. Even after chivalry had died away, its influence was not unfelt by poetry, which retained the tone it had imparted for many centuries. The songs of the troubadours were divided into amatory songs, ducts, pastorals, serenades, ballads, poetical colloquies, &c. In the romances of chivalry we behold paladins and peers, sorcerers, fairies, winged and intelligent horses, invisible or invulnerable men, magicians who are interested in the birth and education of knights, enchanted palaces; in a word, the creation of a new world which leaves our vulgar planet far beneath it. Paladins never without arms, in a country bristling with fortresses, find their delight and honor in punishing injustice and defending weakness. The chivalric romances may be divided into three classes: those of the Round Table; those of Charlemagne; and lastly those of Amadis, which belong to a later century. It will suffice to speak of the former. The romances of the Round Table recount tales of the cup from which Jesus Christ drank with Joseph of Arimathea. This cup had performed such prodigies, that we are not astonished that those valorous knights of the Round Table, Lancelot, Perceval, and Perceforest, are united with the determination to recover it. These *preux chevaliers* are the perpetual heroes of these romances. Lancelot is attached to Guinevere, the wife of King Arthur, and his marvelous exploits excite the admiration of contemporaries. Three centu-

ries after, lords and ladies were still delighted at the recital of "the very elegant, delicious, mellifluous, and very pleasant historie of the very noble and very victorious Perceforest." Amidst many pages of wearisome insipidity, we find some happy descriptions and situations detailed, and graphic portraits of feudal men and manners.

The absurdities of chivalry afforded scope for the satirical and comic powers of Cervantes, and the adventures of the unfortunate Don Quixote are read with an interest which few works of a similar character inspire. Every feature of chivalry is happily burlesqued, and the Knight of La Manena goes through all the ceremonials with a ludicrous gravity which is perfectly irresistible. The pertinacity with which the knights maintained the pre-eminence of the ladies of their affections is finely satirized in the election which Don Quixote makes of a hideous country wench, whose charms he celebrates after the most approved fashion and with unceasing devotion. Few ladies of chivalric romance have attained a degree of reputation comparable to that of the immortal Dulcinea del Toboso. [See KNIGHTHOOD, TOURNA-MENTS.]

CHOLERA. The severe epidemic which, under the name of Cholera, Asiatic Cholera, Malignant Cholera, or Cholera Asphyxia, has within a few years afflicted many parts of the world, is reputed to have originated in August, 1817, at Jessore, the capital of a district in Bengal, lying to the north-east of Calcutta. In the following September, it invaded Calcutta; soon after, many other cities of Hindostan; and in a short time it extended its ravages into various other countries of Asia. It has been estimated that during fourteen years from its commencement at Jessore, it carried off no less than eighteen millions of the inhabitants of Hindostan; and its ravages are said to have been still greater in China. In 1830, it invaded European Russia, and afterward Poland, Hungary, Germany, Austria, and other countries of Europe. In 1831, in October, it broke out at Sunderland in England; in February, 1832, in London; in Paris, near the last of March; at Quebec and Montreal in June; and at New York in July. The mortality was very great, and the

steady march of its ravages from the east to the west, created a general panic. Since then, medical men have become better versed in its causes and its treatment, but it has raged at times with much severity. It was very fatal to the allied French and English army at Varna in 1854.

CHRISTINA, Queen of Sweden, daughter of Gustavus Adolphus, was born in 1626, and died April 19th, 1689. She succeeded to the throne in 1633, and in 1654 resigned it to her cousin Charles Gustavus. She was remarkable for acts and habits foreign to her sex; namely, learning, murder, and apostasy. Her conduct was so flagrant, that she found it difficult to procure an asylum in any state, after having been excluded from her own. She died at Rome.

CHRISTIANS. The name of Christians was first applied to the followers of Jesus at Antioch, about the middle of the first century.

CHRISTOPHE, HENRI, King of Hayti, was born Oct. 6th, 1767. In early life he was a slave and passed from the hands of one master to another, being successively a cook and an overseer. The French were conquered by the exertions of Dessalines and Christophe, the latter of whom was general-in-chief of the army during the short-lived imperial government of the former. In 1806, an insurrection broke out in Hayti, in which Dessalines, the emperor, was killed by the negroes; whom he had provoked by his cruelty and oppression. His successor, Christophe, assumed the humbler title of chief of the government, and in that capacity opened the commerce of his dominion to neutral nations, by a proclamation distinguished for its liberal spirit and enlightened views. In 1811 Christophe changed the republic into a monarchy, and proclaimed himself King of Hayti. A short time before his coronation he created a nobility consisting of princes, dukes, counts, and barons, to give a greater splendor to the ceremony. He created a legion of honor, called the order of St. Henri, and altered the name of his capital from Cape François to Cape Henri. His troops, at this time, amounted to about 10,000 men, all negroes; and his fleet consisted of one frigate, nine sloops of war, and a number of schooners. In October, 1820, Christophe, hearing that his troops had

abandoned him, shot himself through the head, and the opposite party immediately proclaimed a republican government.

CHRYSOSTOM, JOHN, one of the fathers of the church, an eloquent and pious man, born at Antioch, 351; was Bishop of Constantinople; died in exile, 407.

CHURCH, BENJAMIN, a native of Duxbury, Mass., was born in 1639, and distinguished himself by his address and daring in the Indian wars. His services during King Philip's war were great, and he commanded the party that killed the sachem of Mount Hope, in August, 1676. He died in his seventy-eighth year, Jan. 17th, 1718. A descendant, of the same name, was the first traitor in our Revolution. He was a talented physician in Boston. For a while he was the zealous coadjutor of Warren and his fellow-patriots. He was detected in treasonable correspondence with Gov. Gage, and imprisoned. His health failing, he was released in 1776, and lost at sea on his way to the West Indies.

CHURCHILL, CHARLES, an English poet, born 1731, died in 1764. His political satires were received with great applause, and his "Prophecy of Famine," a severe satire upon the Scots, was read with eagerness, and procured notoriety for its author. Though at first a clergyman, the close of his life was marked by gross debaucheries.

CHURUBUSCO, one of the brilliant victories won by the Americans under Scott, in the advance upon the city of Mexico. The battle was fought Aug. 20th, 1847. Santa Anna's strongly posted force numbered 30,000; the assailants were not a fourth as many. The American loss in killed and wounded was 1,000; that of the Mexicans was 10,000, one-fourth of whom were prisoners.

CIBBER, COLLEY, an English actor and dramatist, was born in London in 1671, and died in 1757. His comedy of "The Careless Husband" received the approbation of even the bitter Pope. He was made poet-laureate in 1730.

CICERO, MARCUS TULLIUS, the celebrated orator, born at Arpinum 106 B.C., was the son of a Roman knight. In Sicily he exercised the quaestorship with equity and moderation, and freed the Sicilians from the tyranny and avarice of Verres. He discharged the

offices of edile and prætor, and stood for the consulship, at a time when Cataline was making the most vigorous efforts to oppose him. Cataline, with many dissolute and desperate Romans, had conspired against his country, and planned the murder of Cicero himself. The plot being discovered, chiefly by the efforts of Cicero, he commanded Cataline to leave the city, and the desperate traitor marched forth to meet the 20,000 men that were assembled to support his cause. The rebels were defeated, and the conspirators capitally punished. After this memorable deliverance, Cicero received the thanks of the people, with the title of father of his country and second founder of Rome.

The vehemence with which he attacked Clodius, proved injurious to him; and when his enemy was made tribune, Cicero was banished from Rome, though 20,000 young men were ready to attest his innocence. After an absence of sixteen months, during which he had been favorably received wherever he presented himself, he was recalled, and entered Rome to the universal satisfaction. When he was sent with the power of proconsul to Cilicia, his integrity and prudence made him successful against the enemy, and on his return he was honored with a triumph, which, however, the factions prevented him from enjoying.

During the civil wars between Cæsar and Pompey, he joined the latter, and followed him to Greece. When victory had declared in favor of Cæsar, at the battle of Pharsalia, Cicero went to Brundisium, and was reconciled to the conqueror, who treated him with great humanity. From this time, Cicero retired into the country, and seldom visited Rome. After the assassination of Cæsar, Cicero recommended a general amnesty, and was strongly in favor of having the provinces decreed to Brutus and Cassius; but finding the interest of the republicans decrease, and Antony come into power, he retired to Athens. He soon after returned, but lived in perpetual fear of assassination. The enmity of Antony finally proved fatal to him, when Augustus, Antony, and Lepidus, to destroy all causes of quarrel, and each to dispatch his enemies, produced their lists of proscription. Cicero was among the proscribed. He fled, but was pursued, and put

to death, in his sixty-fourth year, B.C. 43. Cicero was a sincere patriot, and was unquestionably one of the brightest ornaments of the age in which he lived. His eloquence was winning, and his pen had the power of his tongue. His orations and philosophical works are models of style. He possessed a sparkling wit.

CID. Don RODRIGO DIAZ, Count of Bivar, surnamed the Cid (a Moorish word signifying lord), one of the most renowned knights of Spain, was born in 1026. He signalized himself against the Moors, winning the esteem of his countrymen, who bestowed upon him the title of *Campeador* (incomparable). On the accession of Sancho to the throne of Castile, the knight of Bivar accompanied him to the siege of Zamora, whence he brought back the troops and the dead body of the warrior monarch, who fell by treachery. Alfonso, the brother of Sancho, was then placed on the throne, after swearing that he had no participation in the murder of Sancho. The Cid's last exploit was the capture of Saguntum, and he died at Valencia, 1099. He was buried at Castile, and near him lies interred his beloved and faithful charger, Babieca.

CILICIA, an ancient country of Asia Minor, south of Mount Taurus, and between Pamphylia and Syria, the coast of which was inhabited by a piratical race. The Macedonians and Syrians successively held it, and it was reduced by Pompey to the Roman rule.

CIMBRI, an ancient tribe of the Germans, the first of that people with whom the Greeks became acquainted. Their origin is doubtful; they were warlike, and made themselves formidable to the Romans.

CIMON, an Athenian, son of Miltiades, famous for his debaucheries in his youth, and the reformation of his morals when he arrived at years of discretion. He behaved with great courage at the battle of Salamis, and rendered himself popular by his munificence and valor. He defeated the Persian fleet at Cyprus, took two hundred ships, and totally routed their land-army near the river Eurymedon in Pamphylia, on the same day, 470 B.C. Cimon afterward lost his popularity, and was banished by the Athenians, who declared war against the Lacedemonians; but having been recalled from his exile, rec-

onciled Lacedemon and his country. He was afterward appointed to carry on the war against Persia, gave battle to the enemy on the coast of Asia, and totally destroyed their fleet. He died as he was besieging the town of Citium, in Cyprus, B.C. 449, in the fifty-first year of his age.

CINCINNATI, SOCIETY OF THE, founded in 1783, by the officers of the Revolutionary army when about disbanding. Gen. Washington was the first president-general, and continued such till his death. His successors were as follows: 1800, Gen. Alexander Hamilton; 1804, Gen. Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, S. C.; 1826, Gen. Thomas Pinckney; Col. Aaron Ogden, N. J.; 1838, Gen. Morgan Lewis, N. Y.; 1844, Maj. Popham, N. Y.; 1848, Gen. Dearborn, Mass.

CINCINNATUS, LUCIUS QUINTUS, a celebrated Roman. Having been informed, as he ploughed his field, that the senate had chosen him dictator, he left his farm with regret, and repaired to the assistance of his countrymen, whom he found hard pressed by the Volsci and Æqui. He conquered the enemy and returned to Rome in triumph; and, sixteen days after his appointment, laid down his office, and returned to his agricultural employments. In his eightieth year he was again summoned, against Præneste, as dictator, and after a successful campaign, resigned the unlimited power which had been reposed in him. He flourished about 460 years B.C.

CINNA, LUCIUS CORNELIUS, a Roman consul who leagued with Marius to deluge Rome with blood. He was stoned to death, B.C. 84.

CINQUE PORTS. They were originally the five (*cinque*) ports of Hastings, Hythe, Romney, Sandwich, and Dover, which, according to the regulations of William the Conqueror, were bound, at specified notice, to furnish and man a certain number of ships of war. Winchelsea and Rye were afterward added. These towns were, to use the language of the time, compelled to "find the service they owed." They stood to the crown in the same relation that the holders of great estates did, only that they were to do their services on shipboard. If a resident of either of the Cinque Ports served as a soldier, he was released from his naval obli-

gations. The number of galleys these ports were required to furnish, was fifty-two. The lord warden appears to have had a general charge of them and their naval concerns. In time the institution became obsolete, but the wardenship was found a comfortable place for public men who had small means of living, or, with ample means, had yet greater avarice. Lord North filled it; so did William Pitt; and also the Duke of Wellington, it being one of the many offices possessed by him at the time of his death. It was while residing at Walmer Castle, a place held by him in virtue of the wardenship, that he died, and, if medical authority can be believed, in consequence of his residence there, the bleak air from the British Channel and the German Ocean being too rude for the soldier of more than fourscore and three years. The post of warden has become a complete sinecure, almost a scandalous one; and it was said to have been an understood thing among men of all parties in England, that it should be abolished upon the death of the great Wellington; instead of this it was bestowed upon some one of the titled barnacles that cluster to Britannia's ship of state.

CIRCASSIA, a country of Asia, lying between the Black and Caspian Sea, on the northern slope of the Caucasus. The Circassians are Mohammedans. They are a warlike race. The females are celebrated for their beauty, are sold by their parents, and are esteemed the brightest ornaments of an eastern seraglio.

The Russians are nominal masters of Circassia, but for the past twenty years the bold mountaineers have carried on a war of independence with great success under the lead of the chief Schamyl.

CIRCUMNAVIGATORS. The circumnavigation of the earth, at the time it was first achieved, was among the greatest and most daring of human enterprises.

The first was Magellan, or rather by his fleet, as he was himself slain on the voyage, 1519; Groalva, 1537; Alvaradi, 1537; Mendana, 1567; Sir Francis Drake, 1577; Cavendish, 1586; Lemaire, 1615; Quiros, 1625; Tasman, 1642; Cowley, 1683; Dampier, 1689; Cooke, 1708; Clipperton and Sherlock, 1719; Anson, 1740; Byron, 1764; Wallis, 1766;

Cook, 1768, 1772, 1776; his last voyage continued by King, 1779; Portlocke, 1788; Bougainville, 1766; La Peyrouse, 1782; D'Entrecasteux, 1791.

CISALPINE REPUBLIC. This name was given by Bonaparte to a republic which received its constitution in 1797, and which finally included a territory of more than 16,337 square miles, inhabited by three and a half millions of inhabitants. It included, among other districts, Austrian Lombardy, the Mantua and Venetian Provinces, Bergamo, Brescia, Crema, Verona, Rovigo, the duchy of Modena, the principality of Massa and Carrara, Bologna, Ferrara, Messola, and Romagna. It merged into the kingdom of Italy in March, 1805.

CISTERCIANS, an order of monkhood founded by Robert, a Benedictine, Abbot of Citeaux in France, 1092. They became so powerful that they governed almost all Europe in spiritual and temporal concerns. They observed a continual silence, abstained from flesh, lay on straw, wore neither shoes nor shirts, and were most austere.

CITATE. The Russian general Gortschakoff, intending to storm Kalafat, threw up redoubts at Citate, close to the Danube, which were stormed by the Turks under Omar Pacha, Jan. 6th, 1854. The fighting continued on the 7th, 8th, and 9th, when the Russians were compelled to retire to their former position at Krajona, having lost 1,500 killed and 2,000 wounded. The loss of the Turks was 338 killed and 700 wounded.

CIUDAD RODRIGO. This strong fortress of Spain was invested by the French, under Massena, June 11th, 1810, and yielded to them July 10th. It remained in their possession until it was stormed by the British, commanded by Lord Wellington, Jan. 19th, 1812. The loss of the British and Portuguese amounted to about 1,000 killed and wounded; the loss of the garrison was the same, besides 1,700 prisoners.

CLAPPERTON, HUGH, an officer in the English navy, born at Annan, in Scotland, in 1788. Having served with distinction, he joined Oudney and Denham, in their expedition to Africa. After acquiring a vast fund of information in regard to the interior of Africa, he returned to England, but, died in

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the vicinity of Soccatoo, while on a second expedition of discovery, April 13th, 1827. Richard Lander was his servant.

CLARENDON, EDWARD HYDE, Earl of, lord high chancellor of England, was born 1608, and educated at Oxford. He became chancellor of exchequer and member of the privy council under Charles I., and was loaded with honors by Charles II. Having, however, lost the royal favor, he was deprived of his offices, threatened with impeachment, and compelled to fly to France, where he died, at Rouen, in 1674. His daughter Anne was the first wife of the Duke of York, afterward James II. His "History of the Rebellion" (as the royalists termed the civil war), is much esteemed for the descriptions of the author's eminent contemporaries.

CLARK, ABRAHAM, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Elizabethtown, N. J., Feb. 15th, 1726. He was a self-taught, energetic man; in 1776 was elected to a seat in Congress; was ever an active public man; and died in 1794, from a stroke of the sun.

CLARK, ADAM, LL.D., F.S.A., &c., a distinguished Methodist preacher and divine, a man of great talents and extensive learning, particularly in the oriental languages and biblical literature, and author of a well known and learned commentary on the Scriptures, and various other publications. He was born in 1760, in the county of Londonderry, in Ireland, his father being of an English family, and his mother a Scotchwoman. By invitation of John Wesley, he became a pupil in Kingswood school, then recently established, and was sent out by Mr. Wesley, an itinerant preacher, in 1782, at the early age of nineteen. He was greatly admired as a preacher: at first his youth attracted great numbers of hearers; but afterward the extent of his resources, from the gifts of nature and the fruits of study, commanded attention wherever he went; and hardly any man ever drew so large congregations, or of so mixed a character. To his great talents and learning he united the virtues of the humble Christian; was greatly respected by all denominations; and though catholic in his feelings, he was strongly attached to the body of Christians with which he was connected. He died Au-

gust 26th, 1832, at Bayswater, near London, of the cholera.

CLARKE, GEORGE ROGERS, an American officer, who was engaged against the Indians, throughout the Revolutionary war, on the frontiers of Virginia. In 1778, he was appointed to command a force for the protection of Illinois. He built Fort Jefferson on the eastern bank of the Mississippi, and in 1781, received a general's commission. He died in 1818, near Louisville, Kentucky, aged seventy-six. The following anecdote is related of him in an authentic work.

The Indians came in to the treaty of Fort Washington in the most friendly manner, except the Shawnees, conceited and warlike, the first in at a battle, the last at a treaty. Three hundred of their finest warriors set off in all their paint and feathers, and filled the council-house. Their number and demeanor, so unusual at an occasion of this sort, was altogether unexpected and suspicious. The United States stockade mustered seventy men. In the centre of the hall, at a little table, sat the commissary-general, Clarke, the indefatigable scourge of these very wanderers, General Richard Butler, and Mr. Parsons. On the part of the Indians, an old council-sachem and a war-chief took the lead. The latter, a tall, raw-boned fellow, with an impudent and villainous look, made a boisterous and threatening speech, which operated effectually on the passions of the Indians, who set up a prodigious whoop at every pause. He concluded by presenting a black and white wampum, to signify they were prepared for either event, peace or war. Clarke exhibited the same unaltered and careless countenance he had shown during the whole scene, his head leaning on his left hand, and his elbow resting on the table. He raised his little cane, and pushed the sacred wampum off the table, with very little ceremony. Every Indian, at the same time, started from his seat with one of those sudden, simultaneous, and peculiarly savage sounds, which startle and disconcert the stoutest heart, and can neither be described nor forgotten. At this juncture, Clarke arose. The scrutinizing eye cowered at his glance. He stamped his foot on the prostrate and insulted symbol, and ordered

them to leave the hall. They did so apparently involuntarily. They were heard all that night, debating in the bushes near the fort. The raw-boned chief was for war, the old sachem for peace. The latter prevailed, and the next morning they came back and sued for peace.

CLARKE, SAMUEL, a distinguished divine, metaphysician, and scholar, was born at Norwich, England, Oct. 11th, 1675, and died May 17th, 1729. Sir James Mackintosh said of him, that he was "eminent at once as a divine, a mathematician, a metaphysical philosopher, and a philologist; and, as the interpreter of Homer and Cæsar, the scholar of Newton, and the antagonist of Leibnitz, approved himself not unworthy of correspondence with the highest order of human spirits."

CLARKSON, THOMAS, was born at Wisbeach, in Cambridgeshire, March 28th, 1760, and graduated at St. John's, Cambridge, with high honors of scholarship. With untiring benevolence he sought the abolition of the slave-trade, and his life may be said to have passed in labors for its extinction. He had the pleasure of seeing it declared illegal by the British parliament in 1807. Mr. Clarkson was a member of the society of Friends. He died in September, 1846.

CLAUDE, GELEE, commonly called CLAUDE LORRAINE, from the province of his birth, was born in the year 1600. His parents were very poor, and as Claude showed no disposition to learn to read or write, he was placed with a pastry-cook. The cooks of Lorraine were celebrated, and found good employment abroad. Young Claude wandered to Rome with some of them. There he engaged himself to Agostino Tassi, a good landscape painter, as an ordinary domestic. He both prepared his master's meals, and ground his colors for him; but he acquired at the same time the rudiments of the art. From this menial capacity his application brought him to be known as one of the greatest of landscape painters. He died at Rome in 1682. Claude was extremely slow and careful in his execution. He often painted for a week or a fortnight on one part of a picture, without showing any progress. With the human figure or animals he had great difficulty, and in such parts of his pictures generally pro-

cured the aid of his friends. His chief excellence is in aerial perspective, and the management of light generally. His studies are said to have been made from the banks of the Tiber, and the magnificent prospects afforded by the Campagna di Roma. Here he might be seen at early dawn, in the brilliancy of noon-day, and at the set of sun, marking the different effects produced by the rays of the sun upon the surrounding objects, or taking in, with an attentive and practiced eye, the dreamy hues which the vapory haze cast upon the various parts of the landscape as they slowly receded from his sight. All these have been traced upon his canvas with a fidelity and beauty which few have been able to equal and none to excel. But the great charm of his pictures is the exquisite poetry interwoven in them. In his pictures of morning, the rising sun dissipates the dews, and the fields and verdure brighten at the approach of day; his evening skies expand a glowing splendor over the horizon; and vegetation, oppressed by a sultry aridity, sinks under the heat of his noon-day suns. It was his custom to preserve in a book the drawings of the paintings executed by him. Six of these registers, termed by him *Libri di Verità*, were found after his decease. This curious collection was sold by one of his nephews for two hundred scudi, to a Frenchman, who took them to Paris and offered them to the king. The purchase being declined, they were afterward bought by the Duke of Devonshire, and now adorn the magnificent mansion at Chatsworth.

CLAUDIUS I., Emperor of Rome, the son of Drusus, and the successor of the infamous Caligula. He made some conquests in Britain, and built several noble structures in Rome. He was poisoned by his wife Agrippina, who wished to place her son, Nero, on the throne, A.D. 54. He was then sixty-three years of age.

CLAY, HENRY, was born in Virginia, in the neighborhood of a region known as the Slashes (whence his sobriquet of 'the mill boy of the slashes'), the 12th of April, 1777. The straitened circumstances of his father, who was a clergyman, permitted him but the humble education of a district school. At an early age he acted as copyist for the clerk of the court of chancery at Richmond.

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When nineteen, he commenced the study of law, and such were his assiduity in study and the brilliancy of his progress, that he was admitted to the bar within one year. In 1799, he removed to Lexington, Kentucky. He became an active politician as well as a popular lawyer. When a convention was called for the revision of the constitution of Kentucky, he incurred much unpopularity by his efforts for the election of delegates in favor of the emancipation of the slaves. His opposition to the alien and sedition laws restored him to favor, and in 1803 he was elected by a large majority to the legislature. Such was the repute he gained, that in 1806 he was chosen United States senator to fill a vacancy caused by the resignation of Gen. Adair. After the expiration of the brief term (March 3d, 1807), he returned to Lexington, was again chosen to the legislature, and served as speaker of the assembly two sessions. In 1809 he was appointed to fill another vacancy in the United States senate, and served from Jan. 4th, 1810, till March 3d, 1811. In 1811 he was elected representative in Congress from Kentucky, and was chosen speaker of the house; the duties of which arduous office he discharged with great ability through that

and the succeeding congress, till in 1814 he was appointed one of the commissioners to negotiate at Ghent a treaty of peace with Great Britain. He returned from Europe in 1815, having proved himself no less skillful as a diplomatist than he was eloquent as an orator and able as a debater. He was re-elected to Congress from 1815 to 1821 (being speaker of the house during that time), and in 1823. He became known as a decided advocate of a protective tariff, and took an active part in the passage of the Missouri compromise. In 1824, he received thirty-seven electoral votes for the presidency. His competitors, Jackson, Adams, and Crawford, each received a larger number of votes, and there being no choice by the electors, their names were balloted upon by the house of representatives, and Mr. Adams was chosen. The friends of Mr. Clay, by his advice, supported Mr. Adams. Upon the accession of the new president, Mr. Clay was made secretary of state. In the heat of partisan animosity the charge was engendered that his appointment was the result of corruption, and the payment in the bargain by which the adherents of Clay voted for Mr. Adams. Time has proved this to be malicious calumny.

In 1831, Clay was elected United States senator from Kentucky, and in 1832 was an unsuccessful competitor with Jackson for the presidency. He was re-elected to the senate in 1836, and served until his resignation in 1842. In 1844, he was nominated by the Whigs for the presidency, but was defeated by Mr. Polk. He returned to the senate in 1849, and was active in supporting the compromise measures of 1850. His health now began to decline, and after a voyage to the West Indies for its restoration, he came back to Washington, where he departed from life, June 29th, 1852, at the age of seventy-five years.

It was the remark of a distinguished senator, that Mr. Clay's eloquence was absolutely intangible to delineation; that the most labored description could not embrace it; and that to be understood, it must be seen and felt. He was an orator by nature. His eagle eye burned with patriotic ardor, or flashed indignation and defiance upon his foes, or was suffused with tears of commiseration or of pity; and it was because *he* felt, that he made *others* feel. A gentleman, after hearing one of his magnificent efforts in the senate, thus described him: "Every muscle of the orator's face was at work. His whole body seemed agitated, as if each part was instinct with a separate life; and his small white hand, with its blue veins apparently distended almost to bursting, moved gracefully, but with all the energy of rapid and vehement gesture. The appearance of the speaker seemed that of a pure intellect, wrought up to its mightiest energies, and brightly shining through the thin and transparent veil of flesh that invested it."

The particulars of the duel between Mr. Clay and Randolph of Roanoke may be interesting to the reader. The eccentric descendant of Pocahontas appeared on the ground in a huge morning gown. This garment had such a vast circumference that the precise whereabouts of the lean senator was a matter of very vague conjecture. The parties exchanged shots, and the ball of Mr. Clay hit the centre of the visible object, but the body of Mr. Randolph was untouched. The latter had fired in the air. Immediately after the exchange of shots, he walked up to Mr. Clay, parted the folds of his gown, pointed to the

hole where the bullet had punctured his coat, and exclaimed in the shrillest tones of his piercing voice, "Mr. Clay, you owe me a coat—you owe me a coat!" To which Mr. Clay replied, with slow and solemn emphasis, pointing directly at Randolph's heart, "Mr. Randolph, I thank God that I am no deeper in your debt!"

CLAYTON, JOHN, an eminent botanist, author of "The Flora Virginica," was born in England, about 1685; came with his father to America, and in 1722, became clerk of the county of Gloucester, Virginia, which office he held fifty-one years, to his death, 1773.

CLAYTON, JOHN MIDDLETON, was born in Sussex county, Delaware, July 24th, 1796. He was a learned lawyer and eloquent advocate, represented Delaware several terms in the federal senate, and was secretary of state in the cabinet of President Taylor. He died at Dover, Del., Nov. 9th, 1856.

CLEMENT. This name has been borne by several popes. Clement XIV. suppressed the order of the Jesuits, and gave many proofs of great liberality in religious matters. He is best known by his real name, Ganganelli. He died in 1775.

CLEOMBROTUS, a king of Sparta, killed in a battle fought with Epaminondas at Leuctra, B.C. 371. There were two others of the name.

CLEOMENES. This name was borne by three kings of Sparta. The first delivered Athens from the tyranny of the Pisistratidæ, but killed himself in a fit of insanity, B.C. 491.

The reign of the second was distinguished for nothing but an uninterrupted tranquillity.

Cleomenes III. was the son and successor of Leonidas, and began to reign B.C. 230. Engaging in a war with the Achæians, he was defeated, and obliged to fly into Egypt, where he destroyed himself in prison, B.C. 219.

CLEOPATRA, Queen of Egypt, and one of the most famous and fascinating female sovereigns of antiquity, was the daughter of Ptolemy Auletes, and the sister and wife of Ptolemy Dionysius, who deprived her of her share in the kingdom, and drove her to seek protection of the Romans. She exerted all the influence of her beauty to win the heart and gain the favor of Cæsar, and she was successful. Ptolemy was defeated and drowned. He left the throne to his sister, who

removed her younger brother by poison. Cleopatra visited Rome during the lifetime of Caesar, but was forced to quit it by the clamors of the populace. After the battle of Philippi, she was summoned by Antony to appear before him to answer to the charge brought against her of having assisted Brutus. When she made her appearance before Antony, the charms of her person and mind ensnared him, and made him forget the attractions of his wife. At the battle of Actium she fled, and her paramour was defeated. He afterward committed suicide, and died in her arms. Cleopatra, to avoid gracing the triumph of Augustus, applied an asp to her breast, and died of the wound, B.C. 30. She was a woman of great talents, but of a most ambitious and extravagant spirit. In a convivial contest with Antony, to see which of them could expend the most money on an entertainment, she snatched one of her pearl ornaments, valued at \$50,000, and dissolving it in a cup of vinegar, swallowed the contents. Few scenes of antiquity can have surpassed the splendor of her appointments, when she floated over the waves of the river Cydnus, to meet Antony. She came to judgment, but she came in the pride of beauty and anticipated triumph. Her galley glowed with gold; odors filled its silken sails, and the loveliest girls of Egypt performed the part of mariners. Beneath an awning on the deck lay the queen, in the slight drapery with which painters and sculptors sometimes invest the goddess of beauty. Silver oars struck the water to the dulcet sound of music, and beneath and about them sported the fair representatives of marine deities.

CLERFAYT, FRANCIS SEBASTIAN CHARLES JOSEPH DE CROIX, Count of, an Austrian general. In 1792, he commanded the Austrian troops against France, and after taking Longwy and Stenay, retired into the Low Countries. Here he lost the famous battle of Jemappes; but his retreat across the Rhine was a masterpiece of skill. Under the command of the prince of Coburg, he gained considerable advantages at Altenhaven, Quivrain, Hausen, and Farmars, and decided the victory of Nerwinden. With General Pichegru he disputed every foot of ground, till the inferiority of his forces obliged him to

abandon the country. In 1795, he took the command of the army of Mayence, forced the French camp, and took a number of prisoners. He was following the victory with ardor, when he received at Manheim an order to desist. On this, he gave in his resignation, and retired to Vienna, where he died in 1798.

CLERKE, EDWARD, an able English naval commander, the companion, friend, and successor of Captain James Cook, died on the coast of Kamschatka, August 22d, 1779, aged thirty-nine.

CLIFFORD, GEORGE, the third Earl of Cumberland, a nobleman distinguished by his naval enterprises in the reign of Elizabeth. He did great damage to the Spanish settlements and trade. He died in 1605.

CLINTON, CHARLES, Col., was born in the county of Longford, Ireland, 1690; came to America, 1729; died Nov. 19th, 1773.

CLINTON, DE WITT, the son of Gen. James Clinton, was born in Orange county, N. Y., in 1769. He studied law, and was elected successively member of the state legislature, of the senate of the union, and mayor of New York. In 1817, he was chosen governor of New York, on which occasion his previous opponents gave him their votes, from a sense of his merit; he was re-elected in 1820. Clinton was one of the prime movers of the great canal scheme, and having satisfied himself that there was no danger of that being defeated, in 1822 he declined again entering the elective lists. Having been deprived of his seat in the board of canal commissioners, by the animosity of his political opponents, a revolution in public feeling took place which enabled his friends in 1824 to elect him governor over Colonel Young, by an overwhelming majority. In 1826, he was again elected, but died Feb. 11th, 1828.

CLINTON, GEORGE, son of Col. Charles Clinton (above), was born in Ulster county, N. Y., July 15th, 1739. In the old French war, and the war of independence, he displayed great gallantry. Having studied law, he was admitted to practice in due time, and was chosen governor of New York, in 1777, and he continued in office eighteen years, and then declined re-election. He was again elected governor in 1801, and three years



DE WITT CLINTON.

after was chosen vice-president of the United States, holding the office till the time of his death in 1812.

CLINTON, Sir HENRY, was a son of George Clinton (governor of New York in 1743), and grandson of the Earl of Lincoln. He served on the continent during the 'seven years' war,' and came to America with Gen. Howe in the spring of 1775, bearing the commission of a major-general. In 1778, he succeeded Sir William Howe in the supreme command, which he retained till 1782. He was appointed governor of Gibraltar, in 1795, and died Dec. 22d, the same year.

CLINTON, JAMES, another son of Col.

Charles Clinton, was born in Ulster county, N. Y., Aug. 9th, 1736. His education was excellent, and he served with distinction in the English and French war of 1756, and in the Revolutionary war as brigadier-general. After the close of the war, he became a senator of the United States. He died Dec. 22d, 1812.

CLIVE, ROBERT, Baron of Plassey, was born in Shropshire, September 29th, 1725. Bold and reckless in his youth, he was sent as a scapegrace to Madras in his eighteenth year. His friends had procured him a clerkship in the company service. Mercantile drudgery he so utterly disrelished that twice

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he tried suicide by snapping a loaded pistol at his head. Each time the pistol hung fire. A friend who entered the room soon afterward fired the weapon out the window. Startled at his preservation, Clive sprang up, crying with an oath, "I must be reserved for something great," and abandoned his design. War endangered the British possessions, and Clive found more congenial employment in the field, where he became eminent for his successes. He assisted in the Tanjore war in 1747, and in 1751 took Arcot by a *coup de main*, and relieved Trichinopoly. He afterward took Fort William in Bengal, defeated Surajah Dowlah, and placed Jaffier Ali Cawn upon the throne. The victory of Plassey, June 23d, 1757, where with little more than 3,000 men he defeated Surajah Dowlah at the head of 70,000, laid the foundation of British power and empire in India. Honors were heaped upon him in consequence of these achievements, and he was made president of Bengal. An attempt to weed out the gross abuses in India won him many foes, and on his final return home in 1767 he was the mark for much obloquy. The verdict passed by parliament, in refusing to vote that he had abused his power, and resolving that "Lord Clive has rendered great and meritorious services to his country," could not heal the wounds in his haughty spirit. He died by his own hand, November 22d, 1774.

CLOVIS, King of the Franks, born 465, succeeded his father Childeric in 481. He embraced Christianity and was publicly baptized. He was the founder of the French monarchy, drove out the Romans, defeated the Goths, subdued several provinces, and fixed the royal residence at Paris. He died in 511. The Salique law was published by Clovis. When he was first told of the sufferings of Christ, he exclaimed, "Oh! had I been there with my valiant Gauls, how I would have avenged him!"

CLYMER, GEORGE, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Philadelphia, in 1739. He became a merchant under the auspices of his uncle and guardian, but he preferred science and literature to business. He was chosen to Congress in 1776, and was several years a talented and patriotic delegate in that body. Mr. Clymer

was one of the projectors of the bank established for the sole purpose of conveying rations to the army. Perceiving the good effects of a national bank, in 1780, when elected a second time to Congress, he strenuously advocated its establishment. In 1784 he filled a seat in the legislature of Pennsylvania, and as a member of the convention, he assisted in framing the present federal constitution. He was also a member of the first federal congress. When, in 1791, the famous bill imposing a duty on spirits distilled within the United States, was passed, Clymer was placed at the head of the Pennsylvania excise, and rendered efficient service in putting down the whiskey insurrection. He was engaged, with others, to negotiate a treaty with the Cherokee Indians in 1796. He was afterward appointed president of the academy of fine arts, and of the Philadelphia bank. He died Jan. 23d, 1813.

CLYTEMNESTRA, daughter of Tyndarus, King of Sparta, by Heda, and twin-sister of Helen. In the absence of her husband Agamemnon, at the siege of Troy, Ægisthus made his court to her, and publicly lived with her. Her infidelity reached the ears of Agamemnon, but he was prevented from carrying his schemes of vengeance into execution, being murdered by the traitress and her paramour on his return home. After this crime, Clytemnestra publicly married Ægisthus, who ascended the throne of Argos. She was killed by her son Orestes.

COBBETT, WILLIAM (1762-1835), a self-taught man, and powerful political writer in England.

COCHIN-CHINA, called also Anam, a country of Farther India, composed of Cambodia, Cochin-China Proper, and Tonquin, is 1,000 miles long, and from 70 to 220 miles broad. The government is a hereditary military despotism. The inhabitants are hardy, but treacherous, and the country is fertile. Little attention is paid to religion, although that of Fo is professed by the lower orders. The commerce of the country is increasing. A portion of the country was conquered and colonized by the Chinese B.C. 214, but the Chinese yoke was afterward thrown off.

CODRUS, the son of Melanthus, and last king of Athens, who, learning that the oracle had assured the Heraclidæ that their good

fortune depended on sparing his life, rushed into the midst of the hostile array in disguise, and was slain, 1070 B.C.

COFFEE. Its use as a beverage is traced to the Persians. Some ascribe it to the prior of a monastery, who, being told by a goatherd that his cattle sometimes browsed upon the tree, and that they would then wake at night and sport upon the hills, became curious to prove its virtues. He accordingly tried it upon his monks, to prevent their sleeping at matins, and found that it checked their slumbers. Coffee came into great repute in Arabia Felix about 1454, passed thence to Egypt and Syria, and thence in 1511 to Constantinople, where coffee houses were opened in 1554. It was first brought into England by Nathaniel Canopus, a Cretan, who made it his common beverage, at Baliol College, Oxford, in 1641. The coffee-tree was conveyed from Mocha to Holland, in 1616; carried to the West Indies in the year 1726; first cultivated at Surinam by the Dutch, 1718; its culture encouraged in the British plantations, 1732. Some affirm this tree to have been originally a native of Arabia Felix, and certain it is that the finest specimens are from the neighborhood of Mocha.

COIN. Homer speaks of brass money as existing 1184 B.C. The invention of coin is ascribed to the Lydians, who cherished commerce; their money was of gold and silver. The most ancient coins known are Macedonian, of the fifth century B.C. Money was coined at Rome in the time of Servius Tullius, about 573 B.C. Rude scraps of copper had previously been used. Brass money only was in use there down to 269 B.C. (when Fabius Pictor coined silver), a token of little intercourse with the East, where both gold and silver had been in use long before. Iron money was used in Sparta, and iron and tin in Britain. Julius Caesar was the first who obtained the express permission of the senate to place his image on the Roman coins. In the more simple days of the Roman people, the likeness of no living personage appeared upon their money: the heads were those of their deities, or of those who had received divine honors.

English coin was of different shapes, as square, oblong, and round, until the middle

ages, when round coin only was used. The names of various pieces now obsolete, are met with in Shakspeare and other old English authors. The angel was a gold coin, so called from bearing the figure of an angel, valued at 6s. 8d. in the reign of Henry VI., and at 10s. in 1562. It is said the coin was so named and stamped, in memory of the tradition that Gregory the Great, shortly before his elevation to the papal chair, chancing one day to pass through the slave-mart at Rome, and seeing a group of beautiful youth set up for sale, he inquired about their origin, and finding they were English, he cried, "*Non Angli, sed Angeli forent, si essent Christiani*;" that is, "They would not be English, but angels, if they were Christians." Edward IV. coined angels with a figure of Michael and the dragon, the original of George and the dragon. The angelot was a gold coin, half the angel in value, struck at Paris when that city was in the hands of the English, in the reign of Henry VI., 1431. It had its name from the figure of an angel supporting the escutcheon of the arms of England and France. "Let it be but twenty nobles," plead the Hostess of Eastcheap when fat Falstaff was wheedling a loan from her. The noble was first struck in the reign of Edward III., and being stamped with a rose, was sometimes called a rose noble. Its value was 6s. 8d. Master Slender, too, complains that swaggering Pistol picked his purse of seven groats in mill-sixpences. The groat (meaning great coin) was so called because up to 1351 it was the largest silver piece. Its value was 4d. Milled sixpences and shillings were first made in the reign of Elizabeth. The guinea was so called from having been at first coined of gold brought from the coast of Guinea, 1673. They were then valued at 30s. The original pieces bore the figure of an elephant. In 1717, their value was fixed at 21s. by act of parliament. None have been coined since 1816. The ancient silver penny was the first silver coin struck in England, and the only one current among the Anglo-Saxons. Until the reign of Edward I., it was stamped with a cross, so deeply indented that it might be easily parted into two for half pence, and into four for farthings (*fourthings*); whence those names.

COKE, Sir EDWARD, was born at Mileham in the county of Norfolk, Feb. 1st, 1552. He

was a diligent student, from three in the morning till nine at night, caring for no knowledge not convertible to cash, and when called to the bar in 1578, brimful of law, and fortified by his hard discipline of study, he rose rapidly in his profession. Before he was thirty years old, the desperate money-seeker had made himself master of manor upon manor, and laid the foundation of the enormous possessions which at length alarmed the crown, lest they should prove too magnificent for a subject. In 1592 he was appointed solicitor-general, and in 1594 attorney-general, triumphing over Bacon, who was an aspirant for that place. His perversions of criminal law, as lawyer for the crown, are notorious; his brutality toward Essex, Raleigh, and the accomplices in the plot of Guy Faux, rendered him infamous. He was a man of haughty manners, severe spirit, and irritable temper. The stand which he made in the name of the people against the encroachments of the crown, was productive of great benefits; but it was a soiled instrument by which they were secured. Upon the death of Elizabeth, James I. knighted him, and continued him in office. In 1606 he was made chief-justice of the court of common pleas, "fatigued, if not satiated with amassing money at the bar." He was stubborn for the rights of his office, and came in direct collision with the pedantic presumption of the king. In 1613 he was made chief-justice of the king's bench; a change which he little liked; for though the rank was higher, the gains were much less, and in consequence of it, his hated rival, Bacon, who had come to be solicitor-general, was promoted to the attorney-generalship. Coke continued to display independence in his new seat, but stopped short of any act that might deprive him of the reversion of the chancellorship, to which his great acquirements and reputation well entitled him. Bacon was active in opposing this, and urged the king to his dismissal from his post as chief-justice, which was effected in 1616. He heard his sentence with dejection and tears. We must not forget this weakness, when we reflect upon his abject submission to royalty during his days of dependence, and as we approach the more stormy times when the spirit of vengeance incited him to grapple with kingly power in the temper of a rebel.

As Coke fell, Bacon rose. While the former was shedding tears for dismissal, the latter was intoxicated with joy for elevation to the chancellorship. Coke was afterward partially restored to royal favor, through influence gained by the marriage of his daughter with Sir John Villiers, eldest brother of the powerful Duke of Buckingham. The marriage was an unhappy one; Sir John was old enough to be his wife's father; and before long she eloped with a paramour, traveling abroad in man's attire, and dying young. But it served the ends of her parent, who was restored to the privy council, though he got no judicial promotion. In his seventieth year he was chosen to parliament. Failing to obtain the office of lord treasurer, he placed himself at the head of the Puritans, who had been returned to the house in great numbers. His hate was gratified by procuring the impeachment of Bacon, for taking bribes as chancellor. He maintained the stand he had taken for the liberties of the people, after the accession of Charles I., till 1628, when his famous Petition of Right was carried; shortly after which he retired from public life. He died in September, 1634, in the eighty-third year of his age and in the full possession of his faculties. For a profound knowledge of the common law he was unrivaled. His celebrated "Institute," which grew out of a commentary upon "Littleton's Treatise on Tenures," has made him the great oracle of English law. Though so devoted to money-getting, as a judge he was above suspicion of corruption. His services for public liberty were great: to him England is greatly indebted for the movement which, beginning on the 30th of January, 1621, ended on that very day eight and twenty years with the decapitation of Charles I.; but it is undeniable that the nation's difficulties would have waited some time longer for solution, had not Coke been inoculated with an opposition to despotism by the sudden application of the royal lancet, whose sharp edge his judicious self-love would never have provoked.

He owed much of his success in early life to his marriages. His first wife, who brought him fortune, bore him ten children and died. His memorandum-book feelingly describes her virtues; yet within four months the disconsolate widower had mated again, his second wife bringing him both wealth and valu-

able connection, and Bacon, her cousin, having been a rival suitor for her hand.

COLBERT, JEAN BAPTISTE, an eminent financial minister of Louis XIV. He was born at Rheims in 1617, and died in 1683, neglected by the monarch whose power his wise policy had so much helped to develop.

COLDEN, CADWALLADER, mathematician and philosopher, born at Dense, in Scotland, Feb. 17th, 1688; came to America, 1708, and settled in New York. From 1760 till his death he was lieutenant-governor of the province. He died Sept. 28th, 1776, the day of the conflagration of New York.

COLE, THOMAS, a distinguished painter, was born in England, during a visit of his parents there, and brought while a child to this country. From humble beginnings he rose to a high rank as a landscape and imaginative artist. He painted his best productions after returning from a visit to Italy, fixed his abode at Catskill amid the magnificent scenery of the Hudson, and died there much lamented in 1847.

COLERIDGE, SAMUEL TAYLOR, was a native of Devonshire, being born on the 20th of October, 1772, at Ottery St. Mary, of which place his father was vicar. He was educated at Christ's Hospital in London, where he had Charles Lamb for a schoolmate. He describes himself as being, from eight to fourteen, "a playless day-dreamer, a *helluo librorum*," and such he was forever. At fourteen he had a stock of erudition that might have puzzled a doctor, and a degree of ignorance of which a schoolboy would have been ashamed. He had no ambition, his father was dead, and he thought of apprenticing himself to a shoemaker near the school. Head-master Bowyer interposed; Coleridge became deputy-Grecian, or head scholar, and obtained a presentation from Christ's Hospital to Jesus' College, Cambridge, where he remained from 1791 to 1793. Then creditors obnoxious to him, and a love of the French revolution obnoxious to the ruling powers at Cambridge, led him to London and to enlist in the light-dragoons. On his arrival at the quarters of the regiment, the general of the district inspected the recruits, and looking hard at Coleridge, with a military air, inquired, "What's your name, sir?" "Comberbach." "What do you come here for,

sir?" as if very doubtful whether he had any business there. "Sir," said Coleridge, "for what most other persons come—to be made a soldier." "Do you think," said the general, "you can run a Frenchman through the body?" "I don't know," replied Coleridge, "as I never tried; but I'll let a Frenchman run me through the body before I'll run away." "That will do," said the general, and Coleridge was turned into the ranks. "Comberbach" made a poor dragoon, sticking in the awkward squad. He was the scribe for his comrades, and they cared for his horse and accoutrements. A Latin sentence that he wrote under his saddle on the stable wall, "*Eheu! quam infortunii miserimum est fuisse felicem*," awoke his captain's curiosity. He was discovered, discharged, and restored to his friends.

He became acquainted with Southey and Lloyd, and the trio occupied themselves at Bristol in planning a scheme for social perfection in the United States, the realization of which was prevented by a very prosaic social imperfection, the want of funds. They tried a better scheme, and married three sisters Fricker of Bristol. Coleridge was at this time an ardent republican and a strong Unitarian. Later in life, both his political faith and his religious were changed. He had become acquainted with Wordsworth, and went to reside at Stowey, in whose vicinity his new acquaintance was then dwelling. There he wrote some of his most beautiful poetry, "Ode on the Departing Year," the first part of "Christabel," the "Ancient Mariner," &c. In 1798, the munificence of the Messrs. Wedgewood enabled him to dwell and study fourteen months in Germany. On his return he went to reside with Southey and Wordsworth in the lake district. He won a precarious subsistence by literature. His habits were desultory, and he was under the thrall of opium, to whose fascinations he had been driven by illness. For the last nineteen years of his life he found an asylum and relief from the drug, with his friend Mr. Gillman, surgeon, at Highgate. There, friends clustered about him, eager listeners to the rich strains of poetry and philosophy that were born upon his lips. He died July 25th, 1834.

COLIGNY, GASPARD DE, admiral of France,

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born in 1516. He served with distinction under the gallant Francis I. and Henry II., by both of whom he was honored and rewarded. He was chief of the Calvinists against the Guises, to whom he continued formidable even after repeated defeats. Coligny was the first who fell in the atrocious massacre of St. Bartholomew's day, in 1572. His head was sent by Catharine of Medicis to the pope.

COLLINGWOOD, CUTHBERT, Baron, an English admiral, was born at Newcastle-upon-Tyne, in 1748. In 1761 he entered the naval service, in which he passed through all the regular steps of promotion, till he was made post-captain, 1794. He bore a part with Nelson, in the action off Cape St. Vincent, Feb. 14th, 1797. In 1804 he was made vice-admiral of the blue, and served with Cornwallis in the tedious but important blockade of Brest. At length, after many and various services, Collingwood became second to Nelson in the battle of Trafalgar. On this occasion, his ship, the *Royal Sovereign*, commenced the fight in such a manner as to draw from Nelson the expression, "Look at that noble fellow! observe the style in which he carries his ship into action!" By the loss of Nelson, the command devolved upon Collingwood at a critical period, and how well he secured by his prudence what had been so gloriously won, needs not here be related. He was now advanced to be vice-admiral of the red, confirmed in the command of the Mediterranean fleet, and created a peer of Great Britain, by the title of Baron Collingwood. He died off Minorca, March 7th, 1810; and his body was carried to England, and interred in St. Paul's.

COLLINS, WILLIAM, an interesting English poet, was the son of a hatter of Chichester, where he was born on Christmas day, 1720. After completing his college course, he published his *Oriental Eclogues*, and went to London in 1744. His ill fortunes having driven him to the bottle and nervous imbecility, he died in 1756.

COLLOT D'HERBOIS, JEAN MARIE, an actor who was hissed from the stage, made himself infamous during the French revolution by conducting the massacres at Lyons. He was banished to Cayenne after the fall of Robespierre, where in 1796 he died in horri-

ble yet fitting torment from drinking a bottle of brandy while ill with the yellow fever.

COLMAN, GEORGE, a dramatic writer, was born at Florence, where his father was English envoy, in 1733. He was a fine scholar and good comic dramatist. His death took place in 1794. His son, **GEORGE COLMAN** the younger, born Oct. 21st, 1762, was also the author of many comedies and farces, abounding in witty and ludicrous delineations of character, interspersed with bursts of tenderness and feeling. He died Oct. 26th, 1836.

COLUMBIA, DISTRICT OF. This tract, originally ten miles square, was ceded by Maryland and Virginia, to be occupied as the seat of the federal government. In 1846, the portion on the right bank of the Potomac, including the city of Alexandria, was retroceded to Virginia, so that the territory is now only half the original extent. The population in 1850 was 51,687. The government of the district is vested in Congress, the inhabitants having no voice in federal affairs. Washington, the capital of the United States, is situated on the left bank of the Potomac, and contained in 1850 40,000 inhabitants. Its natural situation is pleasant and healthy, and it is laid out on a plan, which, when completed, will render it one of the handsomest and most commodious cities in the world. The scale of this plan has given Washington the name of the 'city of magnificent distances.' Among the public edifices of the city are the capitol, the president's house, the general post-office, buildings for the executive departments, and the Smithsonian Institute. Washington became the seat of government in 1800. The city was founded by laying the corner-stone of the capitol, Sept. 18th, 1793. Washington was taken by the British under Gen. Ross, and the public buildings destroyed by a general conflagration, Aug. 24th, 1814. Part of the capitol, and the congressional library, were consumed by fire, Dec. 24th, 1851.

COLUMBUS, CHRISTOPHER, was a native of Genoa, born about 1435, of poor parents, who educated him with care. At the age of fourteen he went to sea, having evinced an early attachment to a sailor's life. Against the Mohammedans and Venetians he fought with great bravery and skill. Having conceived the design of a western passage to



CAPITOL AT WASHINGTON.

India, he for a long time sought for patronage without avail; but after struggling eighteen years, was at length aided by Ferdinand and Isabella, and sailed with three small vessels, the *Pinta*, *Nina*, and *Pinzon*, August 3d, 1492. Land was discovered on the 11th of October, which proved to be the island of Guanahani, named by Columbus, *St. Salvador*. Cuba was discovered on the 28th of October. Columbus was the first to announce his own discovery, and was received in Spain with signal favor. He was created a grandee of the realm, and loaded with other honors. Sept. 25th, 1493, he sailed from Cadiz, on his second voyage, with a fleet of seventeen sail. He built a town called *Isabella* on Hispaniola, but encountered many obstacles and difficulties in his new voyage of discovery. Meanwhile, that envy which never fails to pursue true merit stirred up clamors against Columbus, which were stifled, however, by his return to Spain in 1496, with valuable treasures. In 1498 he departed on his third voyage. Arrived in the new world, he found his enemies still exasperated against him, and they scrupled not to represent him to his sovereigns as endeavoring to make himself independent. Their stories were believed. Don Francisco de Bobadilla, was sent out by the court, and invested temporarily with the chief power, being permitted to use his own judgment in quelling the disturbances of the colonies. This person scrupled not to arrest Columbus and put him in irons, from which he would not suffer him-

self to be freed, when he was carried on board the vessel, which was to bear him to Spain. "No," said he, when the attendants offered to remove them; "the truth must be apparent, and my patrons are too noble, too generous, to overlook me. Then, if fortune again smiles upon me, these will serve as affecting memorials of sorrow past: I will not part with them, and I even wish that, when I am no more, they may be suspended over my sepulchre." In irons, he and his two brothers returned to Spain. There the honor and fidelity of Columbus became apparent, and he was nominally reinstated in his dignities. But the disposition of the sovereigns toward him was altered. Though Bobadilla was recalled, Columbus in vain supplicated to be restored to his government; he was put off by vague promises, and the post finally given to Don Nicholas Ovando, a practical as well as accomplished man. Thus, after three momentous voyages, and the acquisition of much fame, he found himself displaced; thwarted in a point in which he conceived his honor concerned, and his hard-earned authority torn from his possession. Columbus now sought only to obtain the fulfillment of the royal promises with regard to the furtherance of his expedition, imagining that the continent he had discovered was Asia, and hoping to find a way to the East Indies by the isthmus of Darien. With four small caravels, the largest being but of seventy tons burthen, he set out on his fourth voyage of discovery. Leaving

Cadiz on the 9th of May, 1502, he reached Martinique June 15th. Having touched at Cuba, he pursued a south-westerly course, until he reached Guanaja, an island on the coast of Honduras, whose inhabitants had attained a pretty high degree of civilization. Their persons were covered with cotton garments, dyed with a variety of bright and pleasing colors. He mentions a curious occurrence as taking place here. He had been presented, among other animals, with a peccary, or American pig, and one of those monkeys with prehensile tails, indigenous to America. The peccary being thrown in the way of the monkey, the latter, by a dexterous use of its tail, confined the jaws of the pig in such a manner as to expose it helplessly to the action of the monkey's claws. "This appeared to me so strange," Columbus writes to his patrons, "that I thought fit to write it down for the information of your majesties."

The admiral, in his endeavors to discover a strait leading to the Pacific Ocean, encountered great hardships and fatigues, which had a baneful influence upon his health, and was finally shipwrecked. Ovando was himself averse to succoring Columbus, after a messenger had acquainted him with the peril of his situation; but the people of Hispaniola were so well disposed toward the admiral, that, for the sake of maintaining his own reputation, he was forced to send him relief. Columbus, arrived at St. Domingo, met with a reception such as to banish, for a brief space, the remembrance of his sufferings; but his bodily weakness could not be disguised. When sufficiently recovered, he set sail for Spain, arriving there on the 7th day of November, 1504.

The services of this distinguished man were indeed important. In his third voyage he had discovered the continent of America; in his last, had received intelligence of the immense wealth of Mexico, which was destined to increase, to an enormous extent, the revenue of Spain. Columbus vainly looked for the reward of his services; he had stipulated that certain dignities and an income should be his, but he found himself in hopeless indigence. His kind patroness, the queen, was no more, and her husband, stern and selfish, disregarded the claims of the enterprising navigator. He evaded the request of Colum-

bus to be restored to the vice-royalty of which he had been deprived, and repeated disappointments, in connexion with his bodily infirmities, hastened the death of the latter, which took place at Valladolid, on the 20th of May, 1506. His remains were afterward removed to the cathedral of Havana in Cuba.

Columbus was a man of great and inventive genius. The operations of his mind were energetic, but irregular; bursting forth, at times, with that irresistible force which characterizes intellects of such an order. His ambition was lofty and noble, inspiring him with high thoughts, and an anxiety to distinguish himself by great achievements. He aimed at dignity and wealth in the same elevated spirit with which he sought renown; they were to rise from the territories he should discover, and be commensurate in importance. The vast gains that he anticipated from his discoveries, he intended to appropriate to princely purposes; to institutions for the relief of the poor of his native city, to the foundation of churches, and above all, to crusades for the recovery of the holy sepulchre. He was tenacious of his rank and privileges, not from a mere vulgar love of titles, but because he prized them as testimonials and trophies of his illustrious deeds. Every question of compromise concerning them he repulsed with disdain. "These things," said he, nobly, "concern my honor." In his testament, he enjoined on his son Diego, and whoever after him should inherit his estates, whatever other titles might be granted by the king, always to sign himself simply "The Admiral," by way of perpetuating in the family the source of its real greatness. He was naturally irritable and impetuous, and keenly sensible to injury and injustice; yet the quickness of his temper was counteracted by the benevolence and generosity of his heart. The magnanimity of his nature shone forth through all the troubles of his stormy career.

COMETS. The first comet that was discovered and described accurately was by Nicephorus. At the birth of the great Mithridates, 135 B.C., two large comets appeared, which were seen for seventy-two days together, whose splendor eclipsed that of the noonday sun, and which occupied forty-five degrees, or a fourth part of the heavens. The

appearance of comets was supposed to be the forerunner of wars, famine, pestilence, the deaths of great men, earthquakes, inundations, and other calamities. The splendid comet of 1456 was believed by Pope Calixtus to be at once the sign and instrument of divine wrath, and the affrighted pontiff ordered public prayers to be raised in every town, and the bells to be tolled at the noon of each day, to warn the people to supplicate the divine mercy. He at the same time communicated both the comet and the Turks, whose arms had lately proved victorious over the Christians. In more modern times certain natural effects have been vulgarly attributed to the influence of comets; such as tempests, hurricanes, volcanic eruptions, cold or hot seasons, floods, the dysentery, the plague, the cholera, and other disorders. Much alarm has also prevailed at times from fear that a comet might jostle the earth into destruction. Tycho Brahe was the first to rationally explain the phenomena of comets, about 1577. Newton discovered that their orbits are ellipses. A most brilliant comet, moving with immense swiftness, appeared in 1769; it passed within two million miles of the earth. Behind its nucleus a vast stream of light, thirty-six millions of miles in length, stretched across the heavens, a prodigious luminous arch. A comet still more brilliant appeared in 1811, and was visible to the naked eye all the autumn. Herschel computed the length of its tail at a hundred millions of miles! Halley was the first to fix the identity of comets, and predict their periodical return. He demonstrated that the comet of 1682 was that which was seen in 1456, 1531, and 1607. The revolution of Halley's comet is accomplished in about seventy-six years; it appeared in 1759 and 1835. The comet of 1680, which terrified the world by its near approach, is supposed to have a period of five hundred and seventy-five years, and to be the same that appeared in 1106, in 531, and in 44 B.C.

COMMODUS ANTONINUS, LUCIUS ÆLIUS AURELIUS, Emperor of Rome, son of Marcus Aurelius, was born A.D. 161. At sixteen years of age he was associated with his father in the government, and in 180 ascended the throne. He surpassed in profligacy and cruelty all his wicked predecessors. He maimed

and disemboweled his subjects for pleasure. From his great strength, he bore a striking resemblance to the statues of Hercules, in the dress of whom he appeared. He debauched his own sisters, and mixed with the vilest and most degraded of the human race. Having exhausted the treasury by his extravagance, he replenished it by imposing enormous taxes on the people. Habited like a slave, he drove his own chariot, and fought as a gladiator, 735 times. He was poisoned by his favorite mistress, Martia, in 192.

COMPASS, MARINER'S. The date of one of the greatest of human discoveries is uncertain, and there are as great discrepancies in the accounts of its origin. Some have supposed it to have been known to the Chinese in the remotest ages. Marcus Paulus, a Venetian, is said to have discovered it A.D. 1260. By others it is claimed it was in use in Europe as early as 1180. Roger Bacon (1294) is said to have known the polarity of the loadstone; it was known in Norway previous to 1266; and it is mentioned in a French poem of 1150. Until the time of Flavio Gioja, a Neapolitan mariner, the needle was laid upon a couple of pieces of straw, or small splinters, in a vessel of water; he suspended it on a point, as we now have it. Columbus noticed the variation of the compass, in 1492; the dip of the needle was discovered in 1576.

COMTE, AUGUSTE, a celebrated French thinker, and the founder of the Positive philosophy, was born in 1797, and died in 1857.

CONCORD, a village of Massachusetts, twenty miles north-west of Boston. At Concord and Lexington the first armed resistance was made to the troops of Great Britain, April 19th, 1775. [See LEXINGTON.]

CONDE, LOUIS DE BOURBON, Prince of, was the son of Charles of Bourbon, Duke of Vendome, and was born in 1530. He signalized himself at the battle of St. Quintin, and became leader of the discontented Huguenots. He was wounded at the battle of Dreux, in 1562, and slain in that of Jarnac, in 1569.

CONDE, LOUIS, Prince of, commonly called the Great, was born at Paris in 1621. At the age of twenty-two he gained the battle of Rocroi against the Spaniards, and captured Thionville and other places. He next entered Germany, where he gained innumerable laurels. Being recalled thence, he was sent into

Catalonia, but failed in his attempt to take Lerida. In 1648, he defeated the Imperialists in Flanders with prodigious slaughter. In the civil war Condé at first adhered to the court, but afterward opposed it without success. He refused to accede to the peace, and entered into the service of the Spaniards in the Low Countries, where his military exploits were uncommonly splendid. At the peace of the Pyrenees, in 1659, he obtained his pardon, and served his country with his wonted activity and success. He contended with the Prince of Orange in the Netherlands, and was wounded in the memorable passage of the Rhine. The conquest of Franche Compté was also chiefly owing to him. After the death of Turenne, he carried on the war against Germany with advantage. He died in 1687 at Fontainebleau.

CONDILLAC, ETIENNE BONNET DE, a French metaphysician, died in 1780, aged sixty-five.

CONDORCET, MARIE JEAN ANTOINE, Marquis de Caritat, an eloquent man, a good mathematician, an earnest political writer among the Girondins, and a victim of the reign of terror. Born in Picardy in 1743, in 1794 he poisoned himself in prison to avoid the guillotine.

CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE. In 1806, Napoleon, determined that there should not exist, on the continent, any power capable of opposing his designs, contrived to dismember the German empire, and induce the emperor to abandon his title of Emperor of Germany. In pursuance of these views, a new union was formed by several of the German princes, under the name of the Confederation of the Rhine. The Kings of Bavaria and Wirtemberg, the Elector of Baden, the Duke of Berg, the Landgrave of Hesse Darmstadt, and others, published at Ratisbon a declaration, that as the Germanic constitution then existing could afford no guarantee for the public tranquillity, the contracting parties had agreed, that their states should be forever separated from the Germanic body, and united by a particular confederation, under the title of "The Confederate States," of which the Emperor of the French was constituted the head and protector. The treaty of confederation was projected and drawn up at Paris, and ratified at Munich, on the 25th of July, 1806: it contained forty articles relative to

the territories which each of the contracting parties was to possess, and other important particulars. Every continental war, in which either France or any of the confederate states should be engaged, was to be common to all; the contingent to be furnished by each of the members, was determined in the following proportion: France, 200,000 men, Bavaria 30,000, Wirtemberg 12,000, Baden 8,000, Berg 5,000, Darmstadt 4,000, Nassau and the other states 4,000. By this confederation, the Germanic body was completely dissolved, and a very considerable part of its members ranged themselves under the banners of France. Francis II., in consequence of this organization, resigned his title of Emperor of Germany, and took that of Emperor of Austria. Thus was dissolved the German, or as it was styled in diplomatic language, the Holy Roman Empire, 1006 years after Charlemagne received the imperial title and crown from the hands of the pope. [See GERMANY.]

CONFUCIUS, the celebrated Chinese philosopher, lived about 550 B.C.

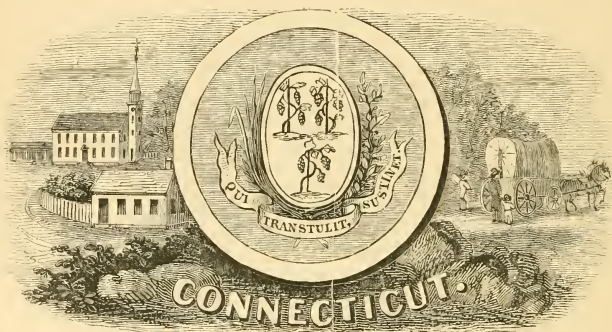
CONGO, a kingdom of Africa, in Lower Guinea, which is under the sway of the Portuguese. It is rich and fertile. It was discovered in 1484 by Diego Cam, a Portuguese. The native government is despotic.

CONGRESS, CONTINENTAL. The first met in Philadelphia, Sept. 5th, 1774; Oct. 8th, resolve to support Massachusetts. Second congress assembled May 10th, 1775, in Philadelphia; June 7th, style the colonies "The Twelve United Colonies," Georgia not having yet acceded to the Union; June 22d, 1775, appoint eight major-generals; May 5th, 1776, declare the authority of England abolished; July 4th, declare independence; Dec. 12th, 1776, adjourn from Philadelphia to meet at Baltimore; 30th, resolve to send commissioners to Prussia, Austria, Spain, &c.; Sept. 18th, 1777, on the approach of the British army toward Philadelphia, adjourn to meet in Lancaster, whence they again adjourn on the 30th of the same month to meet in Little York; meet again in Philadelphia, July 2d, 1778. Sept. 14th, 1778, appoint Benjamin Franklin minister to France, the first regularly constituted ambassador from the United States, the former foreign agents being styled commissioners; Oct. 4th, 1782, resolve against a separate peace; June 26th, 1783, adjourn to

Princeton, and thence to Annapolis, where they meet November 26th; Nov. 1st, 1784, meet at Trenton, N. J.; Jan. 11th, 1785, at New York, which continued to be the place of meeting till the adoption of the federal constitution. From 1781 to 1788, Congress met annually on the first Monday in November, pursuant to the articles of confederation. April 1st, 1789, Congress first assembled under the federal constitution; Sept. 22d, 1790, pass an act to remove to Washington city in 1800.

CONGREVE, WILLIAM, a celebrated English dramatist and poet, born in 1672, died in 1729. His plays are replete with wit and

glitter, but are blemished by a lack of morality. The dramatist was an intimate friend of the Duchess of Marlborough (daughter of the great duke), and left her the bulk of his fortune, about £10,000. She honored him with a stately funeral, and converted the bequest into a superb diamond necklace, which she wore in his honor. It is said that she had a statue of him in ivory, moved by clockwork, and placed daily at her table; that she had a wax doll made in imitation of him, and that the feet of this doll were regularly blistered and anointed by the doctors, as poor Congreve's feet had been when he suffered from the gout.



CONNECTICUT, one of the New England states, has an area of 4,674 square miles. Population in 1860, 4601,47. The surface is for the most part hilly, but nowhere mountainous. The state is well watered, mostly by small streams, which are sources of important power for manufactures. The Connecticut, which passes through nearly the centre of the state from north to south, is navigable as far as Hartford. The Thames in the east, and the Housatonic in the west, are the other largest streams. The soil is generally productive, but not highly fertile, and in general is more suited for grazing than tillage. Along the river valleys, however, fine rich meadows lie. Connecticut does better in manufacturing than in agriculture. Her clocks, her pistols, her rifles, her axes, her gunpowder, and her rubber goods find a market throughout the world; while along her streams, and

in her busy villages, are myriads of establishments, in which other ingenious wares and fabrics are wrought by industrious and prosperous artisans.

The present constitution was adopted in 1818, till which time the charter granted by Charles II., in 1662, was the basis of the government. All state officers, and the members of both branches of the legislature, are elected annually by the people. The legislature convenes at Hartford and New Haven in alternate Mays. Every white male citizen, who has gained a settlement in the state, attained the age of twenty-one years, resided in the town six months, has a good moral character, and can read the constitution of the state, shall, upon taking the oath prescribed, be an elector.

The judicial power is vested in a supreme court of errors and a superior court. The

former consists of a chief-justice and two associates; the latter has six judges; all chosen by the legislature for terms of eight years. This commonwealth has long been eminent for the attention given to education. The school fund, arising from lands originally held by the state in Ohio, had in March, 1858, a capital of \$2,046,397.32. To the revenue from this source, the towns add largely by taxation. A normal school for the instruction of teachers, and a reform school for juvenile delinquents, are maintained by the state. Yale College at New Haven is among the best and most ancient universities of the country. The American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb at Hartford, was the first institution of the kind on this continent.

The towns of Windsor, Hartford, and Wethersfield were settled in 1635 and 1636 by emigrants from the Massachusetts colony. It was in the following year that the Pequots were extirpated. The emigrants had at first considered themselves under the jurisdiction of the parent colony at Boston Bay, but on the 14th of January, 1639, the planters convened at Hartford, and decided for a distinct commonwealth. The instrument adopted upon this occasion is the earliest precedent of a written constitution, proceeding from a people, and in their name establishing and defining a government, and is the germ of the free representative plan which now distinguishes our country in the eyes of the world. So wisely did Ludlow, Haynes and Hooker lay the foundations, that the people of Connecticut have found no necessity for any fundamental change in the polity which the fathers ordained. The colony of New Haven had been founded in 1637 by Eaton, Hopkins, Davenport, and others. By the charter granted by Charles II. in 1662, the two colonies of Hartford and New Haven were united. This was the instrument afterward hidden in the Charter Oak from the clutch of Andros. Curiously enough for a document coming from a Stuart, it sanctioned the democracy which the quiet independence of the colonists had framed for themselves a quarter of a century before. The commonwealth suffered under King Philip's war, sustained its due burden in the wars against the French in America, and yet grew, in strength, and wealth, and numbers, till the contest for

independence came. Only one of the thirteen colonies contributed a larger quota of men to the patriot army during that struggle. Her venerable governor during this crisis, the patriotic Trumbull, the original 'Brother Jonathan,' was one of Washington's chief supports. Irving says: "There could be no surer reliance for aid in time of danger than the patriotism of Governor Trumbull; nor were there men more ready to obey a sudden appeal to arms than the yeomanry of Connecticut; however much their hearts might subsequently yearn toward the farms and firesides they had so promptly abandoned. No portion of the Union was more severely tasked, throughout the Revolution, for military service; and Washington avowed, when the great struggle was over, that 'if all the states had done their duty as well as the little state of Connecticut, the war would have been ended long ago.'"

Connecticut is divided into eight counties. The city of Hartford is on the west bank of the Connecticut River, fifty miles from its mouth. It is a handsome town, prosperous in its trade and manufactures, and has a population of 25,000. New Haven, the sister capital, is at the head of a small bay opening upon Long Island Sound, and has 30,000 inhabitants. The many and noble trees that adorn its ways have gained it the name of the Elm City. Other prominent towns of Connecticut are Norwich, New London, Bridgeport, and Middletown.

CONSPIRACIES AND INSURRECTIONS, the most remarkable in ancient or modern history. A conspiracy was formed against the infant republic of Rome, to restore the banished Sextus Tarquin, and the regal government, in which the two sons of Junius Brutus, the first consul, being concerned, were publicly condemned and put to death by their father, 507 B.C. Another by the Tarquin faction against the Roman senators; Publius and Marcus discover it; the other conspirators are put to death, 496 B.C. Of Cataline and his associates, to murder the consuls and senate, and to burn the city of Rome, detected by Cicero, 63 B.C. An insurrection in Spain cost the lives of 30,000 Spaniards, and double that number of Moors, A.D. 1560. At Malta, to destroy the knights, for which 125 slaves suffered death, June 26th, 1749. At Lisbon,

by several of the nobility, who shot the king, 1758. At St. Domingo and the other French West India Islands, where near 16,000 negroes were slain, and 400 whites, and 550 plantations destroyed, 1794. Of Moreau, Pichegru, and Cadoudal against Bonaparte, Feb. 15th, 1804. Of the Prince of Asturias against his father, 1807. Of the inhabitants of Madrid against the French, in which many persons were killed, 1808. In Paris, for which the conspirators, three ex-generals and eleven officers were executed, October 30th, 1812. At Travencore, to massacre the European officers at an entertainment, 1812. At Lisbon to overturn the Portuguese government, May, 1817.

Conspiracies and insurrections in England. Of the barons against Henry III. for canceling Magna Charta, 1258. Of the Duke of Exeter and officers, against the life of Henry IV., discovered by dropping a paper accidentally, 1400. Of Richard, Duke of Gloucester, against his nephews, Edward V. and his brother, whom he caused to be murdered, 1483. Of the Earl of Suffolk and others against Henry VII., 1506. Insurrection of the London apprentices, 1515. Against Queen Elizabeth, by Dr. Story, 1571; by Anthony Babington and others, in behalf of Mary of Scotland, 1586; by Lopez, a Jew, and others, 1593; by Patrick York, an Irish fencing-master, employed by the Spaniards to kill the queen, 1594; of Walpole, a Jesuit, who engaged one Squire to poison the queen's saddle, 1598; all the conspirators were executed. Against James I., by the Marchioness de Verneuil, his mistress, and others, 1604. The Gunpowder plot discovered, Nov. 5th, 1605. Of Sindercomb and others to assassinate Oliver Cromwell; discovered by his associates; Sindercomb was condemned, and poisoned himself the day before he was to have been executed, 1656. An insurrection of the Puritans, 1657. An insurrection of the fifth-monarchy men against Charles II., 1660. A conspiracy of Blood and his associates, who seized the Duke of Ormond, wounded him, and would have hanged him if he had not escaped; they afterward stole the crown, 1670 and 1671. The pretended plot of the French, Spanish, and English Jesuits, countenanced by the pope, to assassinate Charles II., discovered by Dr. Tongue

and the infamous Titus Oates, 1678; another to assassinate him at the Rye-house farm, near Hoddesdon, Hertfordshire, in his way from Newmarket, called the Rye-house plot, 1683. Of Lord Preston, the Bishop of Ely, and others to restore King James, 1691. Of Granvil, a French chevalier and his associates, to assassinate King William in Flanders, 1692. A conspiracy by the Earl of Aylesbury and others, to kill the king near Richmond, as he came from hunting, discovered by Pendergrass, called the Assassination plot, 1696. Of Simon Fraser, Lord Lovat, in favor of the Pretender, against Queen Anne, 1703. Of the Marquis Guiscard, 1710. To assassinate George I. by James Sheppard, an enthusiastic youth, who had been taught to consider the king as an usurper, 1718. Of Laver and others to bring in the Pretender, 1722. Of Col. Despard and his associates to assassinate George III. and overturn the government, 1802. Of Robert Emmet in Dublin, 1803. Of Thistlewood and a gang of desperate politicians, commonly called the Cato Street conspiracy, 1820.

(For SOUTHERN REBELLION, see the Chronology, end of this work.)

CONSTANTINE THE GREAT, son of the Emperor Constantius Chlorus, by Helena, was born at York, about the year 274. On the death of his father, in 306, he was proclaimed emperor by the army. He defeated the Franks, after which he crossed the Rhine, and committed great ravages in Belgium. Constantine married Fausta, the daughter of Maximian, in 306. His father-in-law, taking advantage of his absence from Arles, where he held his court, seized the treasury, and assumed the imperial title, but being taken prisoner by Constantine, strangled himself. A war now broke out between Constantine and Maxentius, the son of Maximian; the former reduced Italy, and defeated Maxentius, who was drowned in the Tiber. At this period the era of Constantine's conversion to Christianity is fixed. As he was riding at the head of his troops, an immense cross of exceeding brightness is said to have appeared above the horizon, bearing the inscription, "In this conquer." Constantine was no longer an infidel. He now entered Rome in triumph, and received from the senate the title of Augustus, in conjunction with Licin-

ius and Maximin, the former of whom married his sister, Constantia. A civil war shortly broke out between Licinius and Maximin, in which the latter was slain. Licinius then formed a conspiracy against Constantine, which being discovered, war ensued between them, in which Constantine was successful, and peace was concluded. A second war broke out in 323, and terminated in the defeat of Licinius, and his resignation of the imperial dignity. Not long afterward he was strangled. Constantine now began to show his regard for the religion he had adopted, by destroying the heathen temples, building numerous churches, and journeying to Jerusalem to visit the Holy Land, where he erected a magnificent church at Bethlehem. With this zeal for religion he blended courage and justice. He conquered the Goths, founded Constantinople, removing the seat of empire thither, and performed many actions that entitle him to the name of Great. But he sullied his character by putting to death his son Crispus. He died in 337.

CONSTANTINOPLE, called by the Turks Stamboul, is situated on the European side of the Bosphorus. Its circuit, including the suburbs, is about thirty-five miles, and the number of inhabitants, by the most moderate computation, 630,000 Greeks, Armenians, Jews, and Turks. It was built upon the ruins of the ancient Byzantium by Constantine the Great. It became afterward the capital of the Greek empire; and, having escaped the destructive rage of the barbarous nations, it was the greatest as well as the most beautiful city in Europe, and the only one, during the Gothic ages, in which there remained any image of the ancient elegance in manners and arts. It derived great advantages from its being the rendezvous of the crusaders; and, being then in the zenith of its glory, the European writers, in that age, speak of it with astonishment. During the third crusade, a revolution happened at Constantinople, which divided the eastern empire for fifty-eight years. Alexius Angelus, surnamed the tyrant, having dethroned Isaac II., placed himself upon the throne of Constantinople, in 1195; and Alexius, the son of Isaac, applied to the French and Venetians, who passed that way to the Holy Wars, to assist him in the recovery of his father's em-

pire. They accordingly, in 1203, reduced Constantinople, after a siege of eight days, and replaced Isaac on the throne. The next year, Alexius Dacus Murzoufle assassinated the emperor, whom the crusaders had re-established, and seized the crown. On hearing this, the French returned, attacked the city, reduced it in three days, deposed Murzoufle, and chose Baldwin, Count of Flanders, emperor.

He had four successors, the last of whom, Baldwin II., was deposed in 1262, by Michael Paleologus. In the mean time Theodore Lascaris, who had been charged by the clergy to take arms against the tyrant Murzoufle, finding Constantinople in the power of the French, retired with his wife and family to Nice, where, in 1204, he was crowned emperor, and formed a small empire out of that of Constantinople. He had but three successors, the last of whom, John Ducas, was deprived of his sight in 1255 by order of Michael Paleologus, his preceptor, who usurped the throne in 1259, and in 1262 made himself master of Constantinople, so that the empire was reunited. It continued till 1453, when Constantinople was taken by Mohammed II., sultan of the Ottoman Turks; since which it has remained the seat of their empire.

Constantinople is at this day one of the finest cities in the world, from its situation and port. It is frequently called the *Porte* by way of eminence. The city has met with many disasters from convulsions, earthquakes, and the plague.

CONSTITUTION, THE ENGLISH, which owes its foundation to the era of the conquest, has been made the model of most of the constitutions enjoyed by republican states. The Bill of Rights, which was the basis of the English constitution, was passed in the time of the revolution, and contained the following provisions: 1. The pretended power of suspending laws, or the execution of laws by regal authority, without the consent of parliament, is illegal. 2. That the pretended power of dispensing with laws, or the execution of laws by regal authority, as it hath been assumed and exercised of late, is illegal. 3. That the commission for erecting the late court of commissioners for ecclesiastical causes, and all other commissions and courts of like nature, are illegal and pernicious.

cious. 4. That levying money for, or to the use of the crown, by pretense of prerogative, without grant of parliament, for longer time, or in all other manner than the same is, and shall be granted, is illegal. 5. That it is the right of the subjects to petition the king, and that all commitments and prosecutions for such petitioning, are illegal. 6. That the raising or keeping a standing army within the kingdom in time of peace, unless it be with consent of parliament, is against law. 7. That the subjects which are Protestants, may have arms for their defense, suitable for their conditions, and as allowed by law. 8. That election of members of parliament ought to be free. 9. That freedom of speech, and debates or proceedings in parliament, ought not to be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of parliament. 10. That excessive bail ought not to be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted. 11. That jurors ought to be duly empaneled and returned; and that jurors which pass upon men in trials for high treason, ought to be freeholders. 12. That all grants and promises of fines and forfeitures of particular persons, before conviction, are illegal and void. 13. And that for the redress of all grievances, and for the amending, strengthening, and preserving of laws, parliaments ought to be held frequently.

The English constitution comprehends the whole body of laws by which the British people are governed, and to which it is presumptively held that every individual has assented.—*Lord Somers*. This assemblage of laws is distinguished from the term government in this respect—that the constitution is the rule by which the sovereign ought to govern at all times, and government is that by which he does govern at any particular time.—*Lord Bolingbroke*. The king of England is not seated on a solitary eminence of power; on the contrary, he sees his equals in the co-existing branches of the legislature, and he recognizes his superior in the law.—*Sheridan*. The beautiful pile of the British constitution is the work of ages; the production of a happy concurrence and succession of circumstances, growing by degrees, and accommodating itself, in accordance with its

growth, to the tempers and manners, the customs and character of the British people.—*Montesquieu*.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES, *as proposed to the convention held at Philadelphia, 17th September, 1787, and since ratified by the several states with amendments*.

We the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I. *Section 1*. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a congress of the United States, which shall consist of a senate and house of representatives.

Sec. 2. The house of representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several states, and the electors in each state shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the state legislature.

No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state in which he shall be chosen.

Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several states which may be included within this union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each state shall have at least one representative.

When vacancies happen in the representation from any state, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

The house of representatives shall choose their speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

Sec. 3. The senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each state, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year; so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any state, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state for which he shall be chosen.

The vice-president of the United States shall be president of the senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

The senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president *pro tempore*, in the absence of the vice-president, or when he shall exercise the office of president of the United States.

The senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the president of the United States is tried, the chief justice shall preside: and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust or profit under the United States: but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment and punishment, according to law.

Sec. 4. The times, places and manner of

holding elections for senators and representatives, shall be prescribed in each state by the legislature thereof; but the congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

The congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

Sec. 5. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties as each house may provide.

Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

Neither house, during the session of congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

Sec. 6. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to or returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the United

States, shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

Sec. 7. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the house of representatives; but the senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

Every bill which shall have passed the house of representatives and the senate, shall, before it become a law, be presented to the president of the United States; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his objections to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays; and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill, shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the president within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the senate and house of representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the president of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the senate and house of representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

Sec. 8. The congress shall have power—To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

To regulate commerce with foreign nations,

and among the several states, and with the Indian tribes;

To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

To establish post-offices and post-roads;

To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

To constitute tribunals inferior to the supreme court;

To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations;

To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

To provide and maintain a navy;

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions;

To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining, the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the states respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by congress;

To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular states, and the acceptance of congress, become the seat of the government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the state in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings;—and

To make all laws which shall be necessary

and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

Sec. 9. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the states now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

No bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed.

No capitation, or other direct, tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any state.

No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one state over those of another: nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one state, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States: and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

Sec. 10. No state shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

No state shall, without the consent of the congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts,

laid by any state on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the congress. No state shall, without the consent of congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another state, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless, actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II. *Section 1.* The executive power shall be vested in a president of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the vice-president, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

Each state shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the state may be entitled in the congress: but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector. [*The electors shall meet in their respective states, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the senate. The president of the senate shall, in the presence of the senate and house of representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the house of representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for president; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said house shall in like manner choose the president. But in choosing the president, the votes shall be taken by states, the representation from each state having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall*

be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the president, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the vice-president. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the senate shall choose from them by ballot the vice-president.] [See 12th Amendment.

The congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

No person except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States, at the time of the adoption of this constitution, shall be eligible to the office of president; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

In the case of the removal of the president from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the vice-president; and the congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the president and vice-president, declaring what officer shall then act as president; and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a president shall be elected.

The president shall, at stated times, receive for his services, a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:—

“I do solemnly swear [or affirm] that I will faithfully execute the office of president of the United States, and will to the best of my ability, preserve, protect and defend the constitution of the United States.”

Sec. 2. The president shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several states, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject

relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the supreme court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law: but the congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the president alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

The president shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

Sec. 3. He shall from time to time give to the congress information of the state of the union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them; and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

Sec. 4. The president, vice-president and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III. *Section 1.* The judicial power of the United States, shall be vested in one supreme court, and in such inferior courts as the congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the supreme and inferior court, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services, a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

Sec. 2. The judicial power shall extend to

all cases, in law and equity, arising under this constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority;—to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls;—to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction;—to controversies to which the United States shall be a party;—to controversies between two or more states;—*[between a state and citizens of another state]*;—between citizens of different states,—between citizens of the same state claiming lands under grants of different states, and between a state, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens or subjects.

In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a state shall be party, the supreme court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the supreme court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations as the congress shall make.

The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the state where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any state, the trial shall be at such place or places as the congress may by law have directed.

Sec. 3. Treason against the United States, shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

The congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV. Section 1. Full faith and credit shall be given in each state to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other state. And the congress may by general laws prescribe the manner in which such acts, records and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

Sec. 2. The citizens of each state shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several states.

A person charged in any state with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another state, shall on demand of the executive authority of the state from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the state having jurisdiction of the crime.

No person held to service or labor in one state, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

Sec. 3. New states may be admitted by the congress into this union; but no new state shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other state; nor any state be formed by the junction of two or more states, or parts of states, without the consent of the legislature of the states concerned as well as of the congress.

The congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular state.

Sec. 4. The United States shall guarantee to every state in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and on application of the legislature, or of the executive (when the legislature can not be convened) against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V. The congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two-thirds of the several states, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three-fourths of the several states, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the congress; provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first arti-

cle; and that no state, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the senate.

ARTICLE VI. All debts contracted and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this constitution, as under the confederation.

This constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every state shall be bound thereby, anything in the constitution or laws of any state to the contrary notwithstanding.

The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several state legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several states, shall be bound by oath or affirmation, to support this constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII. The ratification of the conventions of nine states, shall be sufficient for the establishment of this constitution between the states so ratifying the same.

AMENDMENTS. *Article the first.* Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

Article the second. A well-regulated militia, being necessary to the security of a free state, the right of the people to keep and bear arms, shall not be infringed.

Article the third. No soldier shall, in time of peace be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

Article the fourth. The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be

searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

Article the fifth. No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

Article the sixth. In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the state and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

Article the seventh. In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

Article the eighth. Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

Article the ninth. The enumeration in the constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

Article the tenth. The powers not delegated to the United States by the constitution, nor prohibited by it to the states, are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people.

Article the eleventh. The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another state,

or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

Article the twelfth. The electors shall meet in their respective states, and vote by ballot, for president and vice-president, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as president, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as vice-president; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as president, and of all persons voted for as vice-president, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the senate;—The president of the senate shall, in the presence of the senate and house of representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted;—The person having the greatest number of votes for president, shall be the president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as president, the house of representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the president. But in choosing the president, the votes shall be taken by states, the representation from each state having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. And if the house of representatives shall not choose a president whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the vice-president shall act as president, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the president.

The person having the greatest number of votes as vice-president, shall be the vice-president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed, and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the senate shall choose the vice-president: a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice.

But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of president shall be eligible to that of vice-president of the United States.

Article the Thirteenth, Section 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist in the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

Sec. 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this by appropriate legislation.

CONSULS. These officials were appointed at Rome, 509 B. C. They possessed regal authority for the space of a year. At first they were both patricians, but in the year 588 B. C. the people obtained the privilege of choosing one from their own number, and sometimes both were plebeians. A consular government was set up in France, Nov. 9th, 1799, when Bonaparte, Cambacères, and Lebrun were made consuls. Bonaparte was created first consul for life, May 6th, 1802.

CONTI, ARMAND DE BOURBON first an ecclesiastic, then a soldier, opposed his brother the great Condé. After being successively governor of Guienne, general of the armies in Catalonia, and governor of Languedoc, he died in 1666.

CONTRERAS. In this engagement, fought early in the morning of the 20th of August, 1847, a part of Scott's army commanded by Gen. Persifer F. Smith, stormed Gen. Valencia's intrenched camp. More than a thousand prisoners were captured, and some fifteen hundred Mexicans killed and wounded. The American loss in killed, wounded and missing was about one hundred. The battle of Cherubusco was fought later in the same day.

COOK, JAMES, a famous English navigator, born in Yorkshire, in 1728, early went to sea. He was employed in several important services, and explored the South Sea Islands in 1769. From New Zealand he sailed to New Holland, New Guinea, and Batavia, returning home in 1771. His next voyage to the southern hemisphere was commenced in 1772, in two ships, the *Resolution* and *Adventure*. On this voyage Cook discovered the island of New Georgia, and returning, July 30th, 1775, was well received and rewarded for his services. In July, 1776, he sailed to determine the long agitated question of a northwest passage to the Pacific

Ocean, but the attempt was abandoned as impracticable, and the Resolution and Discovery anchored at the Sandwich Islands, on their return, Nov. 26th, 1778. Their reception was at first favorable, but when Cook went on shore to seize the king of Owhyhee, with the intention of keeping him as a hostage, till one of the English boats stolen by the savages was restored, he was attacked by the natives, one of whom felled him by a club, and then dispatched him with a dagger. This event occurred on the 14th of February, 1779.

COOPER, SIR ASTLEY PASTON, an eminent English surgeon, born in 1768, died in 1841.

COOPER, JAMES FENIMORE, a distinguished American novelist, died at Cooperstown, N. Y., Sept. 14th, 1851. He was born at Burlington, N. J., Sept. 15th, 1789; his father being a judge of some distinction, and a large landholder in Otsego county. After graduating at Yale College, he entered the navy as a midshipman in 1805. In 1810, he left the service, married, soon settled at Cooperstown, and commenced his brilliant career in fiction, publishing the series of tales of early American life which won him such enviable distinction. In 1826, he visited Europe, everywhere meeting with a most cordial reception. During his stay of several years abroad, he wrote several of his best sea stories. Some of his later works, after his return home, embodied political opinions and strictures upon the faults of American life and character, which subjected him for some years to a warm and bitter hostility.

COPERNICUS, NICOLAS, the illustrious astronomer, was born at Thorn in Prussia, Feb. 19th, 1473. Till his time the Ptolemaic theory, which made the earth the centre of the planetary system and of the universe, had been implicitly believed. Contrary teaching was afterward denounced as not only a heresy in science but in religion, and a contempt of Scripture. The astronomical studies of Copernicus convinced him of the earth's annual motion and the sun's immobility as the centre of our solar system. Dreading the prejudices of the world, he long delayed the publication of his theory. A printed copy of the work in which he embodied it was only placed in his hands a few hours before his death, which occurred May 22d, 1543.

COPLEY, JOHN SINGLETON, a self-taught painter, a native of Boston, where he was born in 1738. He went to England in 1776, where he met with great encouragement, and died in London in 1815. The painting of the death of Lord Chatham in the House of Lords, after his immortal speech in favor of America, was one of his best performances. His son, JOHN SINGLETON COPLEY, born in Boston, May 21st, 1772, was raised to the peerage as Lord Lyndhurst upon his appointment as lord chancellor in 1827, and occupied an eminent position among the statesmen of his adopted country.

CORDAY, CHARLOTTE, one of those rare characters in history who by an utter sacrifice of self have gained a world's admiration, was born in 1768. The blood of Corneille, the great dramatist, coursed in her veins. She was educated in a convent, and seems to have formed her naturally enthusiastic mind upon the classic models of antiquity. Her assassination of Marat, one of the atrocious triumphs, is one of the most startling passages in the bloody drama of the French revolution. Not aware that he was but the tool of Danton and Robespierre, to him she ascribed the woes of the republic, and on him she resolved to avenge her ill-fated country. She left home secretly, and proceeded to Paris, where she calmly remained near Marat's dwelling two days, before she attempted to execute her bloody intent. With difficulty she obtained admittance to Marat (who stood in great fear of assassination), on the evening of July 13th, 1793; having previously written him in a note that she was from the seat of rebellion, and would "put it in his power to do France a great service." Marat was in a bath; a soiled handkerchief was bound around his head, increasing his natural hideousness; a coarse covering was thrown across the bath; a board placed transversely supported his papers. Entering into conversation with Charlotte, he penned with ferocious joy the fresh list of victims with which she pretended to supply him; crying, with a malignant smile, "Before a week they shall have perished on the guillotine." "These words," Charlotte said afterward, "sealed his fate." Drawing from beneath the handkerchief that covered her bosom the knife she had hidden there, with desperate determination she plunged it to the hilt in the monster's heart. One loud, dying shriek for

help he gave, and then sank back dead in the bath. She left the closet, and sat down calmly in the next apartment. The household of Marat rushed to the fatal spot; the tumult spread; a crowd gathered, who gazed with wonder upon the murderess, as she stood before them with still disordered garments, flushed cheeks, and her long dark disheveled hair, loosely bound by a broad green ribbon, falling around her; so calm, so serenely lovely, that those who most abhorred the deed she had wrought, gazed upon her with involuntary admiration. She submissively surrendered herself to arrest. Her self-possession, sincerity, and maidenly modesty at the trial, which immediately ensued, were marvelous in the midst of the tumult that agitated Paris. At the very commencement of the prosecution, "All these details of form are needless," she said. "It was I who killed Marat." "I killed one man to save a hundred thousand." "I was a republican before the revolution; I never wanted energy. I mean by energy the feeling of those who are willing to forget their own interest for the sake of their country." She was condemned. A heavy storm broke forth as the car of the doomed, on which she sat clothed in a red smock as a murderess, went from the prison to the guillotine. An immense crowd lined every street through which she passed. Hootings and execrations at first were her portion; but as her pure and serene beauty dawned on the throngs; as the exquisite loveliness of her countenance, and the sculptural beauty of her figure, became more fully revealed,—pity and admiration superseded every other feeling. Her bearing was so gracefully calm and dignified as to rouse sympathy in the hearts of those who detested not only her crime, but the cause for which it had been committed. Many men of every party uncovered their heads and bowed as the cart passed before them, and one young man cried out for the erection of a monument to her memory, that should bear the inscription, "Greater than Brutus."

CORDELIERS, friars of the order of St. Francis; clothed in coarse gray cloth, with a small cowl and cloak of the same stuff, having a girdle of cord or rope, tied with three knots, whence their name, which was first given to them by St. Louis of France, 1227.

CORINTH, a famous city of ancient Greece,

situated on the isthmus of the same name. It was founded B.C. 1520. Corinthus, son of Pelops, gave his name to the city. The inhabitants were once famed for their power, wealth, intelligence, and voluptuousness. They founded Syracuse in Sicily, which they afterward delivered from oppression. Corinth was destroyed, by the Roman consul Mummius, 146 B.C. The consul, who was no judge of the fine arts, assured the soldiers who had charge of the incomparable paintings sent from Corinth to Rome, that if they injured them, he should make them furnish new ones. Julius Caesar attempted to restore the city to its former importance. The government, at first monarchical, was changed 757 B.C., and it became the head of the Achæan league. In 1453 it fell into the hands of the Turks. Corinth is now a small town of 2,000 inhabitants.

CORIOLANUS, the surname of Caius Marcius, given him for his victory over Corioli. After having served his country faithfully, and received many wounds in her service, he was refused the consulship; indignant at the ingratitude of his countrymen, who banished him, he joined the Volsci, a warlike nation hostile to the Romans. Coriolanus terrified the Romans by approaching their capital at the head of a powerful army of Volscians. The offended Roman refused to listen to proposals made in the hope of inducing him to withdraw, and pitched his camp within five miles of the city. His enmity against his country would have been fatal, had not his wife, Volumnia, and his mother, Veturia, aided by the presence of his children, prevailed upon him to withdraw his army. Coriolanus, in yielding to his mother, and raising her from her suppliant posture, pronounced a sentence which was prophetic of his fate: "Oh! my mother, you have saved Rome, but you have destroyed your son." The Volscians, indignant at the treachery of Coriolanus, put him to death, B.C. 488.

CORNEILLE, PIERRE, a French author who flourished in the time of Louis XIV., and was the founder of French tragedy.

CORNELIA, daughter of Scipio Africanus the elder, mother of the Gracchi, a Roman matron who lived about 130 B.C. A lady of Campania having shown her jewels to Cornelia, in paying a visit to the latter requested to see her jewels in return. At that moment

her boys entered the room, and the noble Cornelia, pointing them out to her visitors, exclaimed, "These are my jewels!" At her death the Romans, mindful of her worth, erected a monument to her memory.

CORNWALLIS, CHARLES, Marquis of, born in 1738, entered the English army at an early age, and rose rapidly. He commanded the British army in the South during the Revolution, and was finally captured at Yorktown. In 1786, he was made governor-general of India, where he reduced Tippoo Saib. From 1798 to 1801 he was lord-lieutenant of Ireland, and was of eminent service in restoring quiet to that distracted country. In 1805, he was once more made governor-general of India, but died at Ghazepore, soon after his arrival out, Oct. 5th of that year.

CORREGGIO. ANTONIO ALLEGRI, commonly called Correggio from his birth-place, a small town in Modena, was born in the winter of 1493-4. In 1519, we find him a master of established reputation at Parma. His frescoes in the churches of Parma are his greatest works, but he likewise produced many celebrated paintings in oil. His proverbial grace—apparent, not only in his undulating forms and soft transitions, but in the action and expression of his figures—is a distinctive characteristic of his works; and he is still unrivaled in a certain harmony which results from delicate gradations of light and shade. He died of a fever at Correggio, March 5th, 1534.

CORSICA, an island in the Mediterranean, north of Sardinia. Its area is 3,377 square miles, and the population in 1851 was 226,253. It is mountainous, but the numerous valleys are extremely fertile. The Corsicans know not how to develop the resources of their island. They are in an almost barbarous state, recklessly brave, revengeful, fond of freedom, and indolent. Corsica has been successively occupied by the Carthaginians, the Romans, the Goths, the Saracens, the Franks, the Pope, the Pisanese, the Genoese, the French, and the English, falling into the hands of the last in 1794. The English, however, did not long retain possession of the island, and it was again restored to France. Ajaccio is the chief town and port.

CORTEZ, FERNANDO, the conqueror of Mexico, was born in 1485, in Estremadura. He came to the West Indies in high hopes,

and Velasquez, governor of Cuba, gave him the command of an expedition designed for the reduction of Mexico, which consisted of ten ships, six hundred men, ten small field-pieces, and eighteen horses. With this small armament he accomplished his enterprise, in 1519, and added the empire of Mexico to that of Spain. He took Montezuma prisoner, although received with hospitality, and the unfortunate king was killed by his own subjects in an attack on the Spaniards. The conduct of the conquerors so exasperated the Indians that they compelled Cortez to quit the city with great loss, but he regained it after some hard fighting. On the capture of Guatimozin, son of Montezuma, the city surrendered, and the empire of Mexico was at an end. A commission arrived to deprive Cortez of his command, and he returned to Spain in 1528 to procure redress. He died in obscurity, in 1554.

CORUNNA, a seaport in the north-west of Spain. Sir John Moore's army, amounting to about 15,000, had just accomplished a safe retreat hither when they were attacked by Soult with 20,000 troops, Jan 16th, 1809. The French were repulsed, but the loss of the British was immense. Their illustrious commander was struck by a cannon-ball, which carried away his left shoulder with part of the collar-bone, leaving the arm hanging by the flesh, and died in the arms of victory. In the evening his corpse, wrapped in a cloak, was interred by the officers of his staff, and the remnant of the army hastily embarked.

COSSACKS, the name of several warlike tribes that inhabit the south-western provinces of Russia, and form an effective portion of the Russian cavalry. Their horses are small but hardy, and will travel for a whole campaign from fifty to seventy miles a day. They fight in little bands, and their arms are long lances, bows and arrows, sabres, and pistols or guns. The chief is called a hetman.

COUNCILS OF THE CHURCH. The following are among the most memorable ecclesiastical councils of ancient days. Of the apostles at Jerusalem, A.D. 50. Arles in France, 314; the western bishops met to suppress the Donatists; three fathers of the English church were present. Nice, 325; the first Ecumenical or General Nicene;

Constantine the Great presided; Arius and Eusebius were condemned for heresy; this council composed the Nicene creed. Tyre, 335, when the doctrine of Athanasius was canvassed. Constantinople, 337, when the Arian heresy gained ground. Rome, 342; concerning Athanasius; it lasted eighteen months. Sardis, 347. Rimini, 359; four hundred fathers attended, and Constantine obliged them to sign a new confession of faith. Constantinople, the second general, 381; Pope Damasius presided. Ephesus, the third, 431; Pope Celestine presided. Chalcedon, the fourth, 451; Pope Leo presided, and Marcian and his empress attended. Constantinople, the fifth, 553; and the sixth in 680. Authority of the six general councils re-established by Theodosius, 715. Nice, second Nicene and seventh general, 787. Constantinople, eighth, 869. Clermont in France, 1094; convened by Urban II. to authorize the first crusade; Philip I. of France was excommunicated. The Lateran councils were so called because held in the basilica of the Lateran at Rome. First Lateran, ninth general, 1122; the right of investitures settled by treaty between Pope Calixtus II. and the Emperor Henry V. Second Lateran, tenth general, 1139; Innocent II. presided; the preservation of the temporal ties of ecclesiastics was the principal subject, and occasioned the attendance of one thousand fathers. Third Lateran, eleventh general, 1179; held against schismatics. Fourth Lateran, twelfth general, 1215; four hundred bishops and a thousand abbots attended. Lyons, thirteenth general, under Innocent IV. 1245. Lyons, fourteenth general, under Gregory X., 1274. Vienne, in Dauphiny, fifteenth general, 1311; Clement V. presided, and the kings of France and Aragon attended; the order of knight-templars was suppressed. Pisa, sixteenth general, 1409; Gregory XII. and Benedict XIII. deposed, and Alexander elected. Constance, seventeenth general, 1414; Martin V. elected pope, John XXIII. being deposed. This council condemned Jerome of Prague and John Huss to be burned alive, a sentence executed upon the latter July 6th, 1415, and on the other the 6th of May following, in a suburb of Constance called Paradise! Huss, under a safe-conduct from the Emperor Sigis-

mund, had complied with a summons from the council to defend his opinions before the clergy of all nations, and was treacherously cast into prison. Jerome hastened to Constance to defend him, was himself loaded with chains, and finally shared the fate of his friend. Basle, eighteenth general, 1431. Fifth Lateran, nineteenth general, begun by Julius II., 1512, and continued under Leo X., till 1517, for the suppression of the pragmatic sanction of France against the council of Pisa. Trent, the twentieth and last general council styled œcumenical, 1545; it was held to condemn the doctrines of Luther, Zuinglius, and Calvin; it continued with intervals till 1563.

COURTRAI, anciently Cortoriacum, a town of Belgium, twenty-two miles south-west of Ghent, famous for the battle fought in its vicinity, in 1302, between the Flemings and French. The latter were defeated with great loss, and, from the fact that four thousand gilt spurs were found upon the field, the engagement was called the Battle of the Spurs.

COWLEY, ABRAHAM, an English poet, the son of a grocer, born in 1618, died in 1667. He was an easy writer, and patronized by royalty.

COWPENS, S. C. Here, Jan. 17th, 1781, a British force led by Tarleton was brilliantly defeated by the Americans under Gen. Daniel Morgan. This was an important check to the plans of Cornwallis.

COWPER, WILLIAM, the poet, son of the Rev. Dr. Cowper, was born at Berkhamstead, Herts, Nov. 15th, 1731. His education was acquired at a public school, where girlish timidity and delicacy subjected him to constant agony from the tyranny and roughness of his school-fellows. He studied law, and obtained the place of clerk of the House of Lords; but when the time approached for him to enter upon the duties of his office, his terror at presenting himself before the peerage, not only induced him to relinquish the place, but produced a fit of sickness. About this time his religious fears brought on a temporary derangement. He led the life of a despondent recluse, at Olney, now and then afflicted by a recurrence of his insanity, which in his last years settled into a constant shadow of religious agony and terror. His

death took place April 25th, 1800. Of all his poems the humorous ballad of "John Gilpin," and "The Task," are the best.

CRABBE, GEORGE, a popular British poet, was born Dec. 24th, 1754, at Aldborough in Suffolk. He was intended for a surgeon, and actually opened a shop, to which he confined himself for some time, although barely making his expenses. In 1778 he went to London as a literary adventurer, but was for a long time unsuccessful. When a prison was in near view, and ruin appeared to threaten him, he conceived the idea of writing to Edmund Burke, for assistance and advice. That great man at once became his friend and patron, urged him to persevere, and induced him to study divinity and take orders. Thenceforth his circumstances were comfortable. He married the object of his early affections, devoted himself to literature, and received the applause due to a genius of the highest order, and continued to use his pen till his death in 1832. Crabbe excelled in descriptions of humble life, and his poems are marked by a sombre strength and pathos. Byron called him,

"Nature's sternest painter, but her best."

CRANMER, THOMAS, Archbishop of Canterbury, who aided the progress of the reformation in England, was yet the slave of the king, and never permitted conscience to interfere with the wishes of the crowned tyrant. He joined the partisans of Lady Jane Grey, and was accordingly sent to the Tower on the accession of Mary. Having been accused of blasphemy, perjury, incontinence, and heresy, he was burnt at Oxford, March 21st, 1556. Cranmer was born in 1489. He was at once a divine and a statesman. In his character of divine he was perfectly ready to go as far in the way of change as any Swiss or Scottish reformer. In his character of statesman he was desirous to preserve that organization which had, during many ages, admirably served the purposes of the bishops of Rome, and might be expected now to serve equally well the purposes of the English kings and of their ministers. His temper and his understanding eminently fitted him to act as mediator. Sainly in his professions, unscrupulous in his dealings, zealous for nothing, bold in speculation, a coward

and a time-server in action, a placable enemy and a lukewarm friend, he was in every way qualified to arrange the terms of the coalition between the religious and the worldly enemies of popery. He was more courageous at the stake than he had been in life. The night before martyrdom his enemies seduced him by hope of life to sign a written recantation. When the fire was lit about him, he thrust his right hand, with which he had signed, into the flame before it could reach his body, sometimes saying, "This unworthy hand!" and then, "Lord Jesus, receive my spirit."

CRASSUS, MARCUS LICINIUS, a Roman consul, distinguished for some gallant actions, and active in crushing the gladiatorial revolt which was headed by Spartacus. He was slain by the Parthians, B.C. 53. He was the colleague of Caesar and Pompey in the first triumvirate, B.C. 60.

CRAWFORD, THOMAS, an eminent sculptor, was born in New York, N. Y., March 22d, 1814. From an early age he manifested a remarkable fondness for art, which his father lost no opportunity of encouraging. His tendency being manifestly toward the plastic arts, in 1834, at twenty years of age, he was sent to Italy, where he was so fortunate as to gain admittance into the studio of Thorwaldsen, to whose instruction and friendship he became indebted for much of his subsequent success. The purity of form and severe classicism of this eminent master are reflected in many of his pupil's works. After a few years of study, Crawford established his studio in Rome, and soon received abundant employment. A malignant tumor in his eye caused his death, Oct. 7th, 1857.

CREBILLON, the elder, French tragic poet, died 1762, aged eighty-eight.

CRESSY, or CRECY, a town of France ten miles north of Abbeville, where was fought a famous battle between the French under Philip and the English, in which the latter, led by Edward III. and his son the brave Black Prince, were completely victorious, August 26th, 1346. Over 30,000 French were slain, while the loss of the English was very small. The crest of John, the Bohemian king (who fell fighting for the French), three ostrich feathers, with the motto *Ich dien*, "I serve,"

was adopted by the Black Prince, and has ever since been borne by the heir to the English crown.

CRICHTON, JAMES, a Scotch gentleman, born in 1550, of a good family, who, from his proficiency in the arts and sciences, particularly music and manly exercises, was styled the Admirable. He traveled in France and Italy, and in Mantua, having pleased the duke, was appointed preceptor to his son. During the carnival of 1583, Crichton, while playing upon his guitar, was attacked in the streets by a masked band, against which he defended himself with his accustomed spirit, until he recognized his pupil in the leader. Throwing himself upon his knees, he presented his sword to the young nobleman, who stabbed his preceptor to the heart. The motives which impelled him are unknown.

CRILLON, LOUIS DE BALBE, surnamed the Fearless, a celebrated French commander, born of a noble family, in Provence, in 1541. He was the friend of Henry IV. He distinguished himself at the siege of Calais, and against the Huguenots and the Turks. "Hang thyself, brave Crillon; we have fought at Arques, and thou wast absent," was Henry's laconic announcement of one of his most brilliant victories to his favored friend. In 1592, he successfully defended Villebœuf with an inferior force against Marshal Villars, and when called upon to surrender, gallantly answered, "Crillon is within, and Villars without." The assailants were unsuccessful. One day, hearing a sermon in which the sufferings of Christ were forcibly described, he seized the handle of his sword and cried, "Where wert thou, Crillon?" He died in 1616.

CRÆSUS, the last king of Lydia, famed for his immense wealth. Being defeated by Cyrus, B.C. 548, he was conducted to the stake, but saved his life by repeating, in the hearing of Cyrus, the saying of Solon, that no man could be pronounced happy till his death.

CROMWELL, OLIVER, was born of a good family at Huntingdon, April 25th, 1599, and received a careful education. The excesses in which he indulged on quitting the university, were ended at his marriage with Elizabeth Bouchier, daughter of a baronet of

Essex, at the age of twenty-one. He was chosen to a seat in parliament in 1628, and again in 1640. He was a strong opponent of the measures of the court. In 1642, when hostilities were determined upon, Cromwell raised a troop of horse, and seized the plate of the university at Cambridge to defray the expenses of the war. He soon acquired the rank of colonel, and the superior courage of his troops, procured for them at Marston Moor the name of ironsides. He also distinguished himself at the battle of Newbury, 1643. He had now gained so great an influence, that when the famous self-denying ordinance was passed, by which all members of either house of parliament were excluded from command in the army, Cromwell was particularly excepted. He was constituted lieutenant-general, and by his skill and courage the battle of Naseby was won in 1645, followed by a series of successes which decided the fate of the royalists.

The parliamentary troops had been at first far inferior to the high-spirited cavaliers. But the army which grew up under the rigid discipline of Cromwell, was irresistible. The stubborn courage of the English was, by the system of Cromwell, at once regulated and stimulated. Other leaders have maintained order as strict; other leaders have inspired their followers with a zeal as ardent; but in his camp alone the most rigid discipline was found in company with the fiercest enthusiasm. His troops moved to victory with the precision of machines, while burning with the wildest fanaticism of crusaders. From the time when the army was remodeled to the time when it was disbanded, it never found, either in the British islands or on the continent, an enemy who could stand its onset. In England, Scotland, Ireland, Flanders, the Puritan warriors, often surrounded by difficulties, sometimes contending against three-fold odds, not only never failed to conquer, but never failed to destroy and break in pieces whatever force was opposed to them. They at length came to regard the day of battle as a day of certain triumph, and marched against the most renowned battalions of Europe with disdainful confidence. Turenne was startled by the shout of stern exultation with which his English allies advanced to the

combat, and expressed the delight of a true soldier when he learned that it was ever the fashion of Cromwell's pikemen to rejoice greatly when they beheld the enemy; and the banished cavaliers felt an emotion of national pride when they saw a brigade of their countrymen, outnumbered by foes and abandoned by allies, drive before it in headlong route the finest infantry of Spain, and force a passage into a counterscarp which had just been pronounced impregnable by the ablest of the marshals of France. But that which chiefly distinguished the army of Cromwell from other armies was the austere morality and the fear of God which pervaded all ranks. It is acknowledged by the most zealous royalists that, in that singular camp, no oath was heard, no drunkenness or gambling was seen, and that, during the long dominion of the soldiery, the property of the peaceable citizen and the honor of woman were held sacred. If outrages were committed, they were outrages of a very different kind from those of which a victorious army is generally guilty. No servant girl complained of the rough gallantry of the red-coats; not an ounce of plate was taken from the shops of the goldsmiths; but a Pelagian sermon, or a window on which the Virgin and Child were painted, produced in the Puritan ranks an excitement which it required the utmost exertions of the officers to quell. One of Cromwell's chief difficulties was to restrain his pikemen and dragoons from invading by main force the pulpits of ministers whose discourses, to use the language of that time, were not savory; and too many cathedrals still bear the marks of the hatred with which those stern spirits regarded every vestige of popery.—*Macaulay*.

Charles I. was betrayed by the Scotch, and brought to the scaffold. For this step Cromwell should not alone be held responsible. He acquiesced in what he could not have prevented, had he desired a quieter result. England was declared a commonwealth. Ireland and Scotland raised the standard of the second Charles. Cromwell, in 1649, went to Ireland, which he subdued, and leaving Ireton as deputy, returned to England in 1650. Against the Scots, he gained the battle of Dunbar, Sept. 3d, 1650, and that day twelvemonth, defeated the royal forces at Worcester.

The Rump parliament and the army came in collision. Armed men cleared the house, and the victorious general was declared lord high protector of the commonwealth, Dec. 12th, 1653, by the Barebones parliament. Opposed as he was by both royalists and republicans, he could be safe only by being absolute. The government, in form a republic, was in truth a military despotism, moderated by the wisdom, the sober-mindedness, and the magnanimity of the protector. The laws were violated only when demanded for the safety of his person or government. The cavalier who refrained from disturbance was unmolested. Justice was administered with exactness and purity not before known. Never, since the reformation, had there been so little religious persecution.

Cromwell's foreign policy extorted the ungracious approbation of those who most detested him. England had been of scarcely more weight in European politics than Venice or Saxony. She at once became the most formidable power in the world, dictated terms of peace to Holland, avenged the common injuries of Christendom on the pirates of Barbary, vanquished the Spaniards by sea and land, seized one of the finest West India islands, and acquired on the Flemish coast a fortress which consoled the national pride for the loss of Calais. She was supreme on the ocean. She was the head of the Protestant interest. All the Protestant churches scattered over Roman Catholic kingdoms acknowledged Cromwell as their guardian. The pope himself was forced to preach humanity and moderation to popish princes; for a voice which seldom threatened in vain had declared that, unless favor were shown to the people of God, English guns should be heard in the castle of Saint Angelo.

The protector had thus conquered peace at home and triumph abroad. The death of his favorite daughter smote him sorely; he became depressed in spirits, was seized with a slow fever, and died, Sept. 3d, 1658. This best and greatest ruler that England has ever had was buried with more than regal pomp in Westminster Abbey. In mean revenge, after the restoration, his body was torn from its sanctuary and exposed upon the gallows at Tyburn.

CROMWELL, RICHARD, succeeded his father as protector of England, was soon deposed by the army, and lived a quiet life as a country gentleman.

CROMWELL, THOMAS, Earl of Essex, son of a blacksmith at Putney, in Surrey, was born about the year 1490. Early in life he became clerk to the English factory at Antwerp, which he left to serve in Italy, where he fought beneath the banners of the Constable of Bourbon. Returning home, he was taken into the service of Cardinal Wolsey, who procured him a seat in the House of Commons. When Wolsey fell, Cromwell became a servant of the king, was raised to the office of chancellor of the exchequer, and in 1534 made secretary of state and master of the rolls. About this time he was also elected chancellor of Cambridge. The next year he was appointed visitor-general of the monasteries. In 1536 he was made lord keeper of the privy-seal, and the same year advanced to the peerage by the title of Lord Cromwell; and the papal supremacy being abolished, he was nominated the king's vicar-general in the convocation. In 1537 he was appointed chief-justice itinerant of all the forests beyond Trent, elected knight of the garter, and made dean of Wells. To these honors was added the grant of many manors after the dissolution of the monasteries, and in 1539 he was created Earl of Essex. Soon after, his fortune declined as fast as it had risen. His ruin was hastened by the marriage which he projected between Henry and Anne of Cleves, and he was sent to the Tower, where he was deserted by all his friends except Cranmer, who, however, could not save him from the scaffold, and he suffered death with fortitude, July 28th, 1540.

CRUDEN, ALEXANDER, author of a well-known biblical concordance, was born in Aberdeen, May 31st, 1701. He was exceedingly eccentric, and at times insane. He was found dead in his chamber in the attitude of prayer, Nov. 1st, 1770.

CRUSADES, the name given to the expeditions fitted out by the Christian warriors of Europe, for the recovery of the Holy Land, from the end of the eleventh to the end of the thirteenth century. The crusaders derived their name from the badge of the cross which was wrought upon their mantles and appeared

in various parts of their equipments. The age was one in which the people were peculiarly adapted to the reception of enthusiastic religious impulses. The Christians could not bear to think that the places which they held so dear, and which the history of their religion hallowed, should be desecrated by the presence of infidels, and rendered dangerous to those pilgrims whom reverence called to Palestine. The church called upon the chivalry of Europe, and the knights responded to the summons.

The rise of the crusades is immediately attributable to the enthusiasm of a wandering pilgrim, called Peter the Hermit, who, having experienced the tyrannical exactions imposed on the visitors of the holy sepulchre, represented them to Urban II. in such lively colors, that the prelate selected him as the instrument of a grand design which he had formed to overthrow the Mohammedan power, and Peter, armed with the holy commission, went from province to province, to kindle up that enthusiasm by which he was himself consuming. When the feelings of the people and the potentates appeared ripe for some wild project, Urban held a council in the open fields at Piacenza, and proposed his scheme, which was warmly applauded, but not as warmly embraced. Another council was therefore held at Clermont, graced by the presence of ambassadors from all nations, and the result was as favorable as he could have anticipated. The pope held out to the crusaders the promise of spiritual pardon, and imposed on them only the penance of plunder for their sins. Thus excited, the enthusiasm became general; noblemen sold their estates for outfits; the meanest lords of the manors set forth at their own expense; the poor gentlemen followed them as esquires; and above 80,000 collected under the banners of the cross. Godfrey of Boulogne was at the head of 70,000 foot, and 10,000 horse, splendidly armed, were under the command of many lords, who were joined by Hugh, brother to Philip I. of France, Raymond of Toulouse, Bohemond, King of Sicily, and others of equal and less note. A proposal was made to the pope to put himself at their head, but he refused. This refusal, however, did not damp their ardor.

Confiding in their cause, their numbers, and their equipments, they traversed Germany

and Hungary, took Nice, Antioch, and Edessa, and arrived at Jerusalem. The city was taken by storm, after five weeks' siege, July 15th, 1099. The numerous inhabitants and garrison were put to the sword. Neither arms defended the valiant nor submission the timid; no age or sex was spared; infants on the breast were pierced by the same blow with their mothers who implored for mercy. Even a multitude to the number of ten thousand, who had surrendered themselves prisoners, and were promised quarter, were butchered in cold blood by these ferocious conquerors. The streets of Jerusalem were covered with corpses; and the triumphant warriors, after every enemy was subdued or slaughtered, immediately turned themselves in humiliation toward the holy sepulchre! They threw away their weapons still streaming with blood; they advanced, with bowed heads, and naked feet and hands, to that sacred monument; they sung anthems to their Saviour, who had there purchased their salvation by his death and agony; and their devotion so overcame their fury, that they dissolved in tears, and bore the appearance of every soft and tender sentiment. So inconsistent is human nature with itself! and so easily does superstition ally, both with the most heroic courage and with the fiercest barbarity! Godfrey of Boulogne, not without opposition from the priests, was elected King of Jerusalem, but died in 1100. In 1102, an immense army which departed for the Holy Land, was defeated, and no fewer than 200,000 men lost to Europe by the enterprise. The capture of Baldwin and the loss of Edessa occasioned a new crusade in 1147.

France again gave the impulse to the religious excitement. Pope Eugenius III. induced St. Bernard of Clairvaux to act the part of Peter the Hermit, and the consequence was that Louis the Young, accompanied by his wife, Eleanor of Guienne, departed for the Holy Land, and Conrad III., in whose hands the red cross was placed, led a large army into Asia. Both of them, however, were unsuccessful.

The unfortunate issue of the second crusade was precipitated by the dissensions of the Christians, and the uncommon abilities of Saladin, who, advancing at the head of an army that placed implicit confidence in the courage and skill of their leader, animated by a relig-

ious fury no less absorbing than that which filled the breast of the crusaders, threw himself upon Jerusalem, which, unable to hold out against him, once more echoed to the shouts of Saracen conquerors, as they again erected their crescent on the ramparts of the city. The Christians lost all their possessions but Antioch, Tripoli, Joppa, and Tyre.

The leaders of the third crusade (1189) were Frederick I. of Germany, surnamed Barbarossa, the chivalric Philip Augustus of France, and the lion-hearted Richard I. of England. Barbarossa was ultimately unsuccessful, but the monarchs of France and England took possession of Ptolemais or Acre. Philip Augustus, from motives of jealousy, left the field to Richard, who proved himself a worthy rival of Saladin, and the two commanders performed wonderful feats of arms which were the admiration of both armies. The fourth crusade was conducted by Andrew II. of Hungary, and the fifth by Frederick II. of Germany. The results of these ought to have shown that the Christians could not hope to gain permanent possession of the country. In 1270 St. Louis, King of France, undertook the sixth and last crusade, which, though well conceived, and vigorously carried on, was unsuccessful. In this last crusade no fewer than 150,000 persons perished: add to this the numbers that died in former expeditions, and it will be seen that the east was the tomb of above two millions of Europeans; and several countries were depopulated and impoverished by the crusades. Yet the holy wars were not without good. They created an intimate connection and a constant intercourse between the nations of Europe, which, as it was favorable to commercial enterprise, increased the wealth, improved the arts, and contributed to establish the civilization of the Christian world.

CUBA, subject to Spain, is the largest of the West Indies. Its area is 42,383 square miles, and its population exceeds a million, of whom about one-half are slaves. The island is rich and fertile, producing sugar, coffee, and tobacco abundantly. Havana, the capital of Cuba, is on the northern coast of the island; population, composed of whites, mulattos, and negroes, 150,000. The streets of the city are dirty, but the strongly fortified harbor is one of the finest in the world. The public

edifices of the city, particularly the Catholic churches, are very splendid. The commerce of Havana is extensive and increasing. It was founded in 1511, by Diego Velasquez, and has been twice taken by the English, but was restored to Spain in 1763. The bones of Columbus repose in the cathedral of Havana.

Cuba was discovered by Columbus in 1492.

In 1511 it was conquered by the Spaniards, and as little gain was anticipated from mines, the natives were cruelly exterminated. In 1762 a powerful expedition for the conquest of the island was fitted out by the British, and Havana capitulated in August. The plunder obtained by the British was immense. By the treaty of 1763, Cuba was restored to the Spaniards. An expedition headed by Lopez, to wrest Cuba from Spanish dominion, landed on the island May 17th, 1850, and ended in defeat and disaster. Lopez made a second attempt in August, 1851. His party was taken, fifty of them shot, and he himself garrotted at Havana.

CULLODEN MUIR, a heath in Scotland, where the Duke of Cumberland defeated the young Pretender, after an obstinate resistance, on the 16th of April, 1746. Prince Charles sought safety in flight among the Highland wilds. The duke's troops practiced great cruelties upon the vanquished, as well as upon the defenseless inhabitants near the field of battle. The defeat quenched the hopes of the house of Stuart forever.

CUMBERLAND, WILLIAM AUGUSTUS, Duke of, second son of George II., was born in 1721. He was wounded at the battle of Dettingen, but refused the assistance of a surgeon until the latter had finished dressing the wound of a poor soldier who had been shot at the same time with himself. He commanded the British army at the battles of Fontenoy and Val, which were lost through the cowardice of the Dutch troops. In 1746 he defeated the Pretender at Culloden, but disgraced his character by his cruel treatment of the vanquished. He died in 1765.

CUMBERLAND, RICHARD, an English dramatist and miscellaneous author, son of the Bishop of Clonfert, was born in 1732, and educated at Trinity College, Cambridge. He died in London, May 7th, 1811. His fame rests altogether on his comic dramas. He was extremely sensitive, self-conceited, and

jealous, and Sheridan, considering him as fair game, held him up to ridicule as Sir Fretful Plagiary in "The Critic." He was much annoyed at the success of the "School for Scandal," and it was only for fear of exciting ridicule by refusing to witness it, that he carried two of his children to see the play. Cumberland sat behind them, the picture of jealousy and envy. When they laughed at any witticisms, in common with the audience, Cumberland would gravely extend a finger and thumb, inflict a severe pinch, and say, "What are you laughing at, my dears? I don't see anything to laugh at."

CUNNERSDORF, a village on the Oder, at no great distance from Frankfort, where Frederick the Great with 50,000 men attacked the Russian and Austrian army of 90,000 in their camp, and at first gained considerable advantages; but pursuing them too far, the Austrians and Russians rallied, and retrieved a complete victory. The Prussians lost two hundred guns, and 20,000 men in killed and wounded, Aug. 12th, 1759.

CURIUS DENTATUS, MARCUS ANNIUS, a Roman consul, famous for his fortitude and frugality. He gained several victories, and defeated Pyrrhus, B.C. 272. The Samnite ambassadors found him cooking some vegetables for his dinner in an earthen pot, yet he indignantly refused the vessels of gold with which they attempted to bribe him.

CURRAN, JOHN PHILPOTT, was born of humble parents, near Cork, in 1750. He was called to the bar in 1775. In his boyhood he had been afflicted like Demosthenes, and his nickname at school was "stuttering Jack Curran." This impediment, like Demosthenes, he overcame, and became famous for his forensic and parliamentary oratory. He entered the Irish parliament about 1785. His eloquence shone in his conversation as well, and was rivaled by his wit and sarcasm. Byron said that Curran spoke more poetry than any man had ever written. This admiration the Irishman did not fully reciprocate. He constantly objected to Byron's moody egotism as the great drawback on his poetry. "Any subject," said Curran, "but that eternal one of self. I weary of knowing once a month the state of any man's hopes or fears, rights or wrongs. I would as soon read a register of the weather, the barometer up so

many inches to day, and down so many inches to-morrow. I feel skepticism all over me at the sight of agonies on paper, things that come as regular and notorious as the full of the moon. The truth is, his lordship weeps for the press, and wipes his eyes with the public."

In the Irish parliament, when once mercilessly exposing the corruption of the placemen, Curran spoke of the immaculate virtue of "those saints on the pension list; they toil not, neither do they spin, but they are arrayed like Solomon in his glory." At another time he used this strong figure concerning those whose path to power had lain through treachery to Ireland: "Those foundlings of fortune, overwhelmed in the torrent of corruption at an early period, lay at the bottom like drowned bodies, while soundness or sanity remained in them; but at length becoming buoyant by putrefaction, they rose as they rotted, and floated to the surface of the polluted stream, where they were drifted along, the objects of terror, and contagion, and abomination."

Of his wit many tales are related. Lundy Foot, a celebrated tobacconist, set up a carriage, and asked Curran for a Latin motto. "*Quid rides*," said Curran. Being told that a very stingy and slovenly barrister had started for the continent with a shirt and a guinea, "He'll not change either till he comes back," said Curran. He was cross-examining a witness: "My lord, my lord," cried the fellow to the judge, "I can't answer yon little gentleman, he's putting me in such a doldrum." "A doldrum! Mr. Curran, what does he mean by a doldrum!" exclaimed Lord Avonmore. "Oh, my lord, it's a very common complaint with persons of this sort: it's merely a confusion of the head arising from the corruption of the heart." Once when he was arguing for the defense in a state trial, the judge shook his head in doubt or denial at one of his points. "I see, gentlemen," said Curran to the jury, "I see the motion of his lordship's head. Common observers might imagine it implied a difference of opinion; but they would be mistaken: it is merely accidental. Believe me, gentlemen, if you remain here many days, you will yourselves perceive that when his lordship shakes his head, there is nothing in it."

Curran died in London in 1817.

CURTUS, MARCUS, a noble Roman youth, of whom it is related, that when a pestilential chasm opened in the Roman forum, 362 B.C., and the oracle declared that it could only be closed when the most precious thing in Rome was thrown into it, Curtius, saying that arms and courage were invaluable, assumed his military dress, and mounting an armed horse, sprang into the abyss, which closed over him forever.

CUSHING, THOMAS, a patriotic American, born in 1725. He early obtained a seat in the general court of Massachusetts, and was chosen speaker of the house of representatives. The supposed extent of his influence induced Doctor Johnson, in his pamphlet "*Taxation no Tyranny*," to remark, "One object of the Americans is said to be, to adorn the brows of Mr. Cushing with a diadem." Mr. C. was a member of the two first continental congresses, and of the council of Massachusetts, and was created judge of the court of common pleas, and of probate in the county of Suffolk. Having been honored with the post of lieutenant-governor of his native state, he died in 1788.

CUTLER, TIMOTHY, a talented American divine, some time president of Yale College. He became rector of Christ Church, in Boston, and died in his eighty-second year, Aug. 17th, 1765.

CUVIER, GEORGE LEOPOLD CHRISTIAN FREDERIC DAGOERT, Baron of, a celebrated French naturalist, born at Montbéliard, Aug. 25th, 1769. His researches are well known to the generality of readers. He died at Paris, May 13th, 1832.

CYCLADES, in ancient geography a name given to certain islands in the Ægean Sea, particularly those that surround Delos as with a circle. They were subjected by Miltiades, but revolted during the Persian invasion.

CYPRUS, an island in the Mediterranean, famed among the ancients for its uncommon fertility and the mildness of its climate. It now contains 140,000 wretched inhabitants. Venus was worshiped here, and the ancient Cyprians were much given to love and pleasure. Its original colonists are unknown. The Egyptians took it in 550 B.C., and the Romans, 58 B.C. It was occupied for some

time by the Arabs on the decline of the Roman empire. They were, however, driven from it during the crusades, and the title of King of Cyprus was for some time held by Richard I. of England. In 1480, it fell into the hands of the Venetians, from whom it was wrested, in 1571, by the Turks.

CYRUS. Concerning this monarch there are two distinct and irreconcilable accounts, those of Herodotus and Xenophon. The latter, in his "Cyropedia," has rather given us the picture of what a monarch should be, than of what a monarch was, and the account of Herodotus is generally adhered to in historical narratives. Cyrus, King of Persia, was the son of Cambyses and Maudane, the daughter of Astyages, the last monarch of Media. From a belief that he was fated to dethrone his grandfather, he was exposed as soon as born; but was preserved by a shepherdess, who educated him as her own son. As he was playing with his equals in years, he was elected a king in one of their sports, and he exercised his power with such independent spirit, that he ordered one of his companions to be whipped severely for disobedience. The father of the boy, who was a nobleman, complained to the king of the ill treatment which his son had received from a shepherd's boy. Astyages ordered Cyrus before him, and discovered that he was Maudane's son, from whom he had so much to apprehend. He therefore treated him with suspicious coldness; and Cyrus, unable to bear his tyranny, escaped from his confinement and began to levy troops to dethrone his grandfather. He was assisted and encouraged by the ministers of Astyages, who were displeased with his oppression. Cyrus

marched against and defeated Astyages in a battle fought B.C. 560. From this victory the empire of Media became tributary to the Persians. Cyrus subdued the eastern parts of Asia, and made war against Croesus, King of Lydia, whom he conquered B.C. 548. He invaded the kingdom of Assyria, and took the city of Babylon by turning the course of the Euphrates, and marching his troops through the bed of the river under the walls, while the people were celebrating a grand festival. He afterward led his troops against Tomyris, the queen of the Massagetae, a Scythian nation, but was defeated in a bloody battle, B.C. 529. The victorious queen, who had lost her son in a previous encounter, was so incensed against Cyrus, that she cut off his head, and threw it into a vessel filled with human blood; crying, "Satisfy thyself with the blood for which thou hast thirsted."

CYRUS, the Younger, was the son of Darius Nothus, and brother of Artaxerxes. On the death of his father, he attempted the life of his brother, to obtain the throne, but was pardoned through the intercession of his mother, Parysatis. He then obtained the governorship of Lydia, whence he marched against his brother. The war ended with the death of Cyrus, B.C. 400. Several thousand Greeks accompanied Cyrus in his expedition, and their retreat, led by Xenophon, and by him described, is a memorable chapter of ancient history.

CYTHERA, the ancient name of an island in the Ionian sea, now Cerigo, containing a population of 8,000. Venus was worshipped here, and here was one of her most splendid temples; hence she was called Cytherea.

CYT

D.

DACIER, ANNA LEFEVRE (the wife of Andrew Dacier), was born in France in 1651. She was celebrated for her learning and beauty. She edited and translated several of the ancient classics, and distinguished herself by her defense of Homer in answer to Lamotte. She died in 1720.

DÆDALUS, an artist and machinist of Athens, who lived three generations before the Trojan war. He was the builder of the Cretan labyrinth. Being imprisoned with his son, Icarus, he is said to have invented wings cemented with wax, by which they soared high in the air. Icarus, neglecting the instructions of his father, fell into the sea, which was named from him the Icarian. His father reached Sicily, and founded a town there.

DAGUERRE, L. J. M., an artist of France, eminent for the discovery of the process for taking pictures upon metal plates, through the action of light. He was born in 1789, and died July 10th, 1851.

DAHOMY, a fertile kingdom of western Africa, the people of which are ferocious. The king's sleeping-chamber is paved with the skulls, and ornamented with the jaw-bones, of his vanquished enemies.

DALE, RICHARD, a commodore in the American navy, was born in Virginia in 1756. He served on board the *Bon Homme Richard* under Paul Jones, and was the first to spring to the deck of the *Serapis* in the bloody engagement which resulted in her capture. He died at Philadelphia, Feb. 24th, 1826.

D'ALEMBERT, JEAN LE ROND, a distinguished mathematician and astronomer, born at Paris in 1717, died in 1783. He was the son of Madame de Tencin and the poet Des-touches, who exposed him while an infant. At ten years of age, the principal of the school in which he received his early education, declared that his pupil had learned all that he could teach him. He undertook to write the mathematical part of the "Dictionnaire Encyclopedique," and contributed many admirable articles to it, which, however, involved him in the attacks made upon the work. He refused the brilliant offers of Fred-

eric II. of Prussia, and Catherine of Russia, tempting him to settle in their respective capitals.

DALLAS, ALEXANDER JAMES, a native of Jamaica, an able lawyer, who came to this country, in 1783, and held various responsible offices under our government, being made secretary of the treasury in 1814. In 1815, he assumed the duties of secretary of war, and on him devolved the task of reducing the army. He died Jan. 16th, 1817, aged fifty-seven.

DAMIENS, ROBERT FRANCOIS, a crazy fanatic, who stabbed Louis XV., at Versailles, on the 5th of January, 1757. He had long meditated the deed, and took opium to prepare himself. After the most cruel tortures, he was broken on the wheel, March 28th, 1757.

DAMON AND PYTHIAS, two Syracusans, who were devotedly attached to each other. Dionysius condemned Pythias to death, but allowed him to absent himself in order to arrange his affairs, on condition that Damon should remain as hostage. The appointed time having expired, Damon was led to the scaffold, and the executioner was about to raise his axe, when Pythias arrived, breathless with haste, threw himself into the arms of his friend, and embraced him tenderly. Dionysius, moved by the scene, in common with the people, restored both the friends to the enjoyment of life and liberty, 387 B.C.

DAMPIER, WILLIAM, an English circumnavigator, born in 1652, known for his adventures in both hemispheres.

DANDOLO, HENRY, a doge of Venice, filled that highest office in the gift of the republic in 1192, being then eighty-four years old. Neither his age nor his defective vision prevented him from discharging his duties with honor. Joining the fourth crusade, he was the first to spring on shore with the standard of St. Mark, at the storming of Constantinople. He died at the age of ninety-seven. There were several other doges of this family.

DANTE. The city of Florence ranks next to Athens in its classic associations. There

certainly is no city so modern, yet so linked to the past. Time seems here almost to have spared the footprints of the great men whose fame has defied him. In the rooms of Michael Angelo, his staff leans in the corner, his unfinished sketches lie upon the table. One may press the same stairs which John Milton ascended when he visited Galileo. Among the great names associated with this city, there is one other, before which every man bows who has been touched by the tragedy of life,—Alighieri Durante, better known as Dante, who in Italian literature is the Homer and the Shakspeare. Dante was born in 1265. He was provided by his early widowed mother with the best education which could be obtained in that age. It was a custom in Florence to celebrate the return of spring by May-day festivities; and it was probably upon one of these occasions, at her father's house, that he was inspired with the beauty of Beatrice Portinari. He tells us that she was so beautiful that all the citizens crowded to see her when she walked in the city, and so pure that they bent down their eyes in her presence. She became the wife of another person, and died in 1290, when Dante was in his twenty-fifth year. He was married the year after, but he never forgot her. At the time of the troubles between the Bianchi and Neri, two factions of the Guelphs in Florence, Dante espoused the cause of the former. The latter gained the mastery. He was banished in 1302, and his property confiscated. He went from place to place, restless and unhappy, loathing a state of dependence, yet unable to retrieve his fortune. He died at Ravenna, Sept. 14th, 1321. The fame of his "Divina Commedia" is imperishable, and the Florentines, who had persecuted him during his lifetime, paid him the highest honors at his death. His characters were those of his own period, with whose history the public were acquainted, and whose families and descendants were alive, and frequently in the enjoyment of wealth and power. But the position in which he placed them, threw an interest round their story, stronger than could have been produced by the adventures of any individual, however illustrious, of a more remote date. The terror and pity, and in some cases the vengeance, of the Italians were awakened, when the shadowy

forms of their contemporaries were made to pass in review before them, stripped of those external advantages which while living had rendered them respected, and had cast a veil over their crimes. The cruel husband shrunk from the picture of his murdered wife, herself condemned to perdition, yet prophesying that for him was destined the lowest pit in hell. The son beheld his father plunged in eternal woe, yet continuing to feel a tender interest in his welfare. The treacherous assassin, who still occupied his place among the nobles of the land, trembled at seeing himself represented as in hell, while, according to the bold supposition of the poet, a demon animated his body. The 'mighty mantle' itself was no protection to the wearer: Pope Nicholas III., plunged head foremost in the flames, was represented as waiting there for the arrival of his guilty successors. The effect was indescribable. Some, unable to endure the contempt of their countrymen, condemned themselves to voluntary exile; some, struck with terror and despair, died broken-hearted; and others fell victims to the private vengeance of the poet's friends.

DANTON, GEORGE JACQUES, a foremost actor in the French revolution, was born at Arcis-sur-Aube, October 28th, 1759. After the assassination of Marat and the fall of the Girondins, Danton and Robespierre came in conflict, and the former was guillotined, April 5th, 1794. He combined some of the greatest and most odious qualities. He has been called the colossus of the revolution, "head of gold, bosom of flesh, loins of brass, feet of clay," and characterized as a "gigantic mass of valor, ostentation, fury, affection, and wild revolutionary force and manhood."

DARDANELLES, are the fortifications on the European and Asiatic sides of the Hellespont, which is hence called the 'Strait of the Dardanelles.'

DARIUS. The name of several sovereigns of Persia, of whom the first is the most celebrated. DARIUS I., a noble satrap of Persia, was the son of Hystaspes, and conspired with six other noblemen, to destroy Smerdis, the usurper of the Persian crown. After the death of the usurper, it was agreed among the conspirators that he whose horse first neighed should be appointed king. In consequence of this singular resolution, the

groom of Darius led his master's horse with a mare to the place near which the seven noblemen were to pass. On the morrow before sunrise, when they proceeded all together, the horse of Darius neighed, and he was saluted by his companions king, B.C. 522. He soon showed himself fit to grace the throne. He took Babylon, and conquered Thrace; was defeated by the Scythians, but favored by fortune in his campaign against the Indians. The burning of Sardis, which was a Grecian colony, incensed the Athenians, and a war was kindled between them and the Persians, in which the latter were unsuccessful. Undismayed at the disaster at Marathon and his immense losses, Darius resolved to lead his troops to Greece in person, but died in the midst of his warlike preparations, B.C. 485. **DARIUS II.**, or Darius Nothus, reigned 423-404 B.C. **DARIUS III.**, surnamed Codomanus, the son of Arsanes and Sysigambis, was descended from Darius Nothus. He was no sooner seated on the throne than Alexander of Macedon invaded his kingdom. The Persians were defeated in the battles of the Granicus and Issus; in the last of which, Darius, leaving his wife, children, and mother, fled in disguise on the horse of his armor-bearer, and was saved by the darkness of the night. Being again defeated in the battle of Arbela, Darius in despair fled to Media, where he was killed by Bessus, the perfidious governor of Bactria, and was found by the Macedonians in his chariot, expiring of his wounds, B.C. 331. For this murder Bessus suffered a horrible death. Four trees having been with great exertion bent down to the ground, he was bound upon them, a limb tied to each. The trees being loosed flew back with great violence, rending his body in pieces.

DARKE, WILLIAM, usually called Major Darke, a brave veteran officer, born in Philadelphia county, 1736, served in the war of 1755-63; again in the Revolutionary war, and finally in the Indian war, under Gen. St. Clair, and died November 26th, 1801.

DARLING, GRACE. Off the coast of Northumberland in England, there lies a group of small islets or rocks, some of which can be seen only at low water; they are called the Farne Islands. Their aspect is wild and desolate in no common degree. Composed of

rock, with a slight covering of herbage, and in many places ending in sheer precipices, they are the residence of little else than wild fowl. Between the smaller islets the sea makes with great force, and many a ship in times past has laid her bones upon the pitiless rocks which every ebb tide exposes to view. Upon Longstone, one of the outer cluster known as the Staples, there stands a lighthouse, which at one time was kept by William Darling, a worthy and intelligent man, of quiet manners, with resources of mind and character sufficient to turn to profitable use the many lonely hours which his position necessarily entailed upon him. He had a numerous family of children; among them a daughter Grace, who had reached the age of twenty-two years when the incident occurred which has made her name so famous. She had passed most of her life upon the little island of Longstone, and is described as having been of a retiring and somewhat reserved disposition. In personal appearance, she was about the middle size, of a fair complexion and pleasing countenance, with nothing masculine in her aspect, but gentle and feminine, and, as might be supposed, with a winning expression of benevolence in her face. Her smile was particularly sweet. She had a good understanding, and had been respectably educated.

On Wednesday evening, Sept. 5th, 1838, the steamer *Forfarshire*, of about three hundred tons' burden, under the command of Captain John Humble, sailed from Hull for Dundee in Scotland. She had a valuable cargo of bale goods and sheet iron; and her company, including twenty-two cabin and nineteen steerage passengers, comprised sixty-three persons. On the evening of the next day, when in the neighborhood of the Farne Islands, she encountered a severe storm of wind, attended with a heavy rain and a dense fog. She leaked to such a degree that the fires could not be kept burning, and her engines soon ceased to work. She became wholly unmanageable, and drifting violently, at the mercy of the winds and waves, struck on one of the reefs of Longstone Island, about four o'clock on Friday morning.

As too often happens in such fearful emergencies, the master lost his self-possession, order and discipline ceased, and nothing but

self-preservation was thought of. A portion of the crew, including the first mate, lowered one of the boats and left the ship. With them was a single cabin passenger, who threw himself into the boat by means of a rope. These men were picked up, after some hours, and carried into the port of Shields. The scene on board was fearful: men paralyzed by despair; women wringing their hands and shrieking with anguish; and among them the helpless and bewildered master, whose wife, clinging to him, frantically besought the protection he could no longer give. The vessel struck aft the paddle boxes; and not above three minutes after the passengers (most of whom had been below, and many of them in their berths) had rushed upon the deck, a second shock broke her into two pieces. The after part, with most of the passengers and the captain and his wife, was swept away through a tremendous current, and the thirty-five or forty wretches perished in the waves. The fore part, on which were five of the crew and four passengers, stuck fast to the rock. These few survivors remained in their dreadful situation till daybreak, with a fearful sea running around them, and expecting every moment to be swept into the deep. With what anxious eyes did they wait for the morning light! and yet what could mortal help avail them even then? Craggy and dangerous rocky islets lay between them and the nearest land, and around these rocks a sea was raging in which no boat was likely to live. But, through the providence of God, a deliverance was in store for them; a deliverance wrought by the strong heart of an heroic girl. As soon as day broke on the morning of the 7th, they were descried from the Longstone light, by the Darlings, at nearly a mile's distance. None of the family were at home, except Mr. and Mrs. Darling and Grace. Although the wind had somewhat abated, the sea (never calm among these jagged rocks) was still fiercely raging; and to have braved its perils would have done the highest honor to the stoutest muscles and well-trying nerves of the strongest man. But what shall be said of the errand of mercy having been undertaken and accomplished mainly through a female heart and arm! Mr. Darling was reluctant to expose himself to what seemed certain destruction; but the earnest entreaties of his daugh-

ter determined him to make the attempt. At her solicitation the boat was launched, with the mother's assistance; and father and daughter entered it, each taking an oar. It is worthy of notice that Grace never had occasion to assist in the boat previous to the wreck of the *Forfarshire*, others of the family being always at hand.

It was only by the exertion of great muscular strength, as well as by the utmost coolness and resolution, that the father and daughter rowed the boat up to the rock. And when there, a greater danger arose from the difficulty of so managing it as to prevent its being dashed to pieces upon the sharp ridge which had proved fatal to the steamer. With much difficulty and danger, the father scrambled upon the rock, and the boat was left for a while to the unaided strength and skill of the daughter. However, the nine sufferers were safely rescued. The delight with which the boat was first seen was converted into amazement when they perceived that it was guided and impelled by an old man and a slight young woman. Owing to the violence of the storm, the rescued persons were obliged to remain at the lighthouse of the Darlings from Friday morning till Sunday, during which time Grace was most assiduous in her kind attentions to the sufferers, giving up her bed to one of them, a poor woman who had seen her two children perish in her arms, while on the wreck.

This heroic deed of Grace Darling's shot a thrill of sympathy and admiration through all Great Britain, and indeed through all Christendom. The Humane Society sent her a flattering vote of thanks and a piece of plate, and a considerable sum of money was raised for her from the voluntary contributions of an admiring public. The lonely lighthouse became the centre of attraction to thousands of curious and sympathizing travelers; and Grace was pursued, questioned, and stared at to an extent that became a serious annoyance to her gentle and retiring spirit. But in all this hot blaze of admiration, and in her improved fortunes, she preserved unimpaired the simplicity and modesty of her nature. Her head was not in the least turned by the world-wide fame she had earned, or by the flattering caresses of the wealthy, the fashionable, and the distinguished, which were lavished upon her. The meekness with which she bore her

honors equaled the courage which had won them. She resumed her former way of life, and her accustomed duties, as quietly as if nothing had happened. Several advantageous offers of marriage were made to her, but she declined them all; usually alleging her determination not to leave her parents while they lived.

She was not destined long to enjoy the applause she had earned, or the more substantial tokens of regard which had been bestowed upon her. She began to show symptoms of consumption toward the close of the year 1841; and although all the means of restoration which the most affectionate care and the best medical advice could suggest were resorted to, she gradually declined, and breathed her last, in calm submission to the will of God, Oct. 20th, 1842. Her funeral was very numerously attended, and a monument has been erected to her memory in Bamborough church-yard, where she was buried.

DARNLEY, HENRY STUART, Earl of, the husband of Mary, Queen of Scots, came to an untimely death; his house being blown up in the night, Feb. 10th, 1567. He was the father of James I. of England. [See STUARTS.]

DARWIN, ERASMUS, an English physician and poet, born in 1731, at Elton, was the author of the "Botanic Garden" and other works. He died in 1802.

DAUN, LEOPOLD, Count, marshal of the German empire, and during the seven years' war the most successful opponent of Frederick the Great, died in 1766, aged sixty-one.

DAVENANT, Sir WILLIAM, an English poet of the seventeenth century, the author of "Gondibert," a heroic poem, and a theatrical writer and manager under Charles II. He was born in 1605, and died in 1668. He succeeded Ben Jonson as poet-laureate. Scandal hinted that he was the natural son of Shakspeare.

DAVID, JACQUES LOUIS, a French painter, born at Paris in 1750, died at Brussels in 1825. David, though an uncompromising democrat, voting for the death of Louis XVI, was the favorite painter of Napoleon; he was exiled on the emperor's fall. Among his finest works are "Paris and Helen," the "Rape of the Sabine Women," and "Napoleon crossing the Alps." His best performances in portrait-painting are the numerous

likenesses of his imperial patron. The original sketch for one of these, which indeed was never afterward finished, was taken during the last few hours of unlimited power possessed by Napoleon in Paris. The greater part of the preceding day and night had been spent in arranging the final operations of the campaign which terminated in the battle of Waterloo. When now past midnight, instead of retiring to repose, the emperor sent for David, to whom he had promised to sit, and who was in waiting in an apartment of the Tuileries. "My friend," said Napoleon to the artist, "there are yet some hours till four, when we are finally to review the defenses of the capital; in the mean time, do your utmost, while I read these dispatches." But exhausted nature could hold out no longer; the paper dropped from the nerveless hand, and Napoleon sank to sleep. In this attitude the painter has represented him: the pale and lofty forehead, the care-worn features, the relaxed expression, the very accompaniments, bear an impress inexpressibly tender and melancholy. With the dawn Napoleon awoke, and springing to his feet was about to address David, when a taper just expiring in its socket arrested his eye. Folding his arms on his breast, a usual posture of thought with him, he contemplated its dying struggles, when, with the last gleam, the rays of the morning sun penetrated through the half-closed window-curtains. "Were I superstitious," said Napoleon, a faint smile playing about his beautiful mouth, "the first object on which my sight has rested this day might be deemed ominous; but," pointing to the rising sun, "the augury is doubtful: at least the prayer of the Grecian hero will be recorded: we shall perish in light."

DAVIDSON, LUCRETIA MARIA, displayed great talents for composition at the age of four years. She died of incessant application, August 27th, 1825. She was born at Plattsburg, on Lake Champlain, September 27th, 1808. She was a beautiful girl, and her poetic genius was of a high order.

DAVIDSON, WILLIAM, a native of Lancaster county, Pennsylvania, was born in 1746, and in 1750, removed by his parents to Mecklenburg, N. C. At the opening of the Revolution, he entered the army, in which

he rose to the rank of brigadier-general, and fell defending the passage of the Catawba River at Cowan's Ford, against Lord Cornwallis, Feb. 1st, 1781.

DAVIE, WILLIAM RICHARDSON, a distinguished character in the American Revolution. He reached the rank of general, and was afterward governor of North Carolina, and envoy to France. He was born in England, 1756, and died at Camden, S. C., in 1820. He was a member of the convention that framed the federal constitution.

DAVIES, SAMUEL, a distinguished American divine, president of Nassau Hall (now Princeton College), born in Delaware, Nov. 3d, 1724, died in 1762.

DAVIS, JOHN, an English navigator, who gave his name to the straits at the entrance of Baffin's Bay, which he entered in endeavoring to discover the north-west passage in 1585. He afterward made two more voyages for the same purpose, and five to the East Indies in the Dutch service. He was killed by Japanese pirates on the coast of Malacca in 1605.

DAVOUST, LOUIS NICHOLAS, Duke of Auerstadt and Prince of Eckmühl, marshal and peer of France, born in 1770, died in 1823. He studied with Bonaparte, and served under him in his most brilliant campaigns. He only submitted to Louis XVII. when the hopes of Napoleon were irretrievably destroyed.

DAVY, Sir HUMPHREY, a distinguished English chemist, born in 1779, at Penzance, Cornwall, died at Geneva, May 29th, 1829. His experiments on the nature of explosive gas, to which his attention was directed by the frequent accidents occurring to mines from fire damps, resulted in the invention of the safety-lamp. Other important discoveries were made by this distinguished man.

DAY, JOHN, the first printer who introduced the Greek and Saxon characters into England, died in 1584. STEPHEN DAY was the first printer in New England, about 1638.

DEAD SEA, the ancient *Lacus Asphaltites*, a piece of water in Palestine, 180 miles in circuit, which occupies the space whereon the condemned cities of the vale of Siddim stood. The following account of it is from the pen of a traveler. "After the pilgrims had bathed in the Jordan, we left them and turned

down to the south, in company with three or four other English travelers, and a guard from the governor, to visit the Dead Sea. We rode across plains of barren sand for an hour and a half, when we stood upon the banks of this memorable lake. Without any reference to what others have said, I can testify to the following facts. The water is perfectly clear and transparent. The taste is bitter, and salt far beyond that of the ocean. It acts upon the tongue and mouth like alum, and smarts in the eye like camphor, and produces a burning pricking sensation over the whole body. It stiffened the hair of the head much like pomatum. The water has a much greater specific gravity than the human body, and hence, no efforts cause us to sink below the surface; and standing, perpendicularly, you would not descend lower than the arms. Although there was evidence in the sands thrown upon the beach, that in great storms there were waves, yet there appeared to be some foundation for the reports of its immobility. Notwithstanding there was a considerable breeze, the water lay perfectly lifeless. Historians say that large quantities of bitumen were gathered from the surface of this lake; and is it not quite possible, to say the least, that it formerly existed in such quantities as to spread over the whole face of the sea, and thus effectually prevent the wind from interrupting its death-like quietude? Modern travelers state that there is very little of this substance now to be found, and certainly we saw nothing like it. We saw no fish or living animals in the water, though birds were flying over it in various directions unharmed. We all noticed an unnatural gloom hanging, not merely over the sea, but also over the whole plain below Jericho. This is mentioned also by ancient historians. It had the appearance of the Indian summer of the valley. Like a vast funeral pall let down from heaven, it completely shuts out all prospect, at a short distance down the sea."

DEANE, SILAS, was a native of Groton, Conn. He was a member of the first congress, 1774. In June, 1776, he was sent to France as agent for the colonies, and the ensuing autumn was associated with Franklin and Lee as commissioner. His management was unsatisfactory, and he was recalled at the close of 1777. He was charged with

using his official position for purposes of private gain. Returning to Europe after peace came, he died at Deal, England, in 1789, in great destitution.

DEARBORN, HENRY, was born at Hampton, N. H., 1751. He served with distinction through the Revolution. At the battle of Monmouth, Washington noticing his efficiency, sent to inquire what troops he commanded. "Full-blooded Yankees from New Hampshire," was the answer. From 1801 to 1809, Gen. Dearborn was secretary of war. As the senior major-general he commanded the army in 1812 and 1813. From 1822 to 1824, he was minister to Portugal. He died in 1829.

DECATUR, STEPHEN, an American naval commander, born in Maryland, January 5th, 1779. Soon after his entrance into the navy (1798), he received a first-lieutenancy, and for his gallant conduct in recovering the frigate Philadelphia in the harbor of Tripoli, was promoted to the rank of captain. He successively commanded the Constitution, the Congress, the Chesapeake, and the United States. With the latter he captured the Macedonian, October 25th, 1812. In the war with Algiers in 1815, Decatur terrified the regency into submission in forty-eight hours; was equally successful at Tripoli; and procured the renunciation of tribute, and an agreement on the part of the Barbary powers, to regard captives as prisoners of war, and not slaves. Decatur was killed in a duel by Commodore Barron, March 22d, 1820.

DECIUS, the name of a Roman consul who devoted himself to death in battle to save his country, B.C. 340. Also a Roman emperor of this name, who reigned from A.D. 249 till December, 251. He persecuted the Christians.

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE. At an early period in the contest between the mother country and her colonies, sagacious men saw that complete emancipation of the latter from the royal rule must come. Many of the patriots did not anticipate this, but the progress of events brought about the measure which men like Patrick Henry, Benjamin Franklin, Richard Henry Lee, Thomas Paine, Timothy Dwight, had long foreseen and desired. North Carolina was the first

colony that formally instructed her delegates to sustain such a measure, in April, 1776. Indeed, in Mecklenburg county, a year previous, the lovers of liberty had declared themselves independent of the crown, and framed a republican government. The lead of North Carolina was followed by Massachusetts, Virginia, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Hampshire, and New Jersey. Maryland positively forbade her delegates to vote for independence. The delegates of the other colonies were left to act as they thought best. Virginia had taken a step in advance of her sisters: she had desired her delegates to *propose* a declaration of independence. Accordingly, on the 7th of June, 1776, Richard Henry Lee moved the resolution, "That these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown; and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved." John Adams seconded it. This bold and concise resolve made great inroad upon the doubt and delay and hesitation which had clung about the subject in the minds of many. A committee was selected to draught a declaration; it consisted of Thomas Jefferson of Virginia, John Adams of Massachusetts, Benjamin Franklin of Pennsylvania, Roger Sherman of Connecticut, and Robert R. Livingston of New York. Mr. Lee had been summoned away by the illness of his wife, and hence Mr. Jefferson was put upon the committee in his stead. To Mr. Jefferson was assigned the writing of the document, and his draught, after a few slight emendations by Adams and Franklin, was unanimously adopted by the committee. It met more criticism and alteration in Congress, to which body it was reported on the 1st of July. Mr. Lee's resolution was adopted on the 2d, and the declaration on the 4th.

In the subjoined copy of the Declaration of Independence, those portions in italic are the passages of the original draught which were omitted or changed by Congress, and the substitutions follow within brackets.

"A Declaration by the Representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled.

"When, in the course of human events, it

becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

"We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with *inherent and inalienable* [certain unalienable] rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure the serights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundations on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate, that governments, long established, should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, *begun at a distinguished period*, and pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to *expunge* [alter] their former systems of government. The history of the present king of Great Britain is a history of *unremitting* [repeated] injuries and usurpations; *among which appears no solitary fact to contradict the uniform tenor of the rest*; but all have, [having] in direct object, the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these states. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world; *for the truth of which we pledge a faith yet unsullied by falsehood.*

"He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

"He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has *neglected utterly* [utterly neglected] to attend to them.

"He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature; a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

"He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the repository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

"He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly *and continually*, for opposing with manly firmness his invasions on the rights of the people.

"He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise, the state remaining in the mean time exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without and convulsions within.

"He has endeavored to prevent the population of these states; for that purpose obstructing the laws for the naturalization of foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither; and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

"*He has suffered the administration of justice totally to cease in some of these states,* [He has obstructed the administration of justice by] refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

"He has made *our* judges dependent on his will alone, for the tenure of their offices and the amount and payment of their salaries.

"He has created a multitude of new offices *by a self-assumed power*, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance.

"He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies *and ships of war*, without the consent of our legislatures.

"He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

"He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitutions, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation:

"For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us;

"For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these states;

"For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world;

"For imposing taxes on us without our consent;

"For depriving us [in many cases] of the benefits of trial by jury;

"For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offenses;

"For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these states [colonies];

"For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering fundamentally the forms of our governments;

"For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

"He has abdicated government here, *withdrawing his governors, and* [by] declaring us out of his *allegiance and* protection, and waging war against us.

"He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burned our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy [scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally] unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

"He has constrained *others* [our fellow-citizens], taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fill themselves by their hands.

[He has excited domestic insurrections

among us, and] *he* has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions of existence; *he* has excited treasonable insurrections of our fellow-citizens with the allurements of forfeiture and confiscation of our property.

"*He* has waged cruel war against human nature itself, violating its most sacred rights of life and liberty in the persons of a distant people, who never offended him, captivating and carrying them into slavery in another hemisphere, or to incur miserable death in their transportation thither. This piratical warfare, the opprobrium of infidel powers, is the warfare of the Christian king of Great Britain. Determined to keep open a market where men should be bought and sold, he has prostituted his negative for suppressing every legislative attempt to prohibit or to restrain this execrable commerce. And that this assemblage of horrors might want no fact of distinguished dye, he is now exciting those very people to rise in arms among us, and to purchase that liberty of which *He* has deprived them by murdering the people upon whom *He* obtruded them: thus paying off former crimes committed against the LIBERTIES of one people with crimes which he urges them to commit against the LIVES of another.

"In every stage of these oppressions, we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms: our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a people who mean to be free [free people]. Future ages will scarce believe that the hardness of one man adventured, within the short compass of twelve years only, to build a foundation, so broad and undisguised, for tyranny over a people fostered and fixed in principles of freedom.

"Nor have we been wanting in attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend a [an unwarrantable] jurisdiction over these our states [us]. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here, *no one of which could warrant so strange a pretension; that these were effected at the expense*

of our own blood and treasure, unassisted by the wealth or strength of Great Britain; that in constituting, indeed, our several forms of government, we had adopted one common king, thereby laying a foundation for perpetual league and amity with them; but that submission to their parliament was no part of our constitution, nor ever in idea, if history may be credited; and We [have] appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, as well as to [and we have conjured them by] the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations which were likely to [would inevitably] interrupt our connection and correspondence. They too have been deaf to the voice of justice and consanguinity; and when occasions have been given them, by the regular course of their laws, of removing from their councils the disturbers of our harmony, they have, by their free election, re-established them in power. At this very time, too, they are permitting their chief magistrate to send over, not only soldiers of our common blood, but Scotch and foreign mercenaries to invade and destroy us. These facts have given the last stab to agonizing affection, and manly spirit bids us to renounce forever these unfeeling brethren. We must endeavor to forget our former love for them. [We must therefore acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war; in peace, friends.]

"We might have been a free and great people together; but a communication of grandeur and of freedom, it seems, is below their dignity. Be it so, since they will have it. The road to happiness and to glory is open to us too; we will climb it apart from them, and acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our eternal separation."

"We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America in general congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name, and by the authority, of the good people of these states, *reject and renounce all allegiance and subjection to the kings of Great Britain, and all others who may hereafter claim by, through, or under them; we utterly dissolve all political connection which may heretofore have sub-*

sisted between us and the parliament or people of Great Britain; and finally, we do assert the colonies to be free and independent states; [colonies, solemnly publish and declare that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved;] and that, as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, [with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence,] we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor."

The Declaration was signed by John Hancock, president of Congress, on the day of its adoption. It was suitably engrossed on parchment, and on the 2d of August the delegates set their names to it. The signers were as follows: New Hampshire, Josiah Bartlett, William Whipple, Matthew Thornton. Massachusetts, John Hancock, John Adams, Samuel Adams, Robert Treat Paine, Elbridge Gerry. Rhode Island, Stephen Hopkins, William Ellery. Connecticut, Roger Sherman, Samuel Huntington, William Williams, Oliver Wolcott. New York, William Floyd, Philip Livingston, Francis Lewis, Lewis Morris. New Jersey, Richard Stockton, John Witherspoon, Francis Hopkinson, John Hart, Abraham Clark. Pennsylvania, Robert Morris, Benjamin Rush, Benjamin Franklin, John Morton, George Clymer, James Smith, George Taylor, James Wilson, George Ross. Delaware, Cæsar Rodney, George Read, Thomas M'Kean. Maryland, Samuel Chase, Thomas Stone, William Paca, Charles Carroll of Carrollton. Virginia, George Wythe, Richard Henry Lee, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Harrison, Thomas Nelson, Jr., Francis Lightfoot Lee, Carter Braxton. North Carolina, William Hooper, Joseph Hewes, John Penn. South Carolina, Edward Rutledge, Thomas Hayward, Jr., Thomas Lynch, Jr., Arthur Middleton. Georgia, Button Gwinnett, Lyman Hall, George Walton. Sketches of these patriotic and brave men will be found in their appropriate places.

The declaration thus put forth was made good through an arduous struggle and desperate endurance, and a prosperous people reverently look to the 4th of July, 1776, as the birthday of their freedom and happiness.

DEFOE, DANIEL, the father of the English novel, born at London in 1661, was intended to be a Presbyterian minister, but turned aside to commercial enterprises, in which he was unsuccessful. He became a vigorous political pamphleteer, offended the ruling powers, and reaped a plentiful crop of fines, pillory, and prison. Dear-bought experience led him to abandon politics, and in 1709 there came forth "Robinson Crusoe," that freshest and most fascinating of romances. This was followed by various other fictions, some almost as vivid, till his life closed in 1731. There is a curious instance of the wonderful air of truth with which he could invest his fictions. For a heavy theological book he wrote an elaborate puff, entitled, "A true Relation of the Apparition of one Mrs. Veal, the next day after her Death, to one Mrs. Bargrave, at Canterbury, the Eighth of September, 1705, which Apparition recommends the perusal of Drelincourt's Book of Consolations against the Fears of

Death." The circumstantial account was widely credited, and the ghostly recommendation worked off a large edition of a volume otherwise wholly unsalable.

DEJANIRA, daughter of Æneus, king of Calydon, an Ætolian city, was the wife of Hercules, and the innocent cause of his death. The centaur Nessus, whom Hercules killed for insulting Dejanira, in dying, gave her a tunic dipped in his blood, which he said would restore to her the affections of her husband if he put it on. When she considered herself in danger from his inconstancy, she sent Hercules the garment, which he no sooner put on than a mortal poison penetrated to his vitals, and he died in agony.

DE KALB, Baron, was a native of Alsace. He had served forty-two years in the French service when he came to America with Lafayette in the spring of 1777. Congress at once gave the silver-haired and vigorous veteran a major-general's commission. His experience was of much service to the Americans. In the battle of Camden, Aug. 16th, 1780, while trying to rally his scattered troops, he fell pierced with eleven wounds.



DELAWARE has the bay of the same name and the Atlantic Ocean on the east, Maryland on the south and west, and Pennsylvania on the north. Having a length from north to south of ninety-two miles, and varying in width between ten and thirty-six miles, its area is 2,120 square miles. It is thus the smallest state in the Union with the exception

of Rhode Island, and in point of population it falls behind that state. The population of Delaware in 1860 was 112,216; of whom 19,829 were free colored persons, and 1,798 slaves. The surface is very level, in the south marshy, and in the north slightly undulating. The Brandywine is a fine mill-stream. The commerce of Delaware is inconsiderable. AGRICULTURE.

culture is the chief occupation of the inhabitants, and grain and flour are the principal exports. A canal navigable for steamers and ships crosses the state, connecting the Chesapeake and Delaware Bays. It was completed in 1829 at a cost of \$2,250,000.

Delaware was first settled by the Swedes and Fins, in 1627. The Dutch gained possession of it, but the English in 1664 became the masters of it. It was granted to William Penn, and it formed a part of Pennsylvania till 1776, though from 1701 with a distinct legislative assembly. It was generally styled the Three Lower Counties upon Delaware. The name 'Delaware' was given to the bay and river in honor of Lord De La Ware, who was governor of Virginia in 1611.

The general assembly of Delaware consists of a senate of nine members, and a house of twenty-one representatives. Its sessions and the general elections are biennial. The governor is elected for four years, and is not eligible for a second term. The right of suffrage is granted to every white male citizen of the age of twenty-two or more, who has resided within the state one year, and paid a county tax; and every white male citizen under twenty-two and over twenty-one, who has resided in the state a year, can vote without payment of such tax. The state is divided into three counties, which are subdivided into hundreds. Judicial power is vested in four judges (one of whom is chief-justice, the others associate law judges, residents of separate counties) and a chancellor, all appointed by the governor, and holding office during good behavior. The chief-justice and two associates constitute the superior court. No associate judge can sit within his own county. Such inferior courts as are needed may be established by the general assembly. The whole bench, including the chancellor, form a court of error and appeal, and the powers of a court of chancery are vested in the latter magistrate together with the resident judge of the county. Among religious sects, the Presbyterians and Methodists are the most numerous; there are also many Episcopalians and Baptists, some Roman Catholics, and a few Quakers.

Dover (pop. 4,200) is the capital, but Wilmington is the most important town. Its population in 1860, was 21,508. The broad

and airy streets cross at right angles; the houses are generally brick. The flouring mills of Wilmington are among the largest in the country; gunpowder is extensively made; and the valuable water-power of the Brandywine moves the busy machinery of many other thriving manufactories. New-castle, five miles from Wilmington, and once the capital, has nearly 2,000 inhabitants. Lewiston is a small village, near Cape Henlopen, opposite which a breakwater has been built by the general government at a cost of little less than \$2,250,000.

DELHI, an ancient city of Hindostan, on the river Jumna. It contains many splendid edifices. It was taken by the Mohammedans in 1193. Once it was the great capital of the Mogul empire, and so late as 1700 it had a million inhabitants. It is now in decay. In 1738, when Nadir Shah invaded Hindostan, he conquered Delhi, and dreadful massacres and famine followed. In 1803, the Mahrattas, aided by the French, got possession of the place, but they were afterward expelled by Gen. Lake. In 1857, the Sepoy rebels made Delhi their headquarters. A small force of British besieged it. After standing their ground for months before an overwhelming array of native forces, the Europeans assaulted the city, although containing at least twice their number of enemies, and after a stout resistance, carried it on the 20th of September.

DELOS, the smallest island of the Cyclades. was famed in ancient times for the number and skill of its artists, and for the splendid temple and oracle of Apollo. It was the birth-place of Apollo and his sister Diana, according to fable, being raised as an asylum to their mother, Latona, when she was pursued from place to place by the implacable Juno.

DELPHI, the seat of a famous oracle of Apollo, situated in Phocis, on the southern side of Parnassus. The fount of inspiration was said to be a chasm from which issued an intoxicating vapor. A temple was built over this, and the tripod of the priestess (sometimes called the Pythoness from Pythius, the surname of Apollo) was placed where she could breathe the ascending vapor. She was agitated with extreme fury; she howled and vowed, her eyes sparkled, and she gave every evidence of being possessed by a spirit. The

Pythian games were celebrated in the vicinity of Delphi, which is now the village of Castrì. [*See* *ÆSOP*, *ORACLES*.]

DELUGE, the flood or inundation of waters by which God destroyed mankind and animals in the time of Noah, and in which, as St. Peter says, only eight persons were saved. According to the received chronology, this great event was threatened in the year of the world 1536. It began Dec. 7th, 1656, and continued three hundred and seventy-seven days. The ark rested on Mount Ararat, May 6th, 1657, and Noah left the ark Dec. 18th following. The year corresponds with that of 2348 B.C. Almost all savage nations, even those sunk the deepest in barbarism, have a tradition of an universal deluge. A traveler among the Indians of the north-west coast of America heard of it from one of the savages, and asked him how long ago it occurred? The savage scooped up from the floor of his cabin a handful of sand, and promptly replied, "As many moons ago as there are grains of sand in this heap." The Araucanians in Chili preserve the tradition of a universal deluge from which a few persons were saved upon the top of a mountain having three peaks, called *Thegtheg*, or 'thundering mountain,' which floated upon the waves. The Aztecs supposed that a universal deluge occurred, in which all mankind except one man and one woman were changed into fishes. This lucky pair were saved in the hollow of a tree. Their children were all born mute, were taught speech by a dove, and each learned a different language. In 1524, alarm was spread quite widely in Europe by the prediction that another general deluge was at hand, and arks were everywhere built for refuge against the fluvial calamity; but the appointed time happened to be uncommonly dry and fine.

DEMETRIUS, surnamed *Soter*, son of Seleucus Philopater, the son of Antiochus the Great, King of Syria. His father gave him as a hostage to the Romans. After the death of Seleucus, Antiochus Epiphanes, the deceased monarch's brother, usurped the kingdom of Syria, and was succeeded by his son Antiochus Eupater. This usurpation displeased Demetrius, who was detained at Rome; he therefore procured his liberty on pretense of going to hunt, and fled to Syria, where the troops received him as their lawful sovereign,

B.C. 162. He put to death Eupater and Lysias, and established himself on his throne by cruelty and oppression. Alexander Balas, the son of Antiochus Epiphanes, laid claim to the crown of Syria, and slew Demetrius in battle in the twelfth year of his reign.

DEMETRIUS, a Macedonian, son of Antigonus and Stratonice, surnamed from his successes, *Poliorcetes*, or the 'destroyer of towns.' At the age of twenty-two, he was sent by his father against Ptolemy, who had invaded Syria. He was defeated near Gaza, but soon repaired his loss by a victory over one of the generals of the enemy. He afterward sailed with a fleet of two hundred and fifty ships to Athens, and restored the Athenians to liberty, by freeing them from the power of Cassander and Ptolemy, and expelled the garrison which was stationed there under Demetrius Phalereus. After this successful expedition, he besieged and took Mynychia, and defeated Cassander at Thermopylæ. This uncommon success raised the jealousy of the successors of Alexander; and Seleucus, Cassander, and Lysimachus, united to destroy Antigonus and his son. Their hostile armies met at Ipsus, B.C. 391. Antigonus was killed in the battle; and Demetrius, after a severe loss, retired to Ephesus. His ill success raised him many enemies; the fickle Athenians, who had lately adored him as a god, refused to admit him into their city. He soon after ravaged the territories of Lysimachus, and reconciled himself to Seleucus, to whom he gave his daughter Stratonice in marriage. Athens now labored under tyranny; and Demetrius relieved it and pardoned its inhabitants. The loss of his Asiatic possessions recalled him from Greece, and he established himself on the throne of Macedonia, 294 B.C. Here he was continually at war with the neighboring states; and the superior power of his adversaries obliged him to leave Macedonia, after he had filled the throne seven years. He passed into Asia and attacked some of the provinces of Lysimachus with various success; but famine and pestilence destroyed the greatest part of his army, and he retired to the court of Seleucus for support and assistance. He met with a kind reception, but hostilities between them soon began; and after he had gained some advantages over his son-in-law, Demetrius was totally forsaken by his troops in battle, and be-

came an easy prey to the enemy. Though he was kept in confinement by his son-in-law, yet he lived like a prince, and passed his time in hunting, and in every laborious exercise. His son Antigonus offered Seleucus all his possessions, and even his person, to procure his father's liberty; but all proved unavailing, and Demetrius died in the fifty-fourth year of his age, B.C. 284.

DEMOCRITUS, a philosopher of Abdera, who was born about 494 B.C. He is commonly called the laughing philosopher, because he is said to have been in the habit of amusing himself with the follies of mankind, while Heraclitus (the weeping philosopher) wept at them. He placed the chief good in a tranquil mind.

DEMOSTHENES, an Athenian orator, son of a sword-cutter, born about 381 B.C., famous to have risen to the highest reputation by perseverance in overcoming the apparently insurmountable obstacles which opposed him. He was the determined opponent of Philip of Macedon, continually urging the Athenians to resist him. The orations which he delivered on these occasions were termed *Philippics*, a name since applied to all invective declamation. He was banished from Athens, and suddenly died 319 B.C.

DENHAM, **DIXON**, lieutenant-colonel in the British army, associated with Captain Clapperton and Docteur Oudney, in exploring Central Africa. Soon after being appointed lieutenant-governor of Sierra Leone, he died in 1828, at the age of forty-two.

DENHAM, **SIR JOHN**, author of "Cooper's Hill" and other poems, born in Dublin 1615, died in 1668.

DENMARK (the land or mark of the Dane), also called the *Danske Stat* (the States of Denmark), is in form a slender peninsula, with an area of 21,900 square miles, and a population of 2,605,024 in 1866. Its colonial possessions are the Farøe Islands, Iceland, Greenland, and the West Indian isles of Santa Cruz, St. Thomas, and St. John's. The surface of Denmark presents an almost uniform plain, elevated only a few feet above the level of the sea, but occasionally relieved by small groups of hills, whose wooded summits break the monotony of the landscape, and with the numerous small lakes and inlets from the sea give the country a very pleasing appearance. Den-

mark is an agricultural country, and in general the soil is well suited to tillage. The climate is temperate. Among the vegetable productions are wheat, rye, oats, barley, beans, pease, and potatoes. The commercial exports are principally grain, horses, cattle, beef, pork, butter, and cheese. The herring and other fisheries form an important branch of industry. The Lutheran is the predominant religion, but every other is tolerated. Much attention is paid to education. By law every child between the ages of seven and fourteen must attend some school; and free schools are provided for all whose parents are unable to pay tuition. The press is under rather strict censorship. The government was formerly an absolute hereditary monarchy; in 1848 a constitution somewhat limiting the royal power, was promulgated. Another constitution was granted in 1854. As Duke of Holstein and Lauenburg, the king is a member of the Germanic confederation.

The capital of the kingdom is Copenhagen (*Kjøbenhavn*, 'merchants' haven'), which had a population of 129,695 in 1850. It stands on the east coast of the island of Zealand, and has a good harbor, and an extensive commerce, although formerly but a poor fishing village. It was threatened by Charles XII., who, however, gave up the idea of capturing it. The city has suffered severely from several conflagrations. In April, 1801, it was bombarded by the British under Lord Nelson. The Danish fleet was taken, and a flag of truce alone saved the city from destruction. It was again attacked in 1807 by the English under Admiral Gambier, and Lord Cathcart. After severe firing, which commenced on the 2d of September, a capitulation was settled on the 8th, and the citadel, dock-yards, batteries, vessels, and naval stores were taken possession of by the British. Altona (population 33,000) is the second city in the kingdom. Its suburbs and those of Hamburg are only separated by a field. Though not so active as its neighbor, its commerce is yet important.

The early history of Denmark is obscure and uninteresting, containing merely the adventures of predatory warriors, whose pre-eminence consisted in ferocity and courage. During the eighth and ninth centuries they established their dominion in parts of England, which they scourged by their invasions until

the middle of the eleventh century; a band of them under Rollo planted themselves in Normandy; they colonized the Orkneys, the Hebrides, and Iceland, and pushed their settlements as far south as Spain, Italy, and Sicily.

Canute the Great, who sat on the Danish throne in the early years of the eleventh century, possessed himself of the whole of England, a part of Scotland, and all Norway. To this monarch Denmark was indebted for laws, internal organization, an era of might, and the ordination of Christianity as the religion of the country. His successors were of weaker mettle, till the time of Margaret, the daughter of Waldemar, often called the Semiramis of the north, who in 1397 united in her own person, the crowns of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway. This union, however, did not continue longer than the beginning of the sixteenth century, when Christian II. was obliged to renounce all claims to Sweden. Christian II. was nicknamed the Wicked. The crown was transferred to Frederick, Duke of Schleswig and Holstein; whence these duchies became united with the kingdom. During the wars of the French revolution Denmark remained neutral; but on contesting the right of search as to her mercantile shipping, insisted upon by England, which led her into a defensive alliance with Russia, Prussia, and Sweden, she sacrificed her colonies in the East and West Indies, and suffered severely off Copenhagen in 1801, as we have already mentioned. Her colonies were restored to her by the treaty of peace that followed. In the treaty of Tilsit, in 1807, were secret articles, providing that the Danish navy should be delivered to Napoleon, to aid him in his threatened descent upon England. This occasioned a fresh rupture with England, and a second attack upon Copenhagen. By the treaty of Kiel in 1814, Denmark accepted Pomerania from Sweden in exchange for Norway. Pomerania, the next year, she turned over to Prussia for the duchy of Lauenburg and a large sum of money. In 1845, she sold her African and East Indian colonies to England.

The Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, peopled mostly by Germans, after long quarreling, revolted from Denmark in 1849, and were compelled to submit by the interposition of Prussia and Austria. A similar diffi-

culty arose in 1864, from an attempt to fuse the Duchies thoroughly with Denmark; and Austria and Prussia now interfered on the other side, and easily forced Denmark to give up the Duchies.

KINGS OF DENMARK.

- 883. Gormo, the old.
- 935. Harald II., surnamed Blue-tooth.
- 985. Suenon, or Sweyn, surnamed the Forked-beard.
- 1014. Canute II., the Great, King of Denmark, England, and Norway.
- 1036. Canute III., his son, the Hardicanute of England.
- 1042. Magnus, surnamed the Good, of Norway.
- 1047. Suenon, or Sweyn II.
- 1073. [Interregnum.]
- 1077. Harald, called the Simple.
- 1080. Canute IV.
- 1086. Olaus IV., the Hungry.
- 1095. Eric III., styled the Good.
- 1103. [Interregnum.]
- 1105. Nicholas I., killed at Sleswick.
- 1135. Eric IV., surnamed Harefoot.
- 1137. Erick V. the Lamb.
- 1147. { Suenon, or Sweyn III., beheaded.
{ Canute V., until 1154.
- 1157. Waldemar, styled the Great.
- 1182. Canute VI., surnamed the Pious.
- 1202. Waldemar II., the Victorious.
- 1241. Eric VI.
- 1250. Abel; assassinated his elder brother Eric; killed in an expedition against the Frisians.
- 1252. Christopher I., poisoned.
- 1259. Eric VII.
- 1286. Eric VIII.
- 1290. Christopher II.
- 1334. [Interregnum.]
- 1340. Waldemar III.
- 1376. Olaus V.
- 1387. Margaret, styled the Semiramis of the North, Queen of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden.
- 1397. Margaret, and Eric IX. (Eric XIII. of Sweden), jointly.
- 1412. Eric IX. reigns alone; obliged to resign both crowns.
- 1438. [Interregnum.]
- 1440. Christopher III., King of Sweden.
- 1448. Christian I., Count of Oldenburg, elected King of Scandinavia, which comprehended Denmark, Sweden, and Norway; succeeded by his son.
- 1481. John, succeeded by his son.
- 1513. Christian II., called the Cruel, and the Nero of the North; among other enormous crimes he caused all the Swedish nobility to be massacred; dethroned for his tyranny in 1523; died in a dungeon, 1559. [In this reign Sweden succeeded in sundering itself from the crown of Denmark.]
- 1523. Frederick, Duke of Holstein, uncle to Christian II.; a liberal ruler.

1534. Christian III., son of Frederick; established the Lutheran faith; esteemed the 'Father of his People.'
1559. Frederick II., son of Christian III.
1588. Christian IV., son of Frederick II.; chosen head of the Protestant league against the emperor.
1648. Frederick III.; changed the government from an elective to an hereditary monarchy, vested in his own family.
1670. Christian V., son of Frederick III.; succeeded by his son.
1699. Frederick IV.; leagued with the Czar Peter and Poland against Charles XII. of Sweden.
1730. Christian VI., his son.
1746. Frederick V., his son.
1766. Christian VII., son of the preceding; married Caroline Matilda, sister of George III., of England. In a spasm of jealousy, 1772, he banished his wife to Zell (where she died), and put to death his ministers Brandt and Struensee.
1784. [Regency.] The Crown-Prince Frederick declared regent in consequence of the insanity of his father.
1808. Frederick VI., previously regent.
1839. Christian VIII., his son.
1848. Frederick VII., his son, born October 6th, 1808; died Nov. 15, 1863.
1863. Christian IX., his son, born April 8, 1816, became King, Nov. 16, 1863.

DANNEWITZ, BATTLE OF. In this conflict a remarkable victory was obtained by Marshal Bernadotte, then Crown-Prince of Sweden, over Marshal Ney, Sept. 6th, 1813. The loss of the French exceeded 16,000.

DENNIE, JOSEPH, born at Boston, in 1768, and educated at Harvard College, possessed brilliant genius, which he evinced in several papers that he edited, the *Portfolio* among others. He wanted industry and discretion, and died in 1812, of disease produced by irregularity and anxiety.

D'EON, the Chevalier. This extraordinary personage, who had been acting in a diplomatic capacity in several countries, and who was for some time the minister of Louis XV. in London, was proved to be a woman, on a trial in an action to recover wagers as to his sex, in 1777. He subsequently wore female attire for many years: yet at his death, in London, 1800, it was manifest, by the dissection of his body, and other undoubted evidence, that he was a male.

DESAIX DE VOYGOUX, LOUIS CHARLES ANTOINE, a French general, was born of a noble family at St. Hilaire de Agat, in Bretagne, in 1768. He served under Pichegru

and Moreau, and commanded, under Bonaparte in Upper Egypt, a division of troops destined to pursue and keep in awe the Mamelukes, whom he attacked and put to flight near the pyramids of Saccara, in Upper Egypt. At the battle of Marengo, the splendid success of which was the result of the opportune arrival of his columns on the field, he was killed, June 14th, 1800. His last words were, "Tell the first consul that my only regret in dying is that I perish before having done enough to live in the recollection of posterity." When Napoleon heard of his death, he cried, "Victory at such a price is dear." At night Bourrienne said to Napoleon, "What a glorious day!" "Yes," was the sad reply, "very glorious, could I this evening but have embraced Desaix upon the field of battle." On the same day that the fatal bullet pierced the heart of Desaix, an assassin in Egypt plunged a dagger into the bosom of Kleber. At St. Helena Napoleon said, "Of all my generals, Desaix and Kleber had the greatest talent. In particular Desaix, as Kleber loved glory only as the means of acquiring wealth and pleasure; Desaix loved glory for itself. To him riches and luxury were of no value. He was a little black man, an inch shorter than myself, always badly dressed, sometimes even ragged, and despising alike comfort and convenience. Wrapped in a cloak, he slept under a gun as contentedly as in a palace. Frank and honest in all his ways, the Arabs called him the just sultan. Nature intended him to figure as a consummate general. Desaix and Kleber were irreparable losses to France."

DESCARTES, RENE, born at La Haye, in Touraine, in 1596, and died at Stockholm in 1650. As a soldier, mathematician, and original philosopher, he greatly distinguished himself.

DESIEZE, RAYMOND, the talented advocate who defended the unfortunate Louis XVI. On the restoration of the Bourbons, he was loaded with honors, 1750-1828.

DESMOULINS, BENOIT CAMILLE, a French revolutionist, who was condemned to death by the revolutionary tribunal in April, 1794, at the age of thirty-three.

DESSAIX, JOSEPH MARIE, Count, a native of Savoy, where he was born in 1764, and distinguished for his military services in the

French army. At the siege of Toulon, he bore a part. He was appointed by Napoleon general of division, and grand officer of the legion of honor. He died in 1825.

DESSALINES, JEAN JACQUES, Emperor of Hayti, was originally a slave. After the French had been expelled from the island in 1803, Dessalines was appointed governor-general, but assumed the title and state of emperor; and having been guilty of many atrocities, he was killed by a soldier, Oct. 17th, 1806.

DETTINGEN, BATTLE OF, between the British, Hanoverian, and Hessian army, 52,000 strong, commanded by George II. and the Earl of Stair, and the French army, 60,000 strong, under Marshal Noailles and the Duc de Grammont, June 16th, 1743. The French were defeated.

DE WITT, JOHN, grand-pensionary of Holland, a famous statesman, was born in 1625. He imbibed from his father a hatred for the house of Orange. Accordingly, in the war between England and Holland, he attempted to abolish the stadtholdership, and succeeded in separating that office from that of captain-general. He was forced, however, to make some concessions, and beheld, with mortification, William of Orange procure the post of commander-in-chief. De Witt resigned his employments when William was chosen stadtholder, to the joy of all, and, being thrown into prison, was murdered by the populace, who broke in upon him, August 20th, 1672. When De Witt was once asked how it happened that he got through so much business and of such varied kind, for he was not only a great statesman and a minister, but also a most eminent mathematician and literary man; his answer was that it was by two rules which he always observed: to do one thing only at a time, and never to put off till to-morrow what he could do to-day. These were his golden rules.

DEXTER, SAMUEL, a distinguished orator, lawyer, and statesman, was born at Boston, Mass., in 1761, and was educated at Harvard College. He studied law, but was soon chosen to the state legislature, and thence transferred to Congress where his ability and patriotism were properly appreciated. Under President Adams he was at first secretary of war, and then of the treasury. Declining

the public offices which were afterward offered him, he employed himself in the lucrative and honorable profession of the law, being intrusted with cases of the utmost importance. He died at Athens, N. Y., in 1816.

DIAMONDS were first polished and cut at Bruges, 1489. Diamond mines were discovered in Brazil, 1728; those at Coulour in the East Indies, 1640; those at Golconda, in 1584. A diamond was sent from Brazil for the court of Portugal, weighing 1680 carats, or fourteen ounces, and was valued at £224,000,000; it is not very brilliant, and its true value is only £400,000. Governor Pitt's weighed 126 carats, and 106 after cutting, and sold for £125,000, to the king of France. That which belonged to Aurung Zebe weighed 793 carats, in a rough state, and when cut 279 carats, worth £779,244. The Grand Duke of Tuscany's weighed 139 carats. The celebrated diamond called the Koh-i-noor, or 'Mountain of Light,' was found in the mines of Golconda in 1550. Precisely three centuries after, it was brought to England. Its original weight was nearly eight hundred carats. Unskillful cutting reduced it to two hundred and seventy-nine. Its value has been estimated at two millions sterling.

DIANA, in mythology the daughter of Jupiter and Latona, and twin sister of Apollo, born at Delos. She was the goddess of hunting, chastity, and marriage, though she remained unmarried. She is supposed to have been the Isis of the Egyptians.

DICKENSON, JOHN, was born in Maryland, Nov. 13th, 1732. He was bred to the law in Philadelphia and at the Temple in London. He was an earnest advocate of the rights of the colonies. He had been a member of the stamp-act congress of 1765, and he represented Pennsylvania in the earlier continental congresses. Opposed to political separation from Great Britain, as too premature, he yet would not vote against his brother patriots, and on the memorable 4th of July he was absent from his seat. Independence once declared, he defended it both by word and sword. He helped to frame the federal constitution, and was its warm friend. He died at Wilmington, Del., Feb. 14th, 1808.

DIDO, the founder of the city of Carthage, also called Elisa, was a daughter of Belus,

monarch of Tyre, and married Sichæus, or Sicharbas, her uncle, a priest of Hercules. Pygmalion, the successor of Belus, murdered the husband of Dido, for the sake of his wealth, and with a number of Tyrians the unhappy queen set sail to found a colony in some distant land. A storm drove them upon the African shore, where Dido built her citadel, 869 B.C., and soon had the satisfaction of finding the colony in a thriving condition. The persecutions of Jarbas, the Mauritanian king, who wished to marry her, proved fatal to her, for having vowed to her husband never to wed a second time, she ascended a funeral pile, and perished in the flames. For this action she was called Dido, or 'valiant woman.' Her connection with Æneas was an invention of Virgil, for they were not even contemporaries.

DIEMEN, ANTHONY VAN, governor-general of the Dutch East India settlements, born in 1593. He went to the Indies as a clerk, but rose with great rapidity. His administration was judicious and successful. He died in 1645. [*See* VAN DIEMEN'S LAND.]

DIGBY, Sir KENELM (son of Sir Everard Digby, who was condemned and executed for his participation in the gunpowder plot), was born at Gothurst, in Buckinghamshire, in 1603. He was educated at Oxford, and was originally a Protestant, but was converted to the Romish religion in 1636. He was one of the gentlemen of the bed-chamber to Charles I., commissioner of the navy, and governor of the Trinity-house. He fought against the Venetians at Scuderoon. He was the author of several philosophical treatises.

DIOCLETIAN, a famous Roman emperor, born of an obscure family of Dalmatia, first a common soldier, then general, and proclaimed emperor, 284 A.D. He made Maximian a comrade, his colleague, and created two subordinate emperors, Galerius and Constantius, with the title of Cæsars. Some of the acts of his reign are meritorious, but he disgraced himself by a persecution of the Christians. After a reign of twenty-one years, he voluntarily and publicly abdicated the throne at Nicomedia, May 1st, A.D. 305, and his colleague shortly after followed his example. He found sufficient pleasure in the cultivation of his little garden, and died in 313.

DIODATI, JOHN, a Protestant divine, professor of theology at Geneva, where he died in 1649.

DIODORUS SICULUS (Diodorus the Sicilian), a Greek historian of the time of Julius Cæsar and Augustus.

DIOGENES (born at Sinope in Pontus, 413 B.C.) was a famous Cynic philosopher, one of that sect that sternly opposed luxury and immorality, discarding all superfluities. Diogenes humorously ridiculed the follies of human nature, and made even the objects of his satire laugh at his practical jests and lessons. He perambulated the streets of Athens in the garb and manner of a sturdy beggar, and slept in a tub. He was rigidly temperate, and despised the forms of polite society. While at Corinth Alexander the Great paid him a visit, but was astonished at the indifferent air of the philosopher. He made an offer of service, but Diogenes replied, "I only want you to stand out of my sunshine." His independence made such an impression on the Macedonian that he cried, "If I were not Alexander, I should wish to be Diogenes." He once carried a lantern about Athens at mid-day, and being asked why he was doing so, answered, "I am looking for a man." Being asked what was the most dangerous animal? he answered, "Among wild ones, the slanderer; among tame, the flatterer." Plato having described man as a two-legged animal without feathers, and received applause for the definition, Diogenes plucked a live fowl, and carrying it to the Academy, exclaimed, "Here is Plato's man!" He died at a great age, 324 B.C. Had this itinerant philosopher lived in these degenerate days, he would have become obnoxious to the police as a vagrant, and found it extremely difficult to avoid the stocks, the work-house, or the treadmill!

DIOMEDES, a king of Bistones, who is fabled to have fed his horses upon human flesh, and to have therefore been killed by Hercules.

DIOMEDES, a Grecian hero, king of Argos, who led his subjects to the siege of Troy. After the war he went to Italy, where he is said to have lived to a good old age.

DION, of Syracuse, was related to Dionysius, and often gave him advice. The tyrant banished him to Greece, where he

raised troops, and entering the harbor of Syracuse with only two ships, reduced it in three days. The tyrant fled, and Dion retained the power in his own hands, but was murdered by a false friend, Calippus of Athens, B.C. 354.

DIONYSIUS I., or the Elder, from the rank of a common soldier raised himself to the throne of Syracuse. He was inimical to the Carthaginians, and fought against them with various success. His tyranny and cruelty rendered him so odious to his subjects, that he lived in constant dread of assassination, and never permitted even his wife and children to enter his presence until their garments had been searched for concealed weapons. He is said to have built a subterraneous cave, called the ear of Dionysius, because it was built in the form of a human ear, concentrated the sound of voices within it, and conveyed them distinctly to his hearing. The artists employed upon the work were killed for fear of their disclosing the secrets of its construction, and the use to which it was applied.

Dionysius was constantly betraying his unhappiness. When one of his flatterers, Damocles, was discoursing on his magnificence, riches, and power, Dionysius said to him, "These things seem to delight you; make a trial of my place, by way of experiment." Damocles was instantly arrayed in the imperial purple, and surrounded by the king's guards, while every knee was bent to do him homage. In the midst of this show, Dionysius ordered a naked sword to be hung from the ceiling by a horse-hair, directly over the royal throne, where Damocles was sitting at a feast. From that moment the courtier-king lost his appetite, his joy vanished, and he begged to be restored to the security of his former condition. Dionysius thus tacitly acknowledged that his happiness was poisoned by a dread of the punishment which was due to his iniquity and cruelty. He died of poison administered at the instigation of his son, B.C. 368. He was very vain, and imagined that he possessed literary talents of a high order, although his poetical effusions were lamentable failures.

DIONYSIUS, the Younger, was the son of Dionysius I. By the advice of Dion, Plato was invited to court, and the philosopher

endeavored to instill into the tyrant's mind some of those precepts which were his own guide through life. The king neglected his advice, and, after suffering for frankness, Plato quitted him in disgust. Driven from the throne he had disgraced, B.C. 357, he again returned to it after an absence of ten years, but lost it a second time, and finally went to Corinth, where to support himself he kept a school, that, as Cicero observes, he might still be a tyrant. We can readily imagine the sufferings of the wretched urchins upon the interior and exterior of whose heads the ex-king labored. His pupils, we are told, were few, nor can we wonder that the pedagogue was so poorly patronized.

DIONYSIUS, one of the judges of the Areopagus at Athens, was converted to Christianity by the apostle Paul, and was the first Bishop of Athens. He was the author of some polemical writings, and suffered martyrdom.

DISCOVERIES, in modern times.

861. *Faroe Islands*—discovered about this time by a Norwegian vessel.

871. *Iceland*—discovered by some Norwegian chiefs who were compelled to leave their native country. According to some accounts, it had been visited before this, by a Scandinavian pirate, Naddodd.

980. *Greenland*—discovered by the Icelanders about this period. The first colony established there was destroyed by a pestilence in the fourteenth century, and by the accumulation of ice which prevented all communication between Iceland and Greenland.

1000. *Winenland*—a part of the continent of America, from Labrador as far south as Rhode Island, is supposed to have been discovered by the Icelanders. It was called *Winenland*, or *Vinland*, from the abundance of a species of vine found there. The Icelandic chronicles are full and minute respecting this discovery.

1330. *Canary Isles*—discovered by a French ship driven among them by stress of weather, having been known to the ancients.

1344. *Madeira*—The discovery of this group is attributed to an Englishman, Robert Macham; it was revisited in 1419 by Juan Gonzales, and Tristan Vaz, Portuguese.

1364. *Guinea*—the coast of, discovered by some seamen of Dieppe, about this period.

1434. *Cape Bojador*—doubled for the first time by the Portuguese.

1439. *Azores*—discovered by Vanderberg; settled by the Portuguese in 1448.

1449. *Cape Verde Islands*—discovered by Antonio de Noli, a Genoese in the service of Portugal.

1484. *Congo*—discovered by the Portuguese, under Diego Cam.

1486. *Cape of Good Hope*—discovered by Bartholomew Diaz. It was originally called 'The Cape of Tempests,' and was also named 'The Lion of the Sea,' and 'The Head of Africa.' The appellation was changed by John II., King of Portugal, who augured favorably of future discoveries from Diaz having reached the extremity of Africa.

1492. *Bahamas*.—These islands were the first points of discovery by Columbus. San Salvador was first seen by this great navigator, on the night between the 11th and 12th of October in this year.

Cuba and Hispaniola or St. Domingo were also discovered by Columbus in his first voyage.

1493. *Jamaica, St. Christopher's, and Dominica*—discovered by Columbus in his second voyage.

1497. *Cape of Good Hope*—doubled by Vasco di Gama, and the passage to India discovered.

1497. *Newfoundland*—discovered by John Cabot, who first called it Prima Vista and Baccalaos. The title of Prima Vista still belongs to one of its capes, and an adjacent island is still called Baccalao. Cabot sailed down the coast and touched upon Florida, thus reaching the continent before Columbus.

1498. *Continent of America*—discovered by Columbus.

Malabar, Coast of—discovered by Vasco di Gama.

Mozambique, Island of—discovered by Vasco di Gama.

1500. *Brazil*—discovered April 24th, by Alvarez de Cabral, a Portuguese, who was driven on its coast by a tempest. He called it the Land of the Holy Cross. It was subsequently called Brazil, on account of its red wood; and was carefully explored by Amerigo Vespucci, from 1500 to 1504.

1501. *Labrador and River St. Lawrence*—discovered by Cortereal, who sailed from Lis-

bon on a voyage of discovery for the Portuguese. The Cabots had entered the St. Lawrence in 1499.

1502. *Gulf of Mexico*.—Some of the shores of this gulf were explored by Columbus on his last voyage.

St. Helena—discovered by Jean de Nova, a Portuguese.

1505. *Ceylon*—discovered by the Portuguese. Ceylon was known to the Romans in the time of Claudius, A.D. 41.

1506. *Madagascar*—discovered by Lorenzo Almeida; revisited by the Portuguese navigator Fernandez Pereira, in 1508. This island was first called St. Lawrence, having been discovered on the day of that saint.

1509. *Sumatra*—reached by Diego Lopez Sigueira, a Portuguese navigator.

1510. *Molucca Isles*—discovered by the Portuguese.

Sunda Isles—discovered by Abreu, a Portuguese.

1512. *Maldives*.—A Portuguese navigator, who was wrecked on these islands, found them in possession of Arabians.

Florida—discovered by Ponce de Leon, a Spanish navigator.

1513. *Borneo and Java*.—The Portuguese became acquainted with these islands.

1513. *South Sea*.—The Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, was discovered this year from the mountains of Darien, by Nunez de Balboa, and subsequently navigated by Magellan. The supposition that the New World was part of India now ceased.

1513. *Peru*—discovered by Perez de la Rúa.

1516. *Rio de la Plata*—entered by Diaz de Solis.

1517. *China*—Fernand Perez d'Andrada reached China by sea.

1518. *Mexico*—discovered by the Spaniards; conquered by Cortes, in 1521.

1519. *Magellan, Straits of*—passed by Magellan with a fleet of discovery fitted out by Charles V. The first voyage round the world was undertaken by this navigator; and his vessel performed the enterprise, although he perished by the way.

1520. *Terra del Fuego*—discovered by Magellan.

1520. *Ladrone Islands*—discovered by Magellan.

1521. *Philippines*.—This archipelago dis-

covered by Magellan, who lost his life here in a skirmish.

1524. *New France*.—The first voyage of discovery made by the French under the patronage of Francis I.; one of whose ships, after reaching Florida, coasted along as far as 50° N. lat., and gave to this part the name of New France.

1524. *North America*—traveled over from Florida to Newfoundland by Verazzani, a Florentine, in the service of France.

1527. *New Guinea*—discovered by Saavedra, a Spaniard, sent from Mexico, by Cortez.

1530. *Guinea*—the first voyage to, made by an English ship for elephants' teeth.

1535. *Canada*—visited by Jacques Cartier, of St. Malo; a settlement having previously been made in 1523, by Verazzani, who took possession in the name of Francis I. of France.

1535. *California*—discovered by Cortez.

1537. *Chili*—discovered by Diego de Almagro, one of the conquerors of Peru.

1542. *Japan*—discovered by the Portuguese, Antonio de Meta and Antonio de Peyxoto, who were cast by a tempest on its coasts.

1552. *Spitzbergen*—observed by the English, but mistaken for part of Greenland. Visited by Barentz, a Dutch navigator, in search of a north-east passage, in 1595.

1553. *White Sea*.—This sea, which had not been visited since the time of Alfred, was now supposed to be discovered by Chancellor, an English navigator.

1575. *Solomon's Isles*—discovered by Mendana, a Spaniard, sent by the governor of Peru.

1576. *Frobisher's Strait*—discovered by the English navigator whose name it bears.

Greenland—further explored by Frobisher, who also penetrated further between this country and Labrador.

1577. *New Albion*—discovered by Drake, who was the second to attempt a voyage round the world, which he performed in three years. He gave the name of New Albion to the north-west coast of America.

1580. *Siberia*—first made known to Europe by Yermak Timophéievitch, a Cossack chief.

1585. *Davis's Strait*—discovered by the English navigator whose name it bears, in his voyage for the discovery of a north-west passage.

1594. *Falkland Islands*—discovered by the English navigator, Hawkins.

1595. *Marquesas*—discovered by Mendana, a Spaniard, on his voyage from Peru to found a colony in the Solomon Isles.

Solitary Island—discovered by Mendana on the same voyage.

1606. *Australia*—by the Dutch.

Archipelago del Espiritu Santo—discovered by Quiros, a Spaniard, sent from Peru. These islands are the Cyclades of Bougainville, and the New Hebrides of Cook.

Otaheite—supposed to be discovered by Quiros, who named it Sagittaria.

1607–10. *Hudson's Bay*—discovered by the celebrated English navigator, Hudson, on his third voyage. Venturing to pass the winter in this bay on his fourth voyage, he was, with four others, thrown by his sailors into a boat, and left to perish. It is probable that Sebastian Cabot entered and partially explored this bay in 1512.

1607. *Chesapeake Bay*—discovered by John Smith.

1615. *Straits of Le Maire*—discovered, with the island of Staten on the east, by Le Maire, a merchant of Amsterdam, and Schouten, a merchant of Horn.

1616. *Cape Horn*—doubled by Le Maire and Schouten, Dutch navigators, who called it after the town of which Schouten was a native. These enterprising men performed a voyage round the world in about two years.

1616. *Baffin's Bay*—discovered by William Baffin, an Englishman. The nature and extent of this discovery were much doubted, till the expeditions of Ross and Parry proved that Baffin was substantially accurate in his statement.

1636. *Arctic Ocean*.—In this year the Russians discovered that this ocean washed and bounded the north of Asia. The first Russian ship sailed down the Lena into this sea.

1642. *New Zealand*—with the southern part of Van Diemen's Land, discovered by Tasman, a Dutch navigator.

1686. *Easter Island*—discovered by Roggewein, a Dutch navigator.

1690. *Kamschatka*—discovered by a Cossack chief, Morosko. This country was taken possession of by the Russians in 1697. It was not known to be a peninsula until visited by Behring in 1728.

1699. *Japan*—visited by Kampfer, a German.

1699. *New Britain*.—This island, and the straits which separate it from New Guinea, discovered by Dampier. This enterprising seaman made a voyage round the world at the period of this discovery.

1728. *Behring's Strait*—explored and designated by a Danish navigator in the service of Russia, whose name it bears. Behring thus established that the continents of Asia and America are not united, but are distant from each other about thirty-nine miles.

1741. *Aleutian Isles*—on the coast of North America, discovered by Behring.

1765. *Duke of York's Island*—discovered by Byron.

Isles of Danger—discovered by Byron.

1767. *Otaheite*—discovered by Wallis.

1768. *Cook's Strait*—discovered by Capt. Cook on his first voyage round the world, which occupied from 1768 to 1771.

1770. *New South Wales*—discovered by Captain Cook.

1772. *Island of Desolation*—the first land south of India, discovered by Kerguelen, and called by his name. Subsequently called the Island of Desolation by Captain Cook.

1774. *New Caledonia*—discovered by Cook in his second voyage, 1772–1775.

1778. *Icy Cape*—discovered by Captain Cook.

1778. *Sandwich Islands*—discovered by Cook in his third voyage, which commenced in 1776. He lost his life at Owhyhee in 1779.

1797. *Bass's Straits*.—Mr. Bass, surgeon of H. B. M. S. *Reliance*, penetrated as far as Western Port, in a small open boat, from Port Jackson, and was of opinion that a strait existed between New South Wales and Van Dieman's Land. In 1799, Lieut. Flinders circumnavigated Van Dieman's Land, and named the strait after Mr. Bass.

1804–6. *Missouri River*—explored to its sources by Captains Lewis and Clarke, and the origin and source of the *Columbia* ascertained.

1819. *New South Shetland*—discovered by Capt. Smith, of the brig *William*, bound to Valparaiso.

1821. *Asia*—the northern limits of, determined by Baron Wrangel. [See AFRICA and ARCTIC DISCOVERIES.]

DJEZZAR, ACHMET, Pacha of Acre, originally a slave; aided by the English, he checked

the career of Napoleon, in Syria. He died in 1804. Djeddar signifies 'butcher,' and the pacha won the name by his cruelties.

DODD, WILLIAM, an English clergyman, born in 1729; he was popular as a preacher, and as an author, and was appointed one of the king's chaplains, which place he lost by being convicted of offering a bribe to obtain preferment. The Magdalen hospital in London was erected under his supervision. His extravagant excesses led him into continual embarrassments. In 1777, he was convicted of forging a bond for £4,200 in the name of his patron, Lord Chesterfield. High influence was exerted and great interest made to save him, but when the case came before the council, the minister of the day said to George III., "If your majesty pardon Dr. Dodd, you will have murdered the Perreaus." These were two unfortunat wine-merchants who had been executed for forgery less than a year before. The doctor was accordingly hanged at Tyburn, June 27th. Forgery is no longer a capital crime in England.

DODDRIDGE, PHILIP, D.D., a distinguished divine among the English dissenters, was born in London, June 26th, 1702. His pious parents early instructed him in religious knowledge. The chimney in the room where the family were wont to sit, was ornamented with quaint Dutch tiles, and from these the good mother taught her boy the history of the Old and New Testaments before he could read. Under such training he early entered the ministry, and at twenty preached his first sermon. He settled at Northampton, where as pastor, an instructor of students in theology, and the author of many pious works, he led an arduous and faithful life till 1751, when ill health sent him to Portugal. He survived his arrival at Lisbon but five days, dying the 26th of October, 1751. Dr. Johnson pronounced an epigram by Dr. Doddridge one of the finest in the English language. The subject is his family motto, "Dum vivimus vivamus."

"Live while you live, the *epicure* would say,
And seize the pleasures of the present day.
Live while you live, the sacred *preacher* cries,
And give to God each moment as it flies.
Lord, in my views let both united be;
I live in pleasure when I live to thee."

DODDINGTON, GEORGE BUBB (Lord Mel-

combe Regis), was the son of a gentleman of fortune, and was born in 1691. He enjoyed many posts of honor and emolument under different parties, and he did not scruple to avow openly his political tergiversations. He was advanced to the peerage in 1761, and died in the following year. Bubb Dodington was eccentric, generous, convivial, and magnificent in private life. Many anecdotes are related of him. For the amusement of the young Prince of Wales he used to suffer himself to be rolled up in blankets, and trundled down the stairs. Before he took the name of Dodington, he was one day lamenting to Lord Chesterfield the shortness of his patronymic, Bubb. "You can easily remedy it," said his lordship; "call yourself Sillybub, and that will do very well." He winced under the whimsical satire which an opponent issued, with the title of "A Grub upon Bubb." When his fortune increased, he built himself a splendid villa, which if cost constituted elegance would have been a model. But Bubb had no taste, and his villa was a failure. The second story appeared much too heavy for the first; for, while the latter was ornamented in the lightest style, the suite of rooms above was adorned with marble fire-places, marble slabs, and massy wainscoting. The proprietor, in showing this to a friend one day, said, "They tell me, sir, that this is out of place, and ought to be down-stairs." "Make yourself perfectly easy," was the consolatory answer; "it will soon be there!"

DODSLEY, ROBERT, was born at Mansfield, Notts, in 1703. He was at first a stocking weaver, then a footman, and his first volume was a collection entitled "The Muse in Livery." He acquired a very handsome fortune by his efforts as author and bookseller, and retired to Durham, where he died in 1764. His "Economy of Human Life" is an excellent little moral treatise. As a public-spirited publisher, he was of good service to literature and literary men.

DOLCE, CARLO, an eminent Florentine painter, 1616-1686.

DOMENICHINO is the name by which DOMINICO ZAMPIERE is best known. He was born at Bologna in 1581. He studied painting in the school of the Carracci, and is accounted the ablest of all their scholars. At

Rome, he earned a high reputation. He received only fifty scudi (about fifty dollars) for his "Communion of St. Jerome," considered the best altar-piece in Rome, with the exception of Raphael's "Transfiguration." In 1630, he removed to Naples, was much persecuted by his rivals there and in Rome, and died April 15th, 1641, not without suspicion of having been poisoned.

DOMINIC DE GUZMAN, St., was born in Spain in 1170, and died at Bologna in 1221. He was the founder of the order of Dominicans, whose power and influence were at one time almost universal. They were called in France Jacobins, and in England Black Friars. The inquisition was at first in their hands.

DOMITIAN, TITUS FLAVIUS SABINUS, son of Vespasian, and brother of Titus, whom, according to some accounts, he destroyed by poison, was born, A.D. 51, and ascended the throne, A.D. 81. The beginning of his reign promised tranquillity to the people, but their hopes were soon swamped in his cruelty and debauchery. He perished by the hands of an assassin, the 18th of September, A.D. 96, in the forty-fifth year of his age, and the fifteenth of his reign. He was the last of the twelve Cæsars.

DONIZETTI, GAETANO, a popular operatic composer, born at Bergamo, in 1798, died there insane, April 8th, 1848. He wrote sixty-three operas, of which the most famous are, "Anna Bolena," "Lucrezia Borgia," "Lucia di Lammermoor," "La Fille du Regiment," "La Favorita," "Linda di Chamouni," and "Don Pasquale."

DONNE, JOHN, an English poet and divine of some celebrity, was the son of a merchant, and was born in London in 1573. His education was obtained at Oxford and Cambridge. Originally a Catholic, in his nineteenth year he abjured the Romish religion, and was made secretary to the Lord Chancellor Ellesmere, whose favor he lost for a time by a clandestine marriage with his niece. The juvenile pair appear to have foreseen all the consequences of their union, for the doctor indorsed a paper in the following manner, "John Donne, Anne Donne, undone." His prospects, however, brightened; he took orders, became one of King James's chaplains, and died in March, 1631.

DON

DORIA, ANDREA, a Genoese commander, born in 1468. After having been employed by several princes, he received a command in Corsica, which island he completely reduced. He gained wealth and honor in his attacks upon the Barbary states. On the breaking out of the revolution in Genoa, he went into the service of France, and next into that of the pope; but on the capture of Rome he returned to Francis I., who made him the general of his galleys, and admiral of the Levant. The French having become masters of Genoa, in 1528, Doria succeeded in delivering the republic from a foreign yoke, received the office of doge for life, and was rewarded with the title of father of his country. He next carried arms through the Mediterranean in the service of Charles V., and died in 1560, full of years and honors.

DORIS was a small district of ancient Greece, the seat of the Dorians, the most powerful of the Hellenic tribes. About B.C. 1104, the Dorians migrated to the Peloponnesus. They sent out many colonies. They invented the Doric order of architecture, the most ancient of the five. The lyric poets of Greece in general wrote in the Doric dialect.

DORSET, THOMAS SACKVILLE, Lord Buckhurst and Earl of Dorset, was the son of Sir Richard Sackville, and was born at Witham, in Sussex, in 1527. He was educated at Oxford, whence he removed to Cambridge, and next to the Inner Temple. On leaving the Temple, he went abroad; and after his return, was made Lord Buckhurst. In 1587 he was sent on an embassy to the United Provinces. After this he was made knight of the garter, and chosen chancellor of Oxford. On the death of Burleigh he was appointed lord treasurer; and in the next reign created Earl of Dorset. He died in 1608. **EDWARD** (1590-1652), his grandson, bearing the same titles, was a partisan of Charles I., and regent during the king's absence in Scotland.

CHARLES SACKVILLE, sixth Earl of Dorset and Middlesex, was born in 1637. In his youth he was one of the most notorious libertines of the wild time which followed the Restoration. He was the lover of Nell Gwynn before she became a royal mistress: she called him her Charles the First. Yet, in the midst of follies and vices, his courageous

spirit, his fine understanding, and his natural goodness of heart, had been conspicuous, and with all his errors he was a general favorite. In 1665, he volunteered on board the fleet under the Duke of York in the war against the Dutch, and there, the night before an engagement, wrote that song, unequalled in its kind, "To all you ladies now at land." The judgment of the world became still more favorable to Dorset when he had been sobered by time and marriage. His graceful manners, his brilliant conversation, his soft heart, his open hand, were universally praised. No day passed, it was said, in which some distressed family had not reason to bless his name. And yet, with all his good nature, such was the keenness of his wit, that scoffers whose sarcasm all the town feared stood in craven fear of the sarcasm of Dorset. All political parties esteemed and caressed him; but politics were not much to his taste. He took just so much part in parliamentary and diplomatic business as sufficed to show that he wanted nothing but inclination to rival the leading statesmen of the age, and turned away to pursuits which pleased him better. He was the best judge of painting, of sculpture, of architecture, of acting, that the court could show. More than one clever play which had failed on the first representation was supported by his single authority against the whole clamor of the pit, and came forth successful from the second trial. He was a munificent patron of the letters. Dryden was saved from ruin by his almost princely generosity; he was the first to call attention to Butler's "Hudibras;" and by him Montague and Prior were introduced into public life. The few songs and satires he occasionally composed show that, with more industry, he might have been a rival where he was content to be a benefactor. He died at Bath, January 19th, 1706.

DORT, a commercial town in the south of Holland. The resolutions of the synod of Dort, held here by the Protestants in 1618 and 1619, form the present code of the Dutch Reformed Church. This synod was attended by deputies from the reformed churches throughout Europe. Its object was to settle the difficulties between the doctrines of Luther, Calvin, and Arminius. The tenets of the latter were condemned.

DOUGLAS, STEPHEN ARNOLD, was born in Brandon, Vt., April 23, 1813. His father, a physician, died leaving his wife and son in indigent circumstances. Young Douglas attended school only one third of the year, working on the farm or in a cabinet shop the remainder. In 1820 he removed to Illinois, taught school for a support and studied law. Admitted to the bar in 1834, though imperfectly trained, yet he displayed such abilities, that the next year he was elected State Attorney. From that period till his death, June 3, 1861, he was in public life, as Secretary of State, Judge of Supreme Court of Illinois, Representative to Congress, and three successive times U. S. Senator. He was for a long time at the head of the Committee on Territories. Though not the originator he was the mover and advocate of the famous "Kansas and Nebraska Bill," and of the repeal of the "Missouri Compromise." He was the advocate, if not the originator, of the "Squatter Sovereignty" doctrine, giving to the settlers of a territory the power to determine its status in regard to slavery. He was a Democratic candidate for the Presidency in 1860. At the commencement of the rebellion he took a decided stand in support of the Union, and his last letters and dying words evinced his patriotism and his hostility to the foes of the republic. He was a man of extraordinary talent, energy and determination. He possessed that genial, electric nature which drew around him a host of political and personal friends. The West gave him the *soubriquet* of "Little Giant."

DOW, GERARD, one of the most celebrated of the Dutch *genre* painters, was born at Leyden in 1613. In 1628, he was placed with Rembrandt, whose pupil he continued three years. His works are remarkable for high finish and for lightness of handling. He died at L. in 1680.

DOW, LORENZO, an eccentric Methodist preacher, was born in Coventry, Conn., Oct. 16th, 1777. Traveling extensively over the United States, England and Ireland, he is supposed to have preached to more persons than any other man of his time. He died Feb. 2d, 1834.

DRACO, archon and lawgiver of Athens, flourished about 600 B. C. He was very popular, and fell a victim to the favor of his

countrymen, for, being in the theatre at Egina, the people gave him the customary token of approbation by throwing their caps and garments upon him, and such was the number of these that he was smothered under their weight. He was buried under the theatre. His code (623 B. C.), on account of its severity, was said to be written in letters of blood. Idleness was punished as heavily as murder. The smallest transgression, he said, deserved death, and he could not find any punishment more rigorous for atrocious crimes.

DRAKE, SIR FRANCIS, the first Englishman to circumnavigate the globe in a single voyage, was born in 1546, near Tavistock in Devonshire. He took to the sea while a lad, and early became a skillful mariner. In 1565 and 1566, he undertook a trading voyage to the West Indies, during which he was much despoiled by Spanish cruisers. An expedition with Sir John Hawkins to the Spanish main, was also destroyed by the Spaniards, and in 1572, Drake with three small vessels sailed to seek reprisals. He captured a large treasure on the isthmus of Panama. During this adventure he climbed a "goodlie and great high tree," from which he saw the broad Pacific, whose waters none of Europe but the Spaniards yet had sailed, and whose shores were supposed to be garners of almost exhaustless treasures. The bold mariner, while he gazed, "besought God to give him health and life once to sail an English ship in those seas." With a squadron of five little vessels he sailed from England, Nov. 13th, 1577, and entered the Pacific through the dangerous straits of Magellan the following May. In the severe storms that were encountered, his consorts either forsook him or perished. Captures of Spanish galleons soon filled the Golden Hind with treasure, and the enraged sufferers collected a large force at the south to catch him on his way home. He tried to find a passage round the north of America, but the severity of the high latitudes which he reached, turned him back. He crossed the Pacific, doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and dropped anchor in Plymouth harbor Nov. 3d, 1580, having been not quite three years away, and in that time circumnavigated the world, in the very teeth of that old Egyptian monk Cosmos, who had no patience with the unscriptural and impious doctrine of the earth's sphericity, argu-

ing stoutly that it is a plain surrounded by an immense wall, at whose north side is a great mountain, behind which the sun is hidden every night. England rang with the renown of Drake's exploits and treasures. Queen Elizabeth knighted him, and Spain prayed for the privilege of hanging him as a pirate. In the war which soon occurs between the two countries, Drake does great service, attacking and burning the Spanish fleet in Cadiz harbor. So the armada can not sail till next year, and when it does put forth to be shattered by the winds and waves, Vice-Admiral Drake is active in completing its destruction. In 1595, with his old comrade Sir John Hawkins, Drake sails on an expedition against the Spanish West Indies, falls a victim to the climate, and dies off Portobello, January 28th, 1596.

DRAYTON, WILLIAM HENRY, a native of South Carolina, was born in 1742. In 1775, he was chosen president by the provincial congress, and the next year chief-justice of the colony. In 1777, he was made president of South Carolina, and the next year was chosen member of congress. His death took place in September, 1779.

DRESDEN, the capital of Saxony, on the Elbe, contains 105,000 inhabitants. Here, on the 28th of August, 1813, Napoleon defeated the allies and forced them to retire to the Bohemian frontier. In this battle Moreau received his mortal wound, while conversing with the Russian emperor. On the 6th of November, Marshal St. Cyr was blockaded in Dresden, and after an ineffectual negotiation with Schwartzberg, surrendered his whole force, amounting to 30,000 men.

DRESS. Excess in dress was restrained by a law in England in the reign of Edward IV., 1465, and again in the time of Elizabeth, 1574. That brave gallant, Sir Walter Raleigh, we are told, wore a white satin-pinked vest, close-sleeved to the wrist, and over the body a brown doublet finely flowered, and embroidered with pearls. In the feather of his hat a large ruby and pearl drop at the bottom of the sprig in place of a button. His breeches, with his stockings and ribbon garters, fringed at the end, all white; and buff shoes, which on great court days were so gorgeously covered with precious stones, as to have exceeded the value of £6,600; and he had a suit of armor of solid silver, with sword and belt

blazing with diamonds, rubies, and pearls. Sir Walter's garb was outdone by the coat glittering with diamonds that Prince Esterhazy sported at Paris in 1815. Accounts of magnificent attire come to us from remote antiquity. The costume of the Grecian and Roman women was comely and graceful. Ovid sings that the women of Cos, whose country was famous for the silkworm, wore white garments of cotton and silk, so clear and thin, and so beautiful and delicate in texture, that their bodies could be seen through the vesture.

The Romans went for many ages without any regular covering for the head, and hence the heads of all the ancient statues are bare. But at one period the cap was a symbol of liberty, and when the Roman bestowed it upon a slave he had his freedom. Sometimes the cap has been a mark of infamy. In Italy Jews were distinguished by a yellow cap, and in France those who had been bankrupts were forever after obliged to wear a green cap. History first mentions the general use of caps and hats, in place of the hoods and chaperons before worn, at the triumphal entry of Charles VII. into Rouen, in 1449. The monarch wore a hat lined with red velvet, and surmounted with a rich plume. Hats were first manufactured in England in 1510, by Spaniards; before which time both men and women wore close-knit woolen caps. Breeches were a badge of servitude among the Greeks. The garment was worn by the Dacians, Parthians, and other northern nations, and is said to have been worn in Italy in the time of Augustus Cæsar. Shirts were not generally worn in the west of Europe till the eighth century. Woolen shirts were commonly worn in England until about 1253, when linen began to be used. Shoes were made of leather, linen, rush, or wood, among the Jews. The Jewish women wore moons as ornaments in their shoes (Isaiah iii. 18). Pythagoras would have his disciples wear shoes made of the bark of trees; that they might not wear those from skins, as they refrained from the use of aught that had had life. Sandals were worn by Grecian women of rank. The Romans wore an ivory crescent on their shoes, and those of Caligula were enriched with precious stones. The Egyptians made theirs from the bark of the papyrus. Our English ancestors had an odd way of adorning their feet. They wore

the beaks or points of their shoes so long that they were cumbersome in walking and must be tied up to the knees. Fine gentlemen fastened theirs with chains of silver, or silver gilt, and others with laces. This fashion was prohibited in 1467, on forfeiture of twenty shillings and on pain of being cursed by the clergy. Shoes as at present worn were introduced about 1633, and shoe-buckles in 1668. Boots are said to have been the invention of the Carians, and were made of iron, brass, or leather. Leathern boots are mentioned by Homer.

DRUIDS. Among the ancient Germans, Gauls, and Britons, the Druids were priests or ministers of religion. They were also the instructors of the young, and the only learned men of the nations to which they belonged, and also acted as judges. They did not make use of writing, but their scholars were obliged to get by heart all their lessons from hearing them repeated. This was a very tedious way of getting forward, and we are not at all surprised that it took twenty years of a man's life to acquire a very limited stock of learning.

In general, little was known about very ancient tribes and nations, until the Romans invaded their countries, and conquered them. So it is from the Romans that we have derived our knowledge of the habits, character, and religion of the Druids. It is very scanty, for the precautions of these singular men were too successful in preventing their secrets from being divulged. The Druids of Britain were very celebrated. There has been much dispute about the derivation of the word 'druid,' but it is most probable that it comes from an old British word, *deru*, meaning 'oak,' because the Druids held the oak-tree almost sacred; it was their favorite tree, and their groves contained no other. Little is known concerning them before the age of Julius Cæsar, who invaded Britain after having subdued Gaul, about 54 B.C. Cæsar says that they were divided into several classes; the priests, the soothsayers, the poets, and the judges, and instructors of youth.

The priests, those Druids who were called so by way of distinction, had the charge of the religious ceremonies. They worshiped their gods, and offered sacrifices to them upon altars. Their temples or places of worship, were very singular. They were gener-

ally circles of vast standing pillars, over which they sometimes laid huge stones making a circle in the air. In the middle stood the altar-stone. Of this kind was the celebrated Stonehenge, near Salisbury, in England. In the island of Anglesey, near the northern extremity of Wales, there are druidical pillars yet remaining. This island is supposed to have been the residence of the chief Druid of Britain. The religion of the Druids, when stripped of its mysteries and unmeaning practices, adapted for the gratification of the ignorant, seems to have been a belief in one supreme being. They had a doctrine of the immortality of the soul, and it was among the strongest incitements to virtue and courage. As teachers of morality, they sustained their precepts by their own example. Their austerity and contemplative habits inspired the populace with reverence and awe. A Druid's robe was pure white, indicating holiness and truth. Like the priests of other rude nations, they were compelled to clothe religion with ceremonies and customs calculated to stir the wonder and fear of their votaries.

The poets, or bards, according to some, did not properly belong to the class of Druids, because they did not mix religion with their songs. They inspired the people to warlike actions, sang the praises of patriotism and bravery, and preserved the oral chronicles of the nation.

The Druids studied astronomy, and made great proficiency in the science. We all know what terror and astonishment an eclipse, or any singular appearance in the sky, creates among an ignorant people who do not know the causes of these things, or the means of finding out beforehand at what time they will happen. Among such people, persons who can foretell any occurrence, are looked upon as inspired with a knowledge more than human. By such arts, the Druids extended and strengthened their influence over the people. The Roman soothsayers, or fortune-tellers, pretended to foretell events by the appearance of the entrails of beasts that were sacrificed on their altars. In the same way, but with much greater cruelty, the druidical soothsayers examined the bleeding bodies of human victims, who had been immolated in sacrifice.



STONEHENGE.

When the Roman general, Suetonius, determined to put an end not only to the ceremonies of the Druids, but to the priests themselves, they took refuge in the island of Anglesey. Here they were determined to make a bold resistance. Having some hopes of gaining a victory over the Romans, they kindled large fires, in which they intended to consume the Roman prisoners, should they take any. Suetonius landed near Parthamel. The Druids, in great numbers, encircled the army of their countrymen, urging them to be brave and praying for the vengeance of heaven upon the invaders. The scene was rendered more terrific to the Romans by the appearance of the British women, who were dressed in black, and ran yelling to and fro, with disheveled hair, brandishing torches. However, the Romans were brave men, and they conquered. They cut down the sacred groves of oak; they demolished the temples of the Druids, and cruelly threw them into their own fires.

The Druids, who were the judges in all

cases which required a recourse to law, settled these matters by their opinion, from which there was no appeal except to the Arch-Druid. As the Druids were thought to receive knowledge and instruction directly from the gods, they had the power of making, altering, and executing laws. Any person, who desired to possess the great power of the order, could become a Druid only by a long course of very strict study, and a life of privation which not many had patience to go through.

The schools of the Druids in Britain were very famous, before the invasion of the Romans. Even youth from Gaul came thither. Scholars took an oath not to betray the secrets and learning which they were taught. Students always resided with their teachers and school-fellows, and were forbidden to converse with any others. Academies were numerous, one being attached to almost every temple of note. Instruction was conveyed in verse. The whole circle of the sciences with which the Druids were

acquainted was taught in twenty thousand verses, which pupils were twenty years in committing to memory. Besides an acquaintance with geometry, astrology, astronomy, geography, natural philosophy, and politics, they professed a knowledge of the arts of magic, and whosoever refused obedience was declared accursed.

The Druidesses, or female priests, were divided into classes. The first class was composed of those who never married, and who pretended to have the power of foretelling events, and performing miracles. These were held in great regard. Then there was a second class of married women, who spent the greater part of their lives in the performances of religious ceremonies, among the Druids. The third class consisted of those who did the meanest work about the temples.

The Druids measured time, not by the days but the nights, guided by the changes of the moon. They had so great a veneration for the oak, that they never performed any ceremony without being adorned with garlands woven of its leaves. Those who professed a knowledge of medicine would never betray the secrets by which they cured the sick. They were, without doubt, only acquainted with the healing powers of a few herbs. They placed great faith in the virtues of the mistletoe, probably from its growing on the oak. They called it by a name meaning 'all-heal.' The efficacy of this plant they thought depended on certain ceremonies to be observed in gathering it. Among the annual festivals of the Gauls and Britons, was that in which the Arch-Druid cut the mistletoe from the oak. This ceremony was conducted with great pomp. When they found an oak which had the rare plant upon it, they made preparations for a banquet beneath. Two milk-white bulls were tied to it by the horns, and then the Arch-Druid, dressed in a snowy robe, ascended the oak, and detached the mistletoe with a golden knife. Sacrifice and feasting followed. A vestige of this reverence for the mistletoe has survived in England to the present day—the custom of using among the evergreen decorations for Christmas a mistletoe, under which, in presumed imitation of the Druids, it is customary to kiss the maids. On every May-day a festival, in honor of the

sun, was held. The sun was called Bel, Belenus, and some other names.



DRUIDS.

The existence of a law forbidding the instructions of the Druids to be written, shows that they were acquainted with the art of writing. We are told that in writing they made use of the characters of the Greek alphabet, with which they were acquainted before the invasion of the Romans. The Gauls and Britons never went upon any warlike expedition without first praying to some god for assistance. When a victory was gained, a certain portion of the spoils was set apart for that god who had, as the people thought, enabled them to be successful. The priests were, of course, to direct to what use these spoils should be put, and a large share of them were, without doubt, reserved for themselves. The Druids too often possessed themselves of the offerings made in the temples of the gods. Besides the money there received for giving instruction in the sciences, for curing diseases, and for giving judgment in law-suits, the priests of each temple claimed every year certain dues from all the families in their district. They hit upon a very cunning method to secure the payment of these taxes. Every family upon the last evening of October was obliged by law to put out all its fires, and to pay its yearly dues at the temple. On the first of November, those who had paid punctually received sacred fire from the altar to kindle theirs at home. Delinquents were not allowed to take any fire, and if any one lent it

to them, or even conversed with them, that person was punished in the same manner, and not allowed to enjoy the protection of justice or the pleasures of society. The sacred fire in the temple was never allowed to go out. It is surprising that this sacred flame, like that in the temple of Vesta, should be preserved by Christian priests for ages after the disappearance of the Druids. No earlier than 1220, Loundres, Archbishop of Dublin, extinguished the ancient flame, which was kept in a small cell near the church of Kildare. So firmly rooted was the superstition that the fire was relit in a few years, and actually kept burning until the suppression of monasteries.

The Druids were greatly restricted in their privileges when Britain was a province in the hands of the Romans, and they resented with great warmth the order which the Roman emperors issued, that no more human victims should be slain at the altars. After the loss they experienced in the isle of Anglesey, they made no figure in Britain. The few who were determined still to persevere in the rites of their order, fled to Scotland, Ireland, and the smaller British islands, in which they kept up their authority some time. Even after the Druids ceased to exist, the superstitions they had spread gave trouble to those who wished to make the people believe in the gospel. In the reign of Canute the Great, during the eleventh century, it was found necessary to provide by law against these wretched superstitions. "We strictly forbid all our subjects," says the king, "to worship the gods of the Gentiles; that is to say, the sun, moon, fires, rivers, fountains, hills, or trees or woods of any kind."

DRUSES, a warlike people of Syria, 30,000 in number, inhabiting the mountains of Libanus and Anti-Libanus. Their origin is traced to about the commencement of the twelfth century. They are a religious sect, neither Christians nor Mohammedans. They reached the summit of their power under Fakardin, who, being taken prisoner by the Turks, was strangled in 1631. Thenceforth they were the vassals of the Turks.

DRYDEN, JOHN, one of the great masters of English verse, was born at Oldwinckle, Northamptonshire, in August, 1631. His father, Erastus Driden, was a strict Puritan,

of an ancient family. John fledged his muse in heroic stanzas lamenting the death of Cromwell. The restoration came, and he welcomed the returning monarch as easily as he had mourned the departed protector. Theatricals revived, and Dryden wrote many successful dramas, all stained with licentiousness, a fault of the age that he helped on rather than strove to check. In 1665, he wedded Lady Elizabeth Howard, daughter of the Earl of Berkshire, adding thereby neither to his wealth nor his joy. When Mrs. Dryden wished she were a book, that she might enjoy more of his company, he answered, "Be an almanac then, my dear, that I may change you once a year." The envious attacks of his detractors he silenced by those trenchant satires, "Absalom and Achitophel" and "Mac Flecknoe." He began to have doubts of the Protestant faith, and shortly after the accession of James II., the laureate was received into the Romish communion. His sincerity has been suspected; unjustly, we think: he adhered to his new belief when it was no longer popular or profitable. He continued busy in toil with his pen, till death came, May-day, 1700. With great pomp he was interred in Westminster Abbey. The vigorous and idiomatic prose of Dryden rivals the excellence of his verse.

The house in which Dryden died still stands in London, a respectable, old-fashioned dwelling. Some years ago it was tenanted by a comely dame—a Wife of Bath—who dealt in contraband laces, gloves, &c. Lord Holland often called to see the interior, but the cautious mistress, sure that his portly and comfortable presence was that of a custom-house officer or other functionary of government, kept the door in her hand, and steadily rejected the solicitations of the literary peer and pilgrim.

DUBOIS, WILLIAM, Cardinal, the son of an apothecary, was born at a small town in Limousin, in 1656. He became prime minister to the Duke of Orleans, regent of France, by the basest of means, flattering the vices of his master. He died August 10th, 1723.

DUDLEY, EDMUND, an English statesman under Henry VII., born in 1462. On the accession of Henry VIII., he was sent to the Tower with his associate, Sir Richard Empson, tried, and beheaded in 1510.

DUD

DUDLEY, JOHN, Duke of Northumberland, son of the preceding, was born in 1502, and restored in blood in 1511. He became the favorite of Henry VIII., and he married his son, Lord Guilford, to Lady Jane Grey, when he found that Edward VI. was dying. Lady Jane Grey was prevailed upon to accept the fatal crown, but Mary's adherents proved too powerful for her party, and the Duke of Northumberland died upon the scaffold, August 22d, 1553.

DUDLEY, ROBERT, Earl of Leicester, son of the preceding, was born in 1532. He was condemned with his father, but pardoned, and afterward restored to blood by Queen Mary. In the reign of Elizabeth, he was made master of the horse, knight of the garter, and a member of the privy council. In 1560 his wife died, not without suspicion of violence, it being generally believed that Dudley aspired to the hand of his sovereign. The story of the unhappy countess is beautifully told in the ballad of "Cumnor Hall," which gave Scott the hint for his splendid romance of "Kenilworth." The following are the concluding verses :

"The death-bell thrice was heard to ring,
An aerial voice was heard to call,
And thrice the raven flapped his wing
Around the towers of Cumnor Hall.

"The mastiff howled at village door,
The oaks were shattered on the green;
Woe was that hour—for never more
That hapless countess e'er was seen.

"And in that manor now no more
Is cheerful feast and sprightly ball,
For ever since that dreary hour
Have spirits haunted Cumnor Hall.

"The village maids, with fearful glance,
Avoid the ancient moss-grown wall;
Nor ever lead the merry dance
Among the groves of Cumnor Hall.

"Full many a traveler oft hath sighed,
And pensive wept the countess' fall,
As wandering onward they've espied
The haunted towers of Cumnor Hall!"

Elizabeth proposed Dudley to Mary, Queen of Scots, as a husband, but that unfortunate princess indignantly rejected him. In 1564, he was created Earl of Leicester; soon after which, he was elected chancellor at Oxford. About 1572, he privately married Lady Douglas Howard, but he never acknowledged her,

and even forced her to marry another. In 1575, the earl entertained the queen magnificently at his castle of Kenilworth in Warwickshire, but offended her very much by marrying the Countess of Essex. In 1585, he was appointed governor of the Protestant Low Countries, but returned the same year by the queen's command. In 1588, he was appointed to the chief command of the forces at Tilbury. He died Sept. 4th of the same year.

DUMOURIEZ, CHARLES FRANCOIS, was born of a noble family at Cambrai, in 1739. Becoming general in the French army, he gained the battle of Jemappes, over the Austrians, Nov. 6th, 1792. He soon after appeared before Brussels, which opened its gates. On the 15th of March, 1793, in a general engagement with the Austrians at Nerwinden, he was totally defeated. He had a scheme for raising the Duc de Chartres (Louis Philippe) to the throne of France. The convention dispatched four commissioners empowered to arrest him. These he caused to be delivered up to the Austrians, and he himself fled to the allies for protection. He received a pension from the British government, and died at Turville Park, England, March 14th, 1823.

DUNBAR, BATTLE OF, between the Scottish and English armies, in which John Baliol was defeated by the Earl of Warrenne, and Scotland subdued by Edward I.; fought April 27th, 1296. Battle between the Scots, and the English under Cromwell, who gained a signal victory, Sept. 3d, 1650.

DUNCAN, ADAM, Viscount, a brave British naval officer, was born in Scotland in 1731. He entered the navy at an early age, and in 1761 was appointed post-captain, in which station he shared in the honors of the reduction of Havanna. In 1779, he commanded the Monarch in Rodney's victory over the Spaniards. In 1794, being made vice-admiral of the white, he took the command of the North Sea fleet. After watching the Dutch fleet in the Texel for two years, a mutiny in the fleet compelled him to return to England, and enabled the enemy to put to sea. This news restored Duncan's men to a sense of their duty; they engaged the enemy on the 11th of October, 1799, off Camperdown, and completely defeated them, taking

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the Dutch admiral, De Winter, and eight ships. For this achievement Duncan was made a viscount. He died suddenly, August 4th, 1804.

DUNDAS, HENRY, Viscount Melville, son of Lord Arniston, was born in 1740. He was a steady follower of William Pitt, and upon that minister's retirement in 1801, Dundas resigned his places, and was created Viscount Melville. When Mr. Pitt came into power again in 1804, he was made first lord of the admiralty, but was impeached in 1805, for crimes and misdemeanors in his former situation as treasurer of the navy. He was, however, acquitted, and died in Scotland, May 27th, 1811.

DUNKIRK, a city in French Flanders, with 27,000 inhabitants, about twenty-seven miles from Calais. It was taken from the Spaniards by Marshal Turenne, 4th of June, and transferred to the English on the 17th, in 1758. In 1662, it was sold by Charles II. to Louis XIV., for £500,000. In 1666, an engagement which lasted four days took place between the English and French fleets off Dunkirk. At the peace of Utrecht, William III., exacted from the French a promise to demolish the defenses and fill up the harbor, which was but partially complied with. Since the peace of 1783, Dunkirk has, however, been the unmolested resort of armed ships of war, and smuggling vessels at all times. In 1793, the Duke of York was defeated by Hoche near Dunkirk.

DUNSINANE, BATTLE OF, fought in 1057, between Macbeth, Thane of Glamis, and Seward, Earl of Northumberland. Edward the Confessor had sent Seward on behalf of Malcolm, whose father, Duncan, the usurper had murdered. Macbeth was defeated and slain. Shakspeare has immortalized this conflict.

DÜRER, ALBRECHT, the 'evangelist of art,' was born at Nuremberg, May 20th, 1471, the third of eighteen children. Though brought up to be a goldsmith, as were his father and maternal grandfather, he early adopted painting as his profession. He distinguished himself both as a painter and as an engraver on copper and wood. Feb. 2d, 1494, he married Agnes Frey, the pretty daughter of a Nuremberg musician, receiving with her a dowry of two hundred florins; for which, says an old

writer, he had afterward at least two thousand unhappy days. She is said to have been imperious, avaricious, and fretful, constantly urging him to work, to make provision for her after his death. He was the most distinguished artist of his time north of the Alps, and in 1515 an interesting exchange of drawings took place between him and Raphael. One of the latter's is preserved in Vienna, with this inscription by Dürer on the back: "1515, Raphael of Urbino, who has been so highly esteemed by the pope, drew these naked figures, and sent them to Albrecht Dürer in Nuremberg, to show him his hand." Albrecht was a sculptor as well, and unquestionably a man of remarkable attainments. Even Melancthon said painting was the least of his accomplishments. He died at Nuremberg, April 6th, 1528.

DUROC, MICHAEL, a friend and favorite officer of Napoleon, Duke of Friuli, grand-marshal of the palace, senator, general of division, grand cordon of the legion of honor, and other orders, was born in 1772. Under Napoleon, in Italy, in Egypt, and in Germany, he distinguished himself, being the greater part of the time aide-de-camp to the emperor. He was killed in entering the village of Merkersdorf, after the battle of Bautzen, May 23d, 1813. Napoleon was cut to the heart by the loss of his dear friend. Marshal Duroc was one of those men who seem too pure and perfect for this world, and whose excellence helps to reconcile us to human nature. The splendor of his position had not power to dazzle or corrupt him. He remained simple, natural, and independent, a warm and generous friend, a just and honorable man. I pronounce this eulogy without fear of contradiction.—*Caulaincourt*.

DUVAL, CLAUDE, a noted highwayman in England, during the reign of Charles II., was a Frenchman by birth. Many romantic tales were told of him; that he was the page of the Duke of Richmond, took to the road, became captain of a formidable gang, and had the honor to be named first in the royal proclamation against notorious offenders; how, at the head of his troop, he stopped a lady's coach, in which there was a booty of four hundred pounds; how he took only one hundred, and suffered the fair owner to ransom the rest by dancing a coranto

with him on the heath; how his vivacious gallantry stoic away the hearts of all women; how his dexterity at sword and pistol made him a terror to all men; how, at length, in the year 1670, he was seized when overcome by wine; how dames of high rank visited him in prison, and with tears interceded for his life; how the king would have granted a pardon but for the interference of Judge Morton, the terror of highwaymen, who threatened to resign his office unless the law was carried into full effect; and how, after the execution, the corpse lay in state with all the pomp of scutcheons, wax-lights, black hangings, and mutes, till the same cruel judge who had intercepted the mercy of the crown sent officers to disturb the obsequies.—*Macaulay*.

DWIGHT, TIMOTHY, an eminent divine,

born at Northampton, in Massachusetts, in 1752. His mother was a daughter of Jonathan Edwards. Timothy was graduated at Yale College, in which institution he was tutor at nineteen. He served in the army as chaplain, and about the close of the Revolutionary war was elected a member of the state legislature. Mr. Dwight then kept a school in Greenfield, Connecticut, where he was ordained minister in 1783. In 1794, he published the poems of "Greenfield Hill" and the "Conquest of Canaan," both of which were republished in England. In 1795, he succeeded the reverend Doctor Styles as president of Yale College, filling also the office of professor of theology. He died January 11th, 1817. His "System of Theology" is a learned and valuable work.

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EARTHQUAKES. The following are among the most memorable that have occurred.

- 372 B.C. Ellice and Bula in the Peloponnesus swallowed up.
- 144 B.C. Isle of Hiera rose from the Ægean Sea during an earthquake.
- 17 A.D. Awful one in Asia, which overturned twelve cities.
- 79. One, together with an eruption of Vesuvius, destroying Herculaneum and Pompeii.
- 114. Antioch destroyed.
- 558. At Constantinople; its edifices destroyed, and thousands perished.
- 742. Awful one in Syria, Palestine, and Asia; more than five hundred towns destroyed, and the loss of life defied all calculation.
- 1137. Catania in Sicily overturned, and 15,000 persons buried in the ruins.
- 1302. Ischia ravaged by a volcanic eruption, preceded by violent earthquakes.
- 1456. At Naples; 40,000 inhabitants perished.
- 1531. February, at Lisbon; 1,500 houses, and 30,000 people buried in the ruins; several neighboring towns engulfed with their inhabitants.
- 1596. In Japan; several cities laid in ruins, and thousands perished.
- 1638. Awful one at Calabria.
- 1662. In China; 800,000 persons buried in Pekin alone.
- 1692. Jamaica ravaged by an earthquake, and many of the inhabitants swallowed up by rents in the ground; three-quarters of the houses of Port Royal, with the

ground they occupied, sank with their tenants under water.

- 1693. Shocks of earthquake in Sicily, which obliterated Catania, overturned fifty-four cities and three hundred hamlets, and destroyed more than 100,000 persons.
- 1699. Earthquakes in Java, when no less than two hundred and eight severe shocks were counted; the fish killed in the rivers by the mud which filled them, and great numbers of wild animals destroyed.
- 1731. Again in China; 100,000 lives lost at Pekin.
- 1736. One in Hungary which turned a mountain round.
- 1737. Earthquake in Kamtschatka, which caused an inundation of the sea, formed new hills, lakes, and bays.
- 1746. Earthquake in Peru; two hundred shocks experienced in the first twenty-four hours; Lima and Callao destroyed; several new bays formed; nineteen ships sunk and four carried a great distance up the country by the rise of the sea; several volcanoes burst forth in the vicinity, and poured forth torrents of water, which overflowed extensive tracts.
- 1750. Concepcion (or Fenco) in Chili destroyed by an earthquake, and overwhelmed by the sea.
- 1754. At Grand Cairo; half of the houses and 40,000 persons swallowed up. In April, 1755, another earthquake completed the destruction.



EARTHQUAKE AT LISBON.

1755. Earthquake destroyed Lisbon, Nov. 1st, and 60,000 persons perished in six minutes. The sea first retired, and then rolled in, rising fifty feet above its usual level: the largest mountains in Portugal rocked and split asunder, and sent forth flames and clouds of dust. The shock was felt nearly all over Europe, in the north part of Africa, in the Atlantic, and even in the West Indies; a vast wave swept over the coast of Spain, in some places, sixty feet in height, and near Morocco the earth opened, swallowed up about 10,000 persons with their herds, and then closed over them. This awful shock is said to have extended five thousand miles. The cities of Coimbra, Oporto, and Braga suffered dreadfully, and St. Ubes was wholly overturned. In Spain, a large part of Malaga was laid in ruins. More than half the isle of Madeira became waste, and two thousand houses in the island of Meteline, in the Archipelago, were overthrown.
1759. The volcano of Jorullo in Mexico rose during an earthquake from the plain of Malpais, forming a hill 1,600 feet high.
1766. Violent shocks agitate Venezuela, occurring hourly for above a year.
1772. Eruption of the volcano Papandayang in Java; a tract of country fifteen miles long by six broad was engulfed, forty villages swallowed up or overwhelmed, and the cone of the volcano was reduced in height 4,000 feet.
1774. During the eruption of the volcano on the side of which the city of Guatemala was built, the ground gaped open and swallowed the whole city with its 8,000 inhabitants.
1783. Earthquake in Calabria destroyed all the towns and villages, twenty miles round Oppido, and 40,000 persons were swallowed up or overwhelmed; the shocks continued for four years.
1783. Eruption of the volcano Asamayama in Nippon, preceded by an earthquake, during which the earth yawned and swallowed many towns.
1797. Between the 4th and 20th of February, the whole country from Santa Fe to Panama was destroyed, including the cities of Cuzco and Quito, 40,000 of whose dwellers were in one second hurled into eternity.

1811. Earthquake in South Carolina, and in the valley of the Mississippi; the latter was convulsed to such a degree between the mouths of the Ohio and the St. Francis as to create lakes and islands, and deep chasms were formed in the ground, from which vast volumes of water, sand, and coal were thrown up to the height of sixty or seventy feet.
1812. The city of Caraccas destroyed by an earthquake, and 10,000 persons buried under its ruins.
1819. An earthquake in Cutch destroyed many towns and villages; deepened the eastern arm of the Indus from one to eighteen feet; submerged some tracts and elevated others.
1822. Aleppo destroyed by an earthquake.
1822. Chili ravaged by an earthquake, the shock of which was felt for a distance of 1,200 miles; the coast in the neighborhood of Valparaiso for a distance of one hundred miles was raised above its former level from two to four, and even six or eight feet: the whole tract thus raised had an area of about 100,000 square miles.
1827. Earthquake commits great ravages around Bogota.
1831. The island of Sciacca rose from the sea near the southern coast of Sicily; the depth of the sea at this spot was six hundred feet, and the island was one hundred feet above the surface: circuit 3,240 feet: in the winter of 1831, the island was swept away by the waves, leaving only a shoal.
1837. In many cities of southern Syria, Jan. 22d, by which hundreds of houses were thrown down, and thousands of the inhabitants perished.
1839. At Martinique, Jan. 11th, by which nearly half of Port Royal was destroyed, and the whole island damaged.
1840. At Fernate, Feb. 14th; the island laid waste, almost every house destroyed, and thousands of the inhabitants lost their lives.
1842. At Cape Haytien, St. Domingo, May 7th, which destroyed nearly two-thirds of the town, and almost 5,000 lives.
1857. Shocks felt quite heavily at St. Louis and at Buffalo in October. Dec. 16th, a severe earthquake shook the kingdom of Naples, sending 9,350 persons into eternity, and seriously injuring 1,359; at Montemurro, a place of 7,000 inhabitants, 5,000 were crushed to death by the falling houses, and 500 severely hurt.
- EASTERN EMPIRE.** The Roman empire was divided A.D. 364. The following were the rulers of the Eastern empire, and the principal incidents in its history, down to its conquest by the Turks. [See **ROME.**]
364. Valens.
379. Theodosius the Great. Maximus the tyrant, defeated and put to death, 388. Theodosius defeats Eugenius, 392.
395. Arcadius, the son of Theodosius.
408. Theodosius II. He institutes public schools and endeavors to restore learning, 425.
450. Marcian, a Thracian of obscure family.
457. Leo I., the Thracian.
468. Ardaburius.
474. Leo the Younger, died the same year.
474. Zeno, called the Isaurian.
491. Anastasius, an Illyrian of mean birth. Constantinople besieged by Vitalianus, whose fleet is burned with a brazen speculum by Proclus, 514.
518. Justin I., originally a private soldier.
527. Justinian, founder of the Digest. Turkish empire begins in Asia, 545.
565. Justin II., nephew of Justinian.
578. Tiberius II., renowned for his virtues.
582. Maurice, the Cappadocian, murdered with all his children by his successor.
602. Phocas, a centurion, raised to the throne by a revolt of the soldiery. His crimes and cruelties led to his assassination. Power of the popes begins, through the concessions of Phocas, 606.
610. Heraclius. The Persians besiege Constantinople, 626.
641. Constantine III., reigned a few months; poisoned by his step-mother Martina.
641. Constans II., assassinated in a bath.
668. Constantine IV. Pogonatus. In this year, the Arabs besieged Constantinople. In 673 it is besieged by the Saracens, and their fleet destroyed by the Greek fire, a composition invented by one Callinicus, an ingenious engineer of Heliopolis in Syria. It burned the briskest in water, and diffused itself on all sides, according to the impression given to it. Nothing but oil, or a mixture of vinegar, urine, and sand, could quench it. It was blown out of long tubes of copper, and shot out of cross-bows and other spring instruments. The invention was kept a secret for many years by the court of Constantinople, and is now lost.
685. Justinian II., son of the last emperor, an abhorrent character, dethroned and mutilated by his successor.
695. Leontius, dethroned and mutilated by his successor.
698. Tiberius III. Aspimar.
705. Justinian II. restored; Leontius and Tiberius degraded in the Hippodrome, and put to death. Justinian slain, 711.
711. Philipppus Bardanes, assassinated.
713. Anastasius II.; fled on the election of Theodosius in 716; afterward delivered up to Leo. III., and put to death.
716. Theodosius III. Second siege of Constantinople by the Arabs.
718. Leo III., the Isaurian. The great iconoclastic controversy commences, 726. The alternate prohibition and restoration of images involve the peace of several reigns.
741. Constantine V. Copronymus, son of Leo.

775. Leo IV., his son.
 780. Constantine VI. and his mother Irene. 790, Constantine reigns alone, by the desire of the people, who hate Irene. 792, she again reigns conjointly with her son, and afterward alone. For her cruelties and murders she is deposed and exiled.
 802. Nicephorus I., surnamed Logothetes, slain.
 811. Staurachius, reigns a few days only.
 811. Michael I. Defeated in battle, he abdicates and retires to a monastery.
 813. Leo V., the Armenian; killed in the temple at Constantinople on Christmas by conspirators for his successor.
 820. Michael II., the Stammerer.
 829. Theophilus, son of Michael.
 842. Michael III., surnamed Porphyrogenetes, and the Sot, son of the preceding; murdered by his successor.
 867. Basilus I., the Macedonian.
 886. Leo VI., styled the Philosopher.
 911. Alexander, and Constantine VII., brother and son of Leo, the latter only six years old; the former dying in 912, Zoë, mother of Constantine, assumes the regency.
 919. Romanus Lecapenus usurps the imperial power.
 920. Constantine VIII., his son.
 928. Stephen and Christopher. Five emperors now reign: of these, Christopher dies in 931; Romanus is exiled by his sons Constantine and Stephen, who are themselves banished the next year.
 945. Constantine VII. now reigns alone; poisoned by his daughter-in-law, Theophania.
 959. Romanus II., son of the preceding, whose death he had contrived. The monster banishes Helena his mother.
 963. Nicephorus II. Phocas; weds Theophania, his predecessor's consort, who has him assassinated.
 969. John I. Zimisces, the celebrated general. He takes Basilus II. and Constantine IX., sons of Romanus II., as colleagues. John dies, supposed by poison, and
 975. Basilus II. and Constantine IX. reign. The former dies in 1025, the latter in 1028.
 1028. Romanus III. Argyropulus. Zoë, his consort, poisons him and
 1034. Michael IV., her paramour, a Paphlagonian money-lender, ascends the throne. On his death Zoë gives the crown to
 1041. Michael V., surnamed Calaphates, her adopted son. Him she dethrones, has his eyes put out, and marries
 1042. Constantine X. Monomachus, who reigns jointly with her. Zoë dies in 1050.
 1054. Theodora, widow of Constantine.
 1056. Michael VI. Stratiotes, or Strato; deposed.
 1057. Isaac I. Comnenus, chosen emperor by the soldiery; abdicates.
 1059. Constantine XI., surnamed Ducas.
 1067. Eudocia, consort of the preceding, and Romanus IV., surnamed Diogenes, whom she marries, reign to the prejudice of Michael, Constantine's son.
 1071. Michael VII. Parapinaces recovers his throne, and reigns jointly with Constantine XII.
 1078. Nicephorus III.; dethroned by
 1081. Alexius I. Comnenus; defeated by Robert Guiscard at Dyrrachium, and by the Turks in Asia Minor. In conjunction with the crusaders, he regains Nicæa, in 1097, but afterward quarrels with them.
 1188. John Comnenus, his son, surnamed Kalos; died of a wound from a poisoned arrow.
 1143. Manuel Comnenus, son of John.
 1180. Alexius II. Comnenus, son of Manuel, under the regency of Maria his mother. By her misconduct he is compelled to admit Andronicus Comnenus as his colleague. This miserable strangles him and seizes the throne.
 1183. Andronicus I. Comnenus. He is put to death by
 1185. Isaac II. Angelus Comnenus, who is deposed, imprisoned, and deprived of his eyes by his brother,
 1195. Alexius III. Angelus, called the Tyrant. He is besieged in Constantinople by the French and Venetians, who take the city and reinstate Isaac. In Thrace, whither he flees for safety, Alexis falls into the hands of Theodore Lascaris, who puts his eyes out, and imprisons him in a monastery, where he dies.
 1203. Isaac II. again, associated with his son Alexius IV. Father and son are murdered by Mourzoufle. The French and Venetians take Constantinople by storm. Mourzoufle is put to death, after his eyes have been torn from his head.

LATIN EMPERORS.

1204. Baldwin I., Earl of Flanders, on the capture of Constantinople is elected emperor; made a prisoner by the King of Bulgaria, and never heard of afterward.
 1206. Henry I., his brother.
 1217. Peter de Courtenay, Henry's brother-in-law.
 1221. Robert de Courtenay, his son.
 1228. Baldwin II., his brother, a minor, and John de Brienne of Jerusalem, regent and associate emperor.
 1261. [Constantinople recovered, and the empire of the Franks or Latins ends.]

GREEK EMPIRE AT NICE.

1204. Theodore Lascaris.
 1222. John Ducas, Vataces.
 1255. Theodore Lascaris II., his son.
 1259. John Lascaris, and
 1260. Michael VIII. Palæologus.

AT CONSTANTINOPLE AGAIN.

1261. Michael VIII. puts out the eyes of John, and reigns alone.
 1282. Andronicus II. Palæologus, son of Michael; deposed by his grandson,
 1332. Andronicus the Younger.
 1341. John Palæologus, under the guardianship

of John Cantaczenus; the latter proclaimed emperor at Adrianople.

1347. John Cantaczenus.

1355. John Palaeologus, restored.

1391. Manuel Palaeologus, his son.

1425. John Palaeologus II., his son.

1448. Constantine XIII. Palaeologus, his son, the last emperor. Mahomet II., the Ottoman sultan, laid siege to Constantinople by sea and land. After it had held out fifty-eight days, the Turks carried it by assault, May 29th, 1453. The unfortunate Constantine threw himself among the victors, and was cut to pieces.

EATON, WILLIAM, was born at Woodstock, Conn., Feb. 23d, 1764. After serving in the army at an early age, he prepared himself for entrance into Dartmouth College. In 1792 he received a captain's commission in the army, and in 1797 was appointed consul for Tunis. He engaged in the war with Tripoli, in 1804, hoping to reinstate Hamet Bashaw on the throne which had been usurped by his brother. With a force of 500 men of different nations, Eaton crossed the desert from Alexandria to Derne, overcoming serious obstacles. Derne was taken, the Tripolitan army repulsed, but, in the midst of triumph, Eaton learned that peace had been concluded between the United States and Tripoli. On his return to the United States, he was received with great favor. Aaron Burr in vain endeavored to obtain his aid in his conspiracy, and on his trial Eaton testified against him. In 1811 he fell a victim to habits of intemperance.

EBRO, a river in Spain, the scene of a signal defeat of the Spaniards by the French, near Tudela, Nov. 23d, 1808; and also the scene of several important movements of the allied British and Spanish armies during the Peninsular war, between 1809 and 1814.

ECKMÜHL; a Bavarian village on the Lahr, where Napoleon severely defeated the Austrians, commanded by the Archduke Charles, April 22d, 1809. For his skill and intrepidity in this battle Marshal Davoust had his title of Prince of Eckmühl.

ECLIPSES. The first eclipse recorded, happened March 19th, 721 B.C., at 8' 40'' P.M., according to Ptolemy; it was lunar, and was accurately observed at Babylon. The following were extraordinary eclipses.

Of the sun.—That observed at Sardis (predicted by Thales), 585 B.C. At Athens, 424 B.C. A general one at the death of Christ,

A.D. 33. At Rome, caused a total darkness at noon-day, A.D. 291. At Constantinople, 968. In France, June 29th, 1033, dark at noon-day. In England, March 21st, 1140, occasioned a total darkness. Another June 23d, 1191, entire darkness, and the stars very visible at ten in the morning. In the same year, the true sun, and the appearance of another, so that astronomers alone could distinguish the difference by their glasses. Another, total, 1331. A total eclipse of the sun in England, when the darkness was so great, that the stars faintly appeared, and the birds went to roost in the morning about ten, April 22d, 1715. Great eclipse in the United States, 1806; another, 1811; another, 1831; another in 1834. The 19th of May, 1780, was a remarkable day throughout New England. It was known as the *Dark day*. Candles were lit; the birds were hushed, and the fowls retired to roost.

Eclipses of the moon. Total, observed by the Chaldeans at Babylon, 721 B.C. At Syracuse, 413 B.C. In Asia Minor, 219 B.C. At Rome, predicted by Q. Sulpitius Gallus, 168 B.C. Another, which terrified the Roman troops, and quelled their revolt, A.D. 14.

ECUADOR, a South American republic, has an area of 325,000 square miles, and a population of about 665,000. It is divided into the three departments of Equator or Quito, Guayaquil, and Assuay. The department of the Equator, lying between two parallel ranges of the loftiest Andes, forms the finest table plain in all America. Almost ten thousand feet is it raised above the level of the sea. In soil and climate, its felicity nearly approaches that of the fabled golden age. The clime is perpetual spring, at once benign and equal, and even during the four months of rain the mornings and evenings are clear. Vegetation never droops; the country is called the evergreen Quito; the trees and meadows are clad with perpetual verdure. Above this smiling valley, resting as it were on its verdant hills, rise the loftiest volcanic cones of the Andes, crowned with everlasting ice; Chimborazo, Pichincha, and their gigantic fellows. In this valley are found many monuments of the sway of the Incas, for though their main seat of empire was at Cuzco, Quito was one of their most valued provinces. The productions

are various, but the most valuable are those of the temperate climates, grains, fruits, and rich pasturage. The city of Quito is the capital both of the department and of the republic. It has four streets, broad, handsome, and well paved, and three spacious squares, in which the principal dwellings are situated; but the other streets, straggling up the side of Pichincha, are crooked and irregular. The churches and convents are built with great magnificence and some taste. There are a university and two colleges, and Quito is considered comparatively a South American Athens. The inhabitants are gay, hospitable, and courteous. They are fond of the sweet bits of this life, and confectionery and viands are among the chief products of their city. Silver and gold are worked rather extensively. The population of Quito is decreasing, and is now but about 40,000.

The department of Guayaquil is also very fertile. The city of Guayaquil, founded by Pizarro in 1533, on the bay of the same name, has a population of 25,000, and with its excellent harbor is a flourishing commercial town. Guayaquil has its plagues, like old Egypt. The air swarms with musquitoes, and flies that are still more tormenting; the ground teems with snakes, centipedes, and other reptiles of dangerous bite. There is a chameleon whose scratch is believed to be mortal; a belief which seems quite chimerical, but which greatly worries the citizens. The ants can not be subdued: sometimes, when a tart is cut up, they are seen running in all directions, leaving the interior a void. Then the shores are crowded with caymans and alligators. Earthquakes are common, as indeed in brighter Quito. And lastly, the marshy nature of the site is pestilent with malignant fevers. As a set-off to all this, we should mention that the women of Guayaquil are famous for their beauty, and their engaging gayety and propriety of conduct.

Ecuador was discovered by Pizarro in 1526, and came into the hands of the Spaniards at the downfall of the Peruvian empire. It constituted the audiencia of Quito, dependent upon the vice-royalty of New Grenada, until in 1812 the inhabitants revolted from the Spanish yoke. The fierce contest ended in 1823. The republic of Colombia was then

formed. In 1831, it fell to pieces, and Ecuador, Venezuela, and New Grenada, the states composing it, have since been independent republics. The Roman Catholic is the established religion. The people of Ecuador are composed of the descendants of Spaniards, and aborigines, the latter being about three-quarters of the whole number.

EDGAR, the Peaceable, a Saxon king of England, son of Edred, and brother of Edwy, his immediate successor. He ascended the throne at the age of sixteen in 959. He governed with vigor and success, and secured the proper administration of justice by giving it his personal attention. He died in 974.

EDGE HILL, BATTLE OF, between the royalists and the army of parliament, Oct. 23d, 1642, was the first engagement of importance in the civil war. Charles I. was present. Prince Rupert commanded the royalists, and the Earl of Essex the parliamentarians. The Earl of Lindsay, one of the king's generals, who headed the foot, was mortally wounded, and taken prisoner. The royal army lost 5,000 dead on the field, with vast numbers of wounded and prisoners; but owing to the great loss on the other side also, the action gave no decisive advantage to either party, and neither could fairly claim a victory.

EDGEWORTH, MARIA, a pleasing authoress, born in England, Jan. 1st, 1767, died at Edgeworth's-town, Ireland, in May, 1849.

EDMUND II., surnamed Ironsides, King of England, succeeded Ethelred his father, in 1016, and reigned seven months. He was defeated by Canute, who became sole monarch of England on his death, which is supposed to have been caused by poison.

EDRED, son of Edward the Elder, succeeded to the throne of England on the murder of his brother, Edmund I., in 947. He quelled the Danes and Northumbrians, and compelled Malcolm to do homage for the crown of Scotland. Yet he was priest-ridden, and a slave to Dunstan, Abbot of Glastonbury. He died after a reign of eight years.

EDWARD, the Elder, King of England, succeeded his father, Alfred the Great, in 901. He was successful against the Danes and Welsh, and died in 925.

EDWARD, the Martyr, King of England,

son of Edgar, whom he succeeded in 974, at the age of fifteen. He was stabbed at Corfe Castle, March 18th, 979, while hunting, by a servant of Elfrida, his step-mother, who wished to raise her own son, Ethelred, to the throne.

EDWARD I., II., III., IV., and V., of England. [*See* PLANTAGENET.]

EDWARD VI., of England. [*See* TUDOR.]

EDWARDS, JONATHAN, an American divine, and distinguished metaphysician, was born in East Windsor, Conn., Oct. 5th, 1703, and was educated at Yale College. In 1758 he was chosen president of the college at Princeton, New Jersey, where he died March 22d, 1758. He had previously preached at New York and Northampton, and filled the office of missionary among the Indians at Stockbridge, Massachusetts. His "Treatise on Religious Affections," and his works "on Free Will" and "Original Sin," have gained him a permanent reputation.

EGBERT, the last king of the Saxon heptarchy, and the first monarch of united England, was the eighteenth king of the West Saxons. He was harassed by repeated invasions of the Danes, and died in 838.

EGEDE, HANS, a celebrated missionary, born in Denmark in 1686, and died in 1758, having devoted himself to the sacred task of spreading the light of revealed religion among the Greenlanders. The dictates of duty frequently led him to peril his life, but the consciousness of rectitude, and the triumphs of success, sweetened his toil, and shed joy upon his earthly pilgrimage.

EGYPT was the most celebrated kingdom of Africa, and one of the oldest nations of the world. The Egyptians were early proficient in the sciences and the liberal arts, and to them men came from all civilized countries for the purpose of acquiring information. Some of the most celebrated of the Greeks acquired a great portion of their learning in Egypt. Ancient Egypt was divided into Upper Egypt, or Thebais, Middle Egypt, or Heptanomis, and Lower Egypt, the most valuable portion of which was the Delta. The most accurate general description of Egypt that we have, has been given by Volney, in a single sentence. "To describe Egypt in two words, let the reader imagine, on one side, a narrow sea and rocks; on the other, immense

plains of sand; and in the middle, a river flowing through a valley of a hundred and fifty leagues in length, and from three to seven wide, which, at the distance of eighty leagues from the sea, separates into two arms, the branches of which wander over a country where they meet with no obstacles, and which is almost without declivity."

The ancient Egyptians paid great attention to agriculture, and availed themselves of their arts to redeem vast tracts of land from the waters, rendering them fertile, and adapting them to tillage. In former times the region which eventually received the name of Lower Egypt and the Delta, was covered with water, and consequently Egypt was but a limited tract of land. The ancient Egyptians, notwithstanding their character for wisdom and learning, were grossly idolatrous, worshiping animals, and regarding oxen, cats, crocodiles, sheep, &c., as sacred. The advantage taken of this superstitious character by Cambyse is well known. Placing in front of his army the animals worshiped by the Egyptians, he advanced against them boldly, well aware that they would not strike a blow for fear of injuring the creatures they adored.

The ancient government of Egypt was the subject of eulogy among all nations, and legislators from various countries came to Egypt to examine its institutions, in order thence to gather hints for the improvement of their own. The accounts which writers of antiquity give of the early history of Egypt are so contradictory and improbable that it is needless to allude to them in pages which deal with matters of fact. Menes, the first king of Egypt, is said to have conferred great benefits upon his subjects. He redeemed a vast extent of land from the waters, was the spiritual instructor of the Egyptians, introduced splendor, and founded solemn and magnificent feasts. After many years of uninterrupted prosperity, Egypt fell under the sway of some rude adventurers who founded the dynasty of the Hycsos or shepherd kings, which commenced about 2048 years B.C., and lasted until the year 1825 B.C., when the shepherd kings were expelled.

Jacob settled in the land of Goshen, 1706 B.C. The children of Israel were held in bondage from the death of Joseph, 1635 B.C., to 1491 B.C. Their departure happened, ac-



COLOSSI NEAR THEBES.

cording to some writers, during the reign of Amenophis II., the Pharaoh who pursued them into the Red Sea, and was overwhelmed by its returning waters. It must be remembered that Pharaoh was a title borne by all the kings of Egypt in common. In 1445, Lower Egypt was conquered by the Canaanites, who fled before Joshua, when he dispossessed them of their own country. Upper Egypt was divided at this time into a great number of kingdoms, which were united about 1157. About 1350, Remeses or Sesostris, king of Egypt, made rapid and extensive conquests. The Ethiopians conquered Egypt, and retained possession of it for forty years. The Assyrians also conquered it, but the whole of it was regained by Psammetichus, about 660 B.C. After a prosperous reign he was succeeded by Pharaoh Necho, his son, 616 B.C. This monarch was conquered by the famous Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon. • Egypt was made tributary to Persia by Cambyses, the son of Cyrus, 525 B.C. The Egyptians revolted, but were again subjugated. Another revolt was successful, and for a short time the Egyptians enjoyed their independence, but 350 B.C., Artaxerxes Ochus restored the Persian dominion. Alexander the Great, 331 B.C., com-

pelled the Egyptians to submit to his arms. On the death of this great conqueror, Ptolemy, one of his generals, took possession of the kingdom, 323 B.C., and founded the dynasty of the Ptolemies, which lasted until the death of Cleopatra, when Egypt became a Roman province, in the year B.C. 30, and the second of the reign of Augustus. In the year 640, Egypt was conquered by Amron, general of Omar, caliph of the Saracens. The library of Alexandria, which had been collected with care, and contained manuscripts of immense value, was consumed by the order of Omar. The Fatimites gave place to the Mamelukes in 1250. These last were foreign soldiers, employed by the Fatimite princes, and they held the kingdom until conquered by Selim I., Sultan of the Turks, in 1517, and made his nominal vassals.

In 1798, the French having resolved to attack the British possessions in India, it was determined to seize upon Egypt, so that, by carrying on the commerce of the East through the Red Sea, the new French colony should become the grand mart where all Europe might be supplied with Indian articles, cheaper than they could be rendered by the British, while, as a military post, it could, at

all times, transport auxiliaries to the coast of Coromandel. On the 20th of May, 1798, Bonaparte put to sea on board the *L'Orient* of 120 guns, bearing the flag of Admiral Brueys, who was to take command of the fleet then assembling from the different ports of France, which was to consist of an armament containing 40,000 soldiers and 10,000 sailors. On the evening of the 1st of July, Bonaparte made arrangements for landing at Marabout. They were at a distance of about three leagues from the shore; the wind was northerly, and blew with violence, and the debarkation perilous and difficult; the sea was covered with boats. Early in the next morning, the general-in-chief landed at the head of the foremost troops, who formed with the greatest promptitude in the desert, about three leagues from Alexandria. After some slight skirmishes, he advanced and invested Alexandria, where he established himself on the 5th, by a capitulation of the city and fortress. Having garrisoned Alexandria, which was left in the command of Kleber, the army marched to Gizeh, Rosetta and other places having been garrisoned by the French. Near the pyramids Bonaparte found that Murad Bey had assembled all his forces to oppose the further progress of the French. The Mamelukes, amounting to 10,000, fought with desperate but unavailing courage. Part of them were put to the sword or drowned in the Nile, while the remnant, under the conduct of Murad Bey, retreated to Upper Egypt. The battle of the Pyramids was a hard-fought conflict. Bonaparte entered Cairo in triumph. The French troops were formed into three divisions, one of which, under General Dessaix, was sent to pursue the fugitive Mamelukes; the second was left at Cairo; and the third followed Ibrahim Bey, who had fled, and so precipitately, that he could not be overtaken. Returning to Cairo, Bonaparte employed himself in arranging the details of the government of Lower Egypt, sending garrisons, establishing lazarettos, &c.

Soon after the battle of the Nile, an insurrection broke out in Cairo which Bonaparte hastened to quell. When the French gained their victory at Aboukir, and took the fort from the enemy, their power in Egypt appeared to be firmly established. Soon after

this, the losses of the French in Italy, and the dangers which appeared to threaten France, induced Bonaparte to return home, a privilege granted him in the commencement, and the chief command was committed to Kleber in a general order dated Aug. 22d, 1799. One day, Massena having asked what sort of a man Kleber, of whom such various accounts had been given, in reality was, Napoleon replied: "Picture to yourself a man of lofty stature, of an imposing figure, the finest military man you ever saw; talented, well instructed, and capable of forming a correct judgment of any thing at a glance; a man who, like you, has commenced his career in a good school, the infantry, and who is a good maneuverer, although educated in Austria; but indolent, excessively proud, and sarcastic. He is a man, who, in time of war, by trifling and joking, and heaping ridicule on all with whom he deals, suffers himself to go to the very edge of the ditch; when, generally, his self-love comes to the rescue, his talent rallies, and he sometimes does very fine things, as you have been told."

The condition of the French troops becoming every moment more critical, after various conferences with Sir Sidney Smith, it was agreed that after a truce of three months, the French should evacuate Egypt, and accordingly the treaty was signed at El Arish, Jan. 24th, 1800. Kleber wrote a letter to the French directory, stating the miserable condition of the French army, and urging the ratification of the treaty of El Arish. This letter, however, fell into the hands of Admiral Keith, and having been transmitted to the British government, they refused to allow the French any means of saving themselves, except by surrendering as prisoners of war. Sir Sidney Smith hastened to inform the French of the views of his government. A few days after, the lieutenant of the *Tiger* (an English vessel) sent General Kleber a letter, written by Admiral Keith, under date of Minorca, Jan. 8th, notifying to him the only conditions on which the British government would recognize the capitulation.

General Kleber, shortly before this, enslaved by a secret spirit of jealousy, which perhaps he dared not confess to himself, had been following blindly a fatal path in which his fame was threatened. A better day arose when

the honor of his nation was menaced, and the French troops were perfidiously commanded to lay down their arms. The discontented Kleber, Kleber the humorist, instantly became another man. The patriotic Frenchman, the able and heroic leader, once more appeared. The order of the day was conveyed by the letter of Admiral Keith, and Kleber contented himself with adding these words: "Soldiers! the only reply to insolence like this is victory! Prepare to fight." Never were soldiers better prepared. Indignation ran through every rank. The Turks should pay dearly for the bad faith of their allies. Kleber declared that he should regard the least advance on the part of the Turks as a hostile movement. Disregarding this warning, Youssef Pacha, the grand vizier, repaired to El Hancka with his whole army. His vanguard was within two leagues of Cairo. Firmans circulated in the provinces, and even in Cairo itself, excited the people to insurrection. Civil and religious influences increased the danger of the French. Time pressed; the troops summoned by Kleber appeared in small detachments; but still they were animated by one spirit. Ten thousand men did not hesitate to attack an army which the Turks and English themselves have estimated at from forty to sixty thousand. At the ancient Heliopolis, Kleber prepared for combat. With a trifling loss on their part, the French routed the enemy, whose killed and wounded numbered 6,000. The French were again in firm possession of a reconquered country, and Murad Bey became their ally.

Writers who think to honor Kleber, by representing him as the enemy of Bonaparte, affect to say, that he conceived the resolution of keeping Egypt, "out of hatred to the man who had usurped the sovereignty in France." To obscure the glory of him whom they accuse, they darken the character of the man they would eulogize. They say also, with very little truth, that "the talents of Kleber had excited the jealousy of Bonaparte." But what points of comparison could be established between them? What victories had Kleber gained to rank them with the two campaigns of Italy, or the single one of Egypt? Kleber had never commanded in chief. Often had the chief command been offered him, and as often had he refused; a singular trait of that pride which disdains to command, and yet

will not bend to obedience. Employed in a secondary rank by preference, he revenged himself for this voluntary inferiority by epigrams upon the officer above him, whether Beurnonville, Jourdon, or Moreau himself. In Egypt his powers of sarcasm were employed in vain against a man who feared them not. If, at a later period, he denounced Bonaparte to the directory, he had before, in a frank and bold letter, denounced, if we may use the expression, the directory to General Bonaparte; and this was the political confidence of a clear-sighted man, who, beholding in that general the future fortunate leader of a party, predicted the fate which awaited him. On his part, Napoleon, appreciating Kleber, made use of him without fear, and pardoned his faults in consideration of his good qualities. He feared not to debase himself in making advances. Some reproaches addressed to Kleber on the subject of his administration in Egypt having wounded his feelings to such a degree that he was about to leave the army, Bonaparte wrote, "On the soil of Egypt, the clouds pass away in six hours: were they on my side, they should dissipate in three." This was the conduct of Bonaparte toward the man whose rivalry he was accused of fearing.

Kleber made many wise regulations to strengthen his administration. Meanwhile Europe had heard the news of the battle of Heliopolis and its results. The violation of national rights had yielded to the British government but unsavory and bloody fruits, and they could not but regard with regret the destruction of a fine Ottoman army 40,000 strong. General Kleber, having gained, by chance, minute information of the views of the English, was taking a course which gave general satisfaction, when the dagger of a Mussulman assassin deprived the army of a leader, and France of the possession of Egypt. The fatal news circulated with rapidity; grief and indignation were general, and at the end of some hours the criminal was seized. It was proved that the murderer, Suliman El Alepi, who was sent from Gazah to Cairo, was only a fanatic subaltern, who, intoxicated with temporal and spiritual promises, and maddened by the incendiary firmans of the Turkish government, pretended to punish, in the person of Kleber, the enemy of the prophet, and the conqueror of the grand vizier.

After the revolt of Cairo in 1798, the sheikhs having come to implore the pardon of Bonaparte, the latter treated with peculiar respect an old man of the party, the Sheikh Sada. He raised him, kissed, and embraced him. When they had retired, he said to Kleber, "Do you know that old fellow whom I honored so?" "No," answered Kleber. "He is the ringleader of the insurrection." "The deuce! I would have shot him." When, in 1800, Kleber, having retaken Cairo with an armed force, exacted as a punishment an extraordinary contribution of 4,000,000 francs, this same sheikh refused to pay the sum which was assessed upon him. In the first movement of anger, Kleber gave orders to have him bastinadoed, but, soon after, recollecting the conduct of Bonaparte, recalled them too late. When Bonaparte heard of Kleber's death, his first words were, "This comes of the bastinado administered to the Sheikh Sada." And in reality the assassin had been concealed in the mosque forty days. Similar fanatics had been previously sent to stab Bonaparte, but the sheikhs had prevented them.

The command of the French army devolved on General Menon. In 1801 the English, determined to drive the French from Egypt, fitted out an expedition, of which the army was commanded by Sir Ralph Abercrombie, and the fleet by Lord Keith. On the 23d of February, 1801, the fleet weighed anchor, and on March 1st was anchored in Aboukir Bay. On the 8th they landed, and on the 18th gained possession of the fort. On the 21st, General Menon attacked the English, but was completely defeated by them after a well contested engagement. During the charge of cavalry, Sir Ralph Abercrombie was mortally wounded; after having dispatched his aides-de-camp he was alone, and some French dragoons attacked him, threw him from his horse, and attempted to cut him down. The gallant general, however, sprang up and wrested the sword from his antagonist, who was bayoneted by a soldier of the forty-second. He died on the 28th, on board Lord Keith's ship. General Hutchinson succeeded to the command and resolved to reduce Lower Egypt. By the 19th of April, Fort Sulien and Rosetta were captured, and the British proceeded to Rhamanich, where the French made a stand, but were vanquished, and retreated toward Cairo.

On the 11th of May the army continued its march, and, on the 15th, intelligence being received that Belliard was in full march from Cairo, Hutchinson resolved to anticipate the attack. On the 16th, the Turks commenced the onset. The French took post in a wood of date-trees near Elmenayer, but were compelled to retreat. The British were now joined by great numbers of Arabs. The camp was placed at Gizeh, and dispositions were made for invading Cairo; but the French garrison offered to capitulate. A convention was accordingly concluded on the 28th of June, with certain stipulations, but Menon not acceding to the surrender of Alexandria, Hutchinson invested that city, with the co-operation of Lord Keith and Coote, which enabled him to surround it, and Menon capitulated. Four weeks after the evacuation of Egypt by the French, the preliminaries of a treaty of peace were signed at London. The Egyptians were much attached to the French, and regretted them extremely, for both Bonaparte and Kleber did all in their power, during their brief term of possession, to ameliorate the condition of the country.

The Mamelukes and the Turkish pacha could not agree; scenes of blood and treachery occurred, till at last Mehemet Ali, the pacha, got most of the beys and their principal officers into the citadel of Cairo, under pretense of an entertainment, and massacred the whole of them, March, 1811. Thus ended the Mameluke power, which had ruled Egypt more than four centuries. The sway of Mehemet Ali was more rational, orderly, and humane than Egypt yet had had, and he did much for civilization. Though nominally subject to the Porte, he made wide conquests and rendered himself virtually independent. The sultan watched his growing power with increasing jealousy, and in 1832 sent a powerful army against him. The Turks were unsuccessful, and Ibrahim Pacha, Mehemet's son and victorious general, was on the march for Constantinople, when the European powers interfered, and forced a peace. In 1840 the sultan thinking himself strong enough, resumed hostilities. Again the Egyptians annihilated his armies, and again the powers of Europe came to his rescue. By a treaty signed July 15th, 1841, Mehemet Ali was stripped of all his conquests in Asia, but the

government of Egypt was insured to him as a tributary to Turkey, and made hereditary in his descendants. Ibrahim Pacha died Sept. 1st, 1848, and his father little less than a year after. Abbas Pacha, a nephew of Ibrahim, was made viceroy, and upon his decease in 1854, Said Pacha was appointed.

Egypt is called by the Arabs *Masr*, by the Turks *El Kabit*, and by the Copts *Khemi*. Its Hebrew name was *Miz* or *Mizraim*. It comprises 200,000 square miles, which are peopled by about 2,000,000 of inhabitants. It is divided into three parts, Upper Egypt (*Said*), Middle Egypt (*Vostani*), and Lower Egypt (*Buhari*) including the Delta. The only valuable portion of the land is that which is watered by the Nile and its branches. The cultivated part of Upper Egypt is a narrow strip inclosed by ridges of mountains. The Nile annually overflows its banks, leaving a fertilizing mud or slime. The inundation commences about the middle of June, and increases until the latter part of August. The productions of the country are maize, rice, wheat, barley, sugar-cane, indigo, cotton, flax, dates, &c. The inhabitants are Copts, descendants of the original race, Arabs, Turks, and Jews.

The fertility of the land, the variety of the fruits, and the thousand natural advantages which it possesses, might, by judicious management, make Egypt one of the most-wealthy and flourishing countries in the world. A liberal government and enterprising public officers would soon restore it to the rank which it once held. As a commercial country, it possesses inestimable facilities. Bees are now carefully reared, honey forming an important article of trade. The verdure of Upper Egypt generally withers at the end of four or five months, and commences earlier than in Lower Egypt. In consequence of this, the Lower Egyptians collect the bees of several villages, in large boats; each hive having a mark by which the owner can recognize it. The men having charge of them then commence the gradual ascent of the Nile, stopping whenever they come to a region of herbage and flowers. At break of day the bees issue from their cells in thousands, and busily collect the sweets of the flowers which are spread in luxuriant profusion around them, returning to their hives laden with honey,

and issuing forth again in quest of more, several times in the course of the day. Thus for three or four months, they travel in a land of flowers, and are brought back to the place whence they started, with the delicious product of the sweet orange-flowers which perfume the Said, the roses of Faïoum, and the jessamines of Arabia. The sugar-cane is an Egyptian production, and one of great value; olive and fig-trees, producing the most delicious fruit, are also found in abundance. The palm is one of the most useful of the Egyptian trees. The fruit is agreeable, and the bark, as well as the leaves and rind of the fruit, yields materials for cordage and the sails of the boats. The Mameluke javelins were made of the ribs of the palm branches.

The condition of the poor people of Egypt is deplorable. The tyranny of their rulers wrests from them the fruit of their hard labors, and leaves them but a miserable sustenance which they can hardly be supposed to enjoy. Rice and corn they can not eat, for all that they raise must be carried to their masters, who leave them for food *dourra*, or Indian millet, of which they form a very unpalatable and coarse kind of bread without any leaven. With the addition of water and raw onions, this is their food throughout the year. They know no luxury beyond a meal of the above articles improved by a little honey, cheese, sour milk, and dates. A shirt of coarse linen dyed blue, and a black cloak, a cloth bonnet, with a long red woollen handkerchief rolled around it, form their costume.

Cairo (Kahira), the capital, has about 250,000 inhabitants. It was built A.D. 970, and under Saladin and his successors, became one of the most commercial cities of the world, standing as it did midway between Europe and the Indies. The discovery of the path around the Cape of Good Hope, ended its prosperity. Alexandria is now the commercial city of Egypt. [See ALEXANDRIA.] Damietta, a town some six miles from the Mediterranean, is near the site of the ancient Thamiatis. It has 28,000 inhabitants. Rosetta, formerly an important port, has lost its traffic. To the traveler Egypt is replete with wonder and interest. He lingers among the gigantic remains of ancient art and splendor, with a feeling of veneration; recalling, as he dwells upon the spot, the busy scenes of the past,

the actors of which sleep beneath the dust of centuries, their perishable remains contrasting with the vast monuments of their enterprise and wealth, which, not the less surely because at a later period, will yet be crumbled into atoms by the stern hand of time. Then, too, the presence of these antique relics raises visions of the troubled times of Israel, when the yoke of the Pharaoh pressed heavily upon her children, till they were rescued from the land of bondage by the power of the Omnipotent, who rolled back the strong tides of the sea to let them pass. The contemplation of these early scenes awakens in the well-trained mind a thought of Him, of whom we know that whatever be the chance or change of time, though kingdoms may pass away, and cities be crumbled into dust, "His word endureth for ever." [For an account of the pyramids, see WONDERS OF THE WORLD.]

ELBA (the ancient *Ilea*), a small mountainous island in the Mediterranean, near the coast of Tuscany, to which it now belongs. It has an area of ninety-seven square miles, a population of 20,000, and contains iron, silver, loadstone, and marble. The climate is mild. This island was allotted to Napoleon in 1814, on his abdication of the crown of France. He quitted it February 26th, 1815.

ELDON, JOHN SCOTT, Earl of, born at Newcastle in 1751. He was a distinguished common-law judge, and sat on the woolsack from 1801 till 1827. He was bigotedly opposed to law reform, and is said to have shed tears on the abolition of the punishment of death for stealing five shillings from a dwelling-house. He died January 13th, 1838.

EL DORADO. When the zeal for travels, conquests, and discoveries in America, first began to develope itself among the Spaniards and other nations of Europe, those who thirsted for adventure and aggrandizement were not content with the actual wonders of the New World, but they taxed their imaginations for the creation of realms in which the splendors of fairy-land were surpassed. Various circumstances contributed to add authority and influence to these fables. The tale that is oftentimes repeated generally comes to be regarded as true, particularly when the narrators are skillful and have weighty reasons for disguising the truth.

These were not wanting with regard to the fable of El Dorado, or 'the golden region.' It was currently believed that somewhere in Guiana, there existed a kingdom, the wealth of which surpassed that of any known region on the face of the globe. Along the whole coast of the Spanish Main, it was believed that, in the interior of the country, there existed a land whose importance and riches it was impossible to exaggerate. These rumors are said to have had reference to the kingdom of Bogota and Tunja, now New Grenada. What was rather singular with regard to El Dorado, was, that the nearer adventurers approached to it, the farther off it appeared to be. The Peruvians had accounts of its existence in the *Nuevo Reyno*; the adventurers of that country believed that it existed in Peru. In fact it appeared like the blessed isle of Indian song, which fled the footsteps of pursuers.

Imagination, however, soon supplied the proper data. Tired of profitless wanderings, the gold-hunters fixed upon a certain region (in Guiana), as the locality of the kingdom of El Dorado. Nor was it a very difficult matter to make maps of the country, to crowd it with lakes and rivers, to refine its inhabitants, to perfect its arts, and to heighten its splendor. The story ran thus. After the fall of the Incas, a younger brother of Atabalipa, collecting what treasures he could lay hands upon, fled to an inland country, and founded a magnificent empire. This potentate was indifferently styled the Great Paytiti, the Great Moxo, the Enim or Great Paru. From interested motives, men of intelligence and reputation scrupled not to confirm the tales of this empire, and lend the sanction of their names to the most absurd and puerile fictions. Thus Sir Walter Raleigh, aware of the important results of colonizing Guiana, lured adventurers onward by displaying before them the most enticing pictures of the gilded monarch and his realm. He even did not hesitate to attempt to pass upon Queen Elizabeth, as facts, the monstrous fables which his heated mind was alone capable of receiving.

One unblushing impostor asserted that he had himself been in Manoa, the capital of the imaginary kingdom, and that in the street of silversmiths, no fewer than three thousand

workmen were employed. This traveler was very minute in his details, and produced a map which he had projected, and which was marked with the situation of a hill of gold, one of silver, and one of salt. The gorgeous palace of the emperor was held on high by magnificent and symmetrical pillars of porphyry and alabaster, and encircled by galleries which were formed of ebony and cedar, curiously wrought. About the period of Raleigh's first expedition, it was believed at Paraguay that the court of the Great Moxo had been actually discovered and visited. At this time the description of the interior varied a little from that which we have just given. A vast lake of exquisite transparency and softness reflected the palace, which was built upon an island in its centre. The material of the edifice was snow-white marble of a peculiar brilliancy. Two towers guarded the entrance, standing on each side of a superb column, which shot up to the height of twenty-five feet, and bore upon its capital an immense silver moon, while two living lions were attached by massy chains of solid gold to its pedestal. These animals, like the dragons of a fairy tale, defended the entrance to a place which outshone the realms of fairyland. We know not whether an acquaintance with magic was necessary to quiet the vigilance of these wild guards, or whether they were well-bred creatures, disposed to make allowances for the curiosity of visitors, and permit them an easy entrance into the palace of El Dorado. Be that as it may, having passed those guards, you entered a quadrangle, where you could not fail to be delighted with the freshness and shade of the green trees, and the fragrant coolness and musical murmur of a silver fountain, which gushed and gleamed through four golden pipes. A small copper gate, the bolt of which shot into a massy rock, hid the interior of the palace. This passed, the splendor of the internal arrangements dazzled and delighted. A vast altar, formed of solid silver, supported an immense golden sun, before which four lamps were kept perpetually burning.

The lord of this magnificence was called *El Dorado*, literally 'the gilded,' from the savage splendor of his costume, his naked body being daily anointed with costly gum,

and then heaped with gold dust, until he presented the appearance of a golden statue. "But," Oviedo sagely remarks, "as this kind of garment would be uneasy to him while he slept, the prince washes himself every evening, and he is gilded anew in the morning, which proves that the empire of El Dorado is infinitely rich in mines." This fable had its origin in the peculiar rites introduced by the worship of Bochica, as the high priest of this sect was accustomed, every morning, to anoint his hands and face with grease, and then heap them with gold dust. Another custom, spoken of by Humboldt, may have given rise to the romance. This eminent traveler says that in the wilder parts of Guiana, where painting the body is used instead of the practice of tattooing, the Indians smear their bodies with the fat of turtles, and then cover them with pieces of mica of a metallic lustre, brilliantly white as silver, and red as copper, so that they appear robed in a garment covered with gold and silver embroidery, when seen from a little distance.

Although productive of much mischief, the expeditions undertaken in the hope of discovering El Dorado did considerable service to the cause of science; and thus, by the agency of fiction, many important truths were brought to light. Of the different expeditions fitted out in search of El Dorado, the last, incredible as it may seem, was set on foot as lately as the year 1775. From this we may judge how firm was the belief in the existence of this fairy land. The earliest enterprises of this nature attempted to reach the realm of the Great Moxo somewhere in the direction of the eastern back of the Andes of New Grenada. The captains Anasco and Anipudia were dispatched by Sebastian de Belalcazar, in 1535, to discover the valley of Dorado, in consequence of the flaming descriptions which an Indian of Tacunga had given of the riches and splendor of the Zaque, or the king of Cundinamarca. Diaz de Pineda (in 1536) gave rise to the idea that there were, to the eastward of the Nevados of Tunguragua, Cayambe, and Popayan, immense plains where the precious metals were found in abundance, and where gold, in particular, was so plentiful, that the inhabitants converted massy plates of it into armor.

In 1539, Gonzalo Pizarro, inflamed by the

account of these treasures, set forth in search of them, and by chance made discovery of the American cinnamon trees. Francisco de Orellana set forth to reach the river of Amazons by the Napo. Expeditions were fitted out simultaneously from Venezuela, New Grenada, Quito, Peru, Brazil, and the Rio de la Plata, having for their sole object the conquest of Dorado. The incursions to the south of Guaviare, the Rio Fragua, and the Cagueta, were declared to have procured proof not only of the existence of the city of El Dorado, but of the immense riches of the Manos, the Omaguas, and the Guaypos. We discover proofs of accurate knowledge and careful research in the narratives of the voyages of Orellana, George von Specier, Hernan Perez de Quesada, and Philip von Hutten, undertaken in 1536, 1542, and 1545, although there is no lack of exaggeration and fable likewise. Those who sought the town of the Gilded Monarch directed their steps to two points situated on the north-east and south-west of the Rio Negro; viz. to Parima, the early abode of the Manos, who dwelt upon the banks of the Jurubesh. There exists now very little doubt that the whole of the country lying between the Amazon and Orinoco, was comprehended under the general name of the provinces of the gilded king.

The first voyage of Sir Walter Raleigh was undertaken in 1595. That enterprising and romantic man, who was then in high favor with Queen Elizabeth, was tired of the dull realities of the old world, and thirsted for adventure. He embraced the idea of El Dorado with ardor, as holding out something worthy of his attention. It is true that he had no definite ideas about the situation of the fabled kingdom, but he rushed into the adventure with the enthusiasm and ardor which distinguished him. He was, of course, disappointed, and probably found the affair, gilded king, lake, city, palace, lions, gold mountains, and all, what we, in these commonplace and degenerate days, should term a bubble or a hoax. Sir Walter Raleigh was a courtier, well versed in the ways of the world, and he cared not to endure the mortification, on his return, of ridicule or pity for the failure of the expedition. He was determined to sacrifice truth to what he considered expediency. Besides, he had formed the pro-

ject of colonizing Guiana, which he saw would produce the happiest results, and he thought that, by holding out the golden prize of El Dorado, he should induce many to patronize his scheme.

We shall briefly trace the course of Sir Walter Raleigh, when, after having collected from Antonio de Berrio, whom he took prisoner in his incursion on the island of Trinidad in 1595, and others, the sum of the knowledge possessed at that time upon the subject of Guiana and the adjacent countries, he set forth upon his celebrated expedition. He then entertained no doubts of the existence of the two great lakes, and the kingdom of the famous Inca, which was supposed to have been founded near the sources of the river Essequibo. Passing the river Guavapo, and the plains of Chaymas, Raleigh stopped at Morequito, where he was informed by an old man that there was no doubt that foreign nations had entered Guiana. The cataracts of Carony, a river which was supposed to be the shortest way to Macureguari and Manoa, towns situated on the banks of Lakes Cassipa and Rupunuwini, or Dorado, terminated this expedition.

We must be permitted to doubt almost every assertion made by Raleigh with regard to the results of this voyage. He was determined that his cause should lose nothing from excessive modesty, and consequently the style in which he speaks of Manoa is highly inflated. He heard of inland seas which he compares to the Caspian, and of "the imperial and golden city of Manoa." He styles the ruler of the magnificent country, "the emperor Inga of Guyana," and says that he had erected palaces of the most dazzling magnificence, said to surpass by far the superb palaces of his Peruvian ancestors. Raleigh, in his endeavors to influence the queen, neglected neither the arts of flattery nor the embellishments of fiction. He says that to the barbarous nations he encountered, he showed the picture of the queen, at which they exhibited "transports of joy." He asserts that he was informed that at the time of the conquest of Peru, there were prophecies "in their chiefest temples," which foretold the loss of the empire and the restoration of the Ingas (Incas) by Englishmen. He tells her majesty that the Inca would probably pay

yearly to England the sum of three hundred thousand pounds sterling, if she would place in his towns garrisons of three or four thousand English, under pretense of defending him against all enemies. "It seemeth to me," he adds, "that this empire of Guiana is reserved for the English nation." From 1595 to 1617, Raleigh made four successive voyages to the lower Orinoco. These attempts, which, however they were represented in England, were well understood in South America to have been fruitless, damped the ardor of adventurers who had formed projects for entering and conquering El Dorado. From this time there appeared none of those great combinations and important expeditions which at first owed their origin to warm chimerical ideas; but, at the same time, the golden hopes which had been awakened did not entirely disappear, and solitary enterprises were occasionally undertaken, under the sanction of various provincial governors.

In 1637 and 1638, Acana and Fritz, two monks, severally undertook journeys to the lands of the Manoaas, which were thought to be rife with gold, and by the magnificent accounts which they put in circulation, contrived to inflame anew the imaginations of adventurers. Very recently it was believed that the plains of Macas, to the east of the Cordilleras, contained the ruins of Logrono, a town situated in a gold region of prodigious value. In 1740, an idea was current that by going up the river Essequibo, Dorado might be reached from Dutch Guiana. The imagination of Don Manuel Centurion, governor of San Thome del Angostura, having been warmed by the current fables of the splendid lake of Manoa, the very existence of which was apocryphal, he determined to set on foot some serious investigations. He used all his powers to awaken in the minds of the colonists an ardor equal to his own. An Ipurucoto Indian, by name Arimuicaipi, descended the Rio Carony, and, for reasons of his own, by the most barefaced impositions, induced the Spaniards to believe that the tales of El Dorado hardly did justice to the splendor of the country of the Great Moxo. He declared that the whitish light in the clouds of Magellan, in the southern sky, was the reflection of the silvery rocks around which the waves of Lake Pa-

rima swept. "This was describing in a very poetical manner," says Humboldt, "the splendor of the micaceous and talcky slates of his country."

A well-meaning Indian chief, popularly termed Captain Jurado, endeavored to check the progress of the delusion, and tried to undeceive Centurion. The adventurers embarked upon the Caura and Rio Paragua, but not only were disappointed in their expectations, but encountered the most dreadful sufferings, which occasioned the death of several hundred persons. Notwithstanding the disadvantageous effects of these expeditions, they brought to light many important geographical facts. Between 1775 and 1780, Nicholas Rodriguez and Antonio Santos, two men noted for their enterprise, were employed by the Spanish governors, and reached the Uraricuera and Rio Branco, after encountering many perils; but, of course, did not attain their objects.

The frequent occurrence of mica in Guiana contributed to confirm the opinions of those who believed it to be a region rich with gold, and thus, as in many other cases, want of scientific knowledge led to the most absurd ideas, and the most deplorable results. The peak of Mount Calitami at sunset gleams as if it were incrustated with precious metal, or ornamented with a coronet of diamonds. The islets of mica-slate in the Lake Amucu are fabled by the natives to increase the silver beams of the clouds in the southern sky by their powerful reflection. Raleigh says that every mountain and every stone in the forests of Orinoco had all the sparkling brilliancy of the precious metals. Those travelers who gave the most glowing descriptions of the riches of Guiana and El Dorado, were those who, on other subjects, made no scruple of violating truth for the sake of enhancing the effects of their narrations. Diego de Ordaz, the famous *conquistador* of Mexico, in 1531, undertook a voyage of discovery along the banks of the Orinoco. This gentleman boastingly declared that he had taken sulphur out of the peak of Popocatepetl, and was allowed by the emperor, Charles V., to carry a flaming volcano in his coat of arms. He obtained a commission to rule over all the country which he could subdue by his arms between Brazil and the coast of Venezuela,

and began his voyage by the mouth of the river Maranon. Here the natives displayed to his admiring eyes "emeralds as big as a man's fist." These were doubtless no other than pieces of compact feldspar, a mineral found in great profusion at the mouth of the river Topayas. The Indians informed Ordaz that in traveling to the westward he would find a mountain of emerald, but a shipwreck destroyed the hopes of the party.

The Spanish adventurers firmly believed in the existence of mountains composed, principally if not wholly, of gold, silver, emeralds, &c. Sometimes, natural appearances, easily explained, gave rise to these illusions, but frequently there was no foundation whatever for the belief. Acunha says that north of the junction of the Curuputuba and Amazon, the immense mountain of Paraguaxo, when the rays of the sun fell upon it, displayed the most beautiful colors, emitting from time to time tremendous bellowings. The Indians, who were accustomed to fasten upon their skins gold spangles and powder, informed the Spaniards that they obtained it by tearing up the grass and earth in a certain plain, and washing it. But it is possible that what was imagined to be gold, was no other than mica, which the natives of Rio Caura are said still to use by way of ornamenting their bodies, and heightening the effect of their painting.

In tracing the progress of the famous delusion of El Dorado, we can not fail to be surprised at the credulity of some adventurers, and the audacity of others. The expedition of Sir Walter Raleigh was without doubt the most important undertaken, and the influence which it exerted was beneficial in deterring men from making those combined efforts which could not have failed in terminating ruinously. We can not doubt that Raleigh was himself grossly deceived, nor that he endeavored to practice upon others the imposition from which he had himself suffered. It is poor excuse to say that he misrepresented things for a good end. The following is briefly his own description of Guiana. "The empire of Guiana is directly east from Peru toward the sea, and lieth under the equinoctial line, and it hath more abundance of gold than any part of Peru, and as many or more great cities than ever Peru had when it flourished most. It is governed by the

same laws, and the emperor and people observe the same religion, and the same form and policies in government, as was used in Peru, not differing in any part; and as I have been assured by such of the Spaniards as have seen Manoa, the imperial city of Guiana, which the Spaniards call El Dorado, that for the greatness, the riches, and for the excellent seat, it far exceedeth any of the world, at least of so much of the world as is known to the Spanish nation. It is founded upon a lake of salt water of two hundred leagues long, like unto *Mare Caspium* (the Caspian Sea); and if we compare it to that of Peru, and but read the report of Francisco Lopez, and others, it will seem more than credible." Raleigh repeats the wonderful stories told of Manoa by Martinez, a Spaniard who informed him that he had spent seven months in the empire, and who first gave it the name of El Dorado. Martinez gave by no means a flattering character to the inhabitants of Guiana, who, he said, were a set of inveterate drunkards. According to him, at times of solemn festival, the higher officers of the empire caroused with the king. All who pledged him were stripped, and having their bodies anointed with a costly balsam, the servants of the emperor blew gold dust upon them, making use for this purpose of certain hollow canes or reeds. Then glittering from head to foot, they sat down by twenties and hundreds, and drank sometimes for six or seven days. Martinez says that he named the empire El Dorado on account of the quantity of gold which he found in the temples, and throughout the city; plates, armor, and shields being formed of the precious metal.

Raleigh speaks of a race whose heads did not appear above their shoulders, and adds, "Though it may be thought a mere fable, yet for mine own part I am resolved it is true." "They are called Ewaipanoma. They are reported to have eyes in their shoulders, and their mouths in the middle of their breasts, and that a long train of hair groweth backward between their shoulders." These people, however, were not pretended to be the inhabitants of the empire of the gilded king.

Though we can not fail to regret the waste of labor and life which the fable of El Dorado caused, yet it must be confessed that it led to many scientific discoveries. But while

many facts were brought forward, they were so mixed up with fables, defying almost all attempts to separate the evil from the good, that we can not be much surprised at the erroneous ideas which prevailed up to a very late period. The penetration and knowledge of the nineteenth century have dissipated the golden clouds which overhung the haunted region of Guiana, and the great Moxo, by common consent, is for ever banished to the dreamed realms of fiction.

ELEUSIS was anciently, next to Athens, the principal city of Attica. It was here that the festivals of Ceres, the goddess of nature, termed the Eleusinian Mysteries, were secretly celebrated once a year, in her temple, which was surrounded by high walls. The manner of their celebration is unknown. They were esteemed the holiest and most venerable of the religious ceremonies of Greece, and were abolished by Theodosius the Great, A.D., 389.

ELGIN, THOMAS BRUCE, Earl of Elgin and Kincardine, was British ambassador to Turkey. He is celebrated by the collection of marbles bearing his name, consisting chiefly of the frieze and pediment of the Parthenon. They were purchased of him by the government for £36,000, and placed in the British Museum, 1816. He died in 1840.

ELIO, FRANCISCO XAVIER, a Spaniard who opposed Napoleon in Spain, and the revolutionists in South America. On the restoration of Ferdinand VII., of Spain, he declared himself in favor of absolute monarchy, and committed many atrocities in putting down liberal principles. The revival of the constitution of Cadiz put an end to his career. He was tried for exciting a movement in favor of absolute monarchy, and put to death, Sept. 3d, 1822.

ELIOT, JOUN, a native of England, was born in 1604, and was educated at Cambridge. He came to America in 1631, and acted as minister of the church in Roxbury, Massachusetts. He mastered the Indian language, and published an Indian Bible and grammar, and was indefatigable in preaching the gospel to the savages. The great apostle and friend of the Indians died May 20th, 1690. His works were voluminous.

ELIOT, GEORGE AUGUSTUS, Lord Heathfield, was born at Stubbs, in Scotland, in

1718, and educated at Leyden, after which he entered into the Prussian service. Having returned to Scotland, he joined, in 1733, the corps of engineers, and afterward became adjutant to a corps of horse-grenadiers, in which capacity he distinguished himself at Dettingen, where he was wounded. In this regiment he rose to the rank of lieutenant-colonel; and, in 1757, was appointed to the command of a regiment of light-horse, which he had himself raised. On his return from Germany, he was sent to Havana, and, at the peace, the king conferred on his regiment the title of "royal." In 1775, he was appointed commander-in-chief in Ireland, and was soon after made governor of Gibraltar, which fortress he bravely defended against the great siege of the combined forces of France and Spain. He died at Aix-la-Chapelle, July 6th, 1790. He never indulged in the pleasures of the table, his food consisting of vegetables and water. Ever vigilant and active, he never slept more than four hours at a time.

ELIZABETH, Queen. [See TUDOR.]

ELIZABETH PETROWNA, Empress of Russia. [See ROMANOFF.]

ELLENBOROUGH, EDWARD LAW, Baron, was born in 1748, at Great Salkeld, in Cumberland. His father was Bishop of Carlisle. He was educated at Cambridge, and early admitted to the bar. He was counsel for Warren Hastings in 1785, assisted by Plomer and Dallas, and his client was acquitted. His fortune was now fixed. In 1801 he was made attorney general, and the following year succeeded Lord Kenyon, as lord-chief-justice of the king's bench, and was created baron. He died Dec. 13th, 1818. His son has been a prominent statesman, was governor-general of India from 1842 to 1844, and raised to the rank and title of Earl of Ellenborough.

ELLERY, WILLIAM, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Newport, R. I., Dec. 22d, 1727, and educated at Harvard College. He became a successful lawyer in Newport, won the esteem of his fellow-citizens, and was elected to congress in 1776. He served in that body until 1785, when he was appointed commissioner of loans and chief-justice of the superior court of Rhode Island. He was appointed

by Washington the first collector of customs for Newport, held the office thirty years, and died February 15th, 1820, aged ninety-two.

ELLIOT, STEPHEN, an American botanist, and man of letters, was born at Beaufort, S. C., in 1771, and educated at Yale College. He early devoted his attention to natural history. As a member of the state legislature, he was distinguished for patriotism, learning, and ability. He was president of the state bank, member of several literary and scientific societies, and editor of the *Southern Review*, and he received the degree of LL.D. from Yale College. He died in the early part of 1830.

ELLIOTT, EBENEZER, the 'Corn Law Rhym-er,' was born of humble parentage near Sheffield, England, March 25th, 1781. His youth was passed in toil, but in manhood he acquired a competency in the iron trade. The laws taxing breadstuffs he indignantly assailed, and his "Corn Law Rhymes" did good service in raising the tempest which swept them away. He was more, however, than a political song-writer, and the milder outpourings of his muse occupy a high place in the popular poetry of England. He died December 1st, 1849.

ELLSWORTH, OLIVER, was born at Windsor, Connecticut, April 29th, 1745. He was the son of a farmer, and devoted his early years alternately to literature and agriculture. He was educated at Yale and Princeton, the former of which Colleges he entered at the age of seventeen, and was admitted to the bar, after the usual preparatory study, in 1771, in the county of Hartford, Connecticut, and was appointed state attorney. An ardent friend of freedom, he served in the revolutionary army, was a member of the general assembly of Connecticut, and a delegate to the congress of the United States. He was made member of the council and judge of the superior court of his native state, assisted in framing the federal convention, was chosen senator in the first congress, and held his seat throughout Washington's administration. He was appointed chief-justice of the United States on the resignation of Mr. Jay, and was one of the envoys sent to France in 1799, to procure the adjustment of the differences which threatened a very serious ter-

mination. Having returned to his native state, he died Nov. 26th, 1807.

ELLWOOD, THOMAS, an eminent member of the society of Friends; he joined the society at twenty-one, and became as a preacher and writer, one of their most efficient members, to his death, 1713, in his seventy-fourth year. He was the pupil and friend of Milton, and one of those who read to the poet when blind.

EMANUEL, the Great, King of Portugal, ascended the throne in 1495. During his reign the discoveries and exploits of Portuguese navigators and commanders opened the wealth of America and the East Indies to Portugal. Everything seemed to flourish, and the period merited the title which was given it, the golden age of Portugal. Emanuel died Dec. 13th, 1521. He acquired one renown by his expulsion of the Moors, and another by his patronage of men of letters.

EMMET, ROBERT, the son of a physician at Cork, was born in 1782. Ireland was in a fevered state, and young Emmet became a leading spirit among those who dreamed of Erin's freedom and independence. The rising he planned was abortive. He was convicted of treason, and executed September 20th, 1803.

EMMET, THOMAS ADDIS, brother of Robert, born in Cork, Ireland, 1765. He was designed for the medical profession, but the death of his elder brother, a member of the bar, induced him to turn his attention to the study of the law. He pursued it with success and commenced practice in Dublin. In 1795, Emmet joined the association of United Irishmen, and was arrested March 12th, 1798. He was imprisoned for a long time in Fort George, in the county of Nairn, Scotland, but with his wife, who had shared his confinement, having been finally liberated, he came to New York in November, 1804. Emmet here successfully practiced law, and in 1812 was appointed attorney-general of the state of New York. He died in the sixty-third year of his age, Nov. 14th, 1827, during the trial of an important case. In private life he was beloved, and in public esteemed and respected.

ENGHIEN, BATTLE OF. Fought by the British under William III., and the French under Marshal Luxembourg, who were victorious, Aug. 3d, 1692. William had put him-

self at the head of the confederated army in the Netherlands, and leagued himself with the Protestant powers upon the continent against the ambition of Louis XIV.; and in the end he triumphed. Enghien is a small town in the Flemish province of Hainault. A victory gained here by the great Condé, first gave the ducal title to a prince of the house of Bourbon-Condé.

ENGHIEN, LOUIS ANTOINE HENRI DE BOURBON, Duke of, born at Chantilly, Aug. 2d, 1772, was the son of Louis Henry Joseph Condé, Duke of Bourbon, a descendant of the great Condé. He served in various campaigns, and particularly distinguished himself under his grandfather. In 1804 he went to Ettenheim, incog, and married the Princess Charlotte de Rohan Rochefort. At this time the life of Bonaparte was threatened, and the English, in particular, hinted at his probable assassination. The Duc d'Enghien, having fallen under suspicion, was arrested at Ettenheim, in the neutral territory of Baden, brought to Vincennes at midnight, tried with much informality by a military court, condemned to death, and shot by torchlight the next morning, March 20th, 1804; the whole affair having been conducted, to say the least, with ungenerous haste. No other action of Napoleon's has excited so much discussion as this. Some writers have laid the whole blame of the transaction upon the emperor, and others endeavor to free him altogether from the charge. An actual conspiracy, supported by English money, had been discovered at Paris, that of Georges. The same spirit which had sent Georges from London to France, was to be found in the cabinet of all the British embassies in Germany. Peculiar circumstances induced M. Réal, then chief of the police, to send a trusty agent to find out whether the Duc d'Enghien was always at Ettenheim, and what were his relations and his habits. An officer of the gendarmery was intrusted with this mission, and this was the foundation of all the evil. On his way to Strasburg, this officer heard it mentioned as a notorious fact, that the Duc d'Enghien was in the habit of attending the theatre in that city. The spy sent to Ettenheim reached it with prejudices which the least indications would increase. He learned that there were emigrants in the

neighborhood of the Duc d'Enghien, that he invariably gave them the warmest reception when they visited him, and that the duke was frequently absent for days at a time. It appeared afterward that from time to time, a passion for hunting kept the duke for several successive days in the mountains of the Black Forest. This was not all. The imperfect pronunciation of the Germans led the officer to suppose that an obscure person in the suite of the duke, a M. de Thumery, was no other than General Dumouriez. The union of these particulars alarmed the officer, who, with more zeal than truth, created fearful phantoms out of innocent appearances. The judgment of the first consul was obscured by the rapidity with which his imagination moved, causing him to take for incontestable facts, stories which had but vague conjecture for their foundation. Thus he soon arrived at his conclusions. "In sixty hours one can come from Strasburg to Paris. It requires but five days to go and return. The unknown personage [afterward proved to be Pichegru], who was received with so much respect by Georges, is the Duc d'Enghien. The duke is the prime mover of the conspiracy, the soul of it, at least one of the first accomplices." These were the ideas which presented themselves to the first consul, and it must be confessed that the supposed presence of Dumouriez at Ettenheim was a circumstance of weight. The fact, if it had been true, and Bonaparte believed it to be so, would have added to the suspicions of which the Duc d'Enghien was the subject.

But here it may be objected that these suspicions were without foundation, and that the first consul ought to have known it, because the *charge de affaires* at Carlsruhe wrote that the duke was leading the most quiet and retired life at Ettenheim. It will be conceded that his objection has little force; for might not the Duc d'Enghien be concerned in the conspiracies against Bonaparte, have an understanding with the emigrants in his neighborhood, entertain Dumouriez in his train, either under his own or another name, and yet find no occasion to change the external and regular order of his life?

There was another cause which acted upon the determination of the first consul. The conspiracy against the first consul was ma-

tured in England, but its branches spread in every direction. In England, conspirators were pensioned; in Austria, battalions were raised. On one side, were plots; on the other, conspiracies: danger was everywhere, and perils were daily augmenting. How could the first consul imagine that the Duc d'Enghien, a prince of the house of France, an officer of the English army, was ignorant of the preparations which were on foot? In the eyes of Bonaparte the cabinets of London and Vienna acted in concert. How could he persuade himself that a Bourbon, placed at Ettenheim, should refuse to participate in the association? Sir Walter Scott himself believed that the duke was established at Ettenheim for the purpose of putting himself at the head of the royalists in that quarter, or of presenting himself, if affairs required it, to those of Paris. The discussion between Austria and France had come almost to menaces. On the 9th of March Bonaparte addressed to the Emperor of Germany a summons to explain himself. On the 10th was given the fatal order relative to the Duc d'Enghien. Who can say that these two ideas were strangers to each other? That the greatness of the perils which surrounded Bonaparte did not contribute to the violence of the means which he employed to oppose them, and make his enemies tremble? Who would venture to assert that Austria, always so intimately connected with England, had no knowledge, not assuredly of the plots of assassination, but of the various hostile plans employed against the first consul, and did not hold herself in readiness to yield to the current of events? In the midst of these circumstances, the reports of the agent sent to Ettenheim were submitted to the first consul. Instantly a fearful resolution was taken, and the order given for the seizure of the duke.

How was this resolution taken? Was it the result of a sudden movement on the part of Bonaparte, or was it determined by the deliberations of a council? The orders for the minister of war were dictated at ten in the evening, by the first consul, on issuing from a cabinet conference at which were present the two consuls, Talleyrand, the chief-justice, and Fouché, who was then only a senator. Had they been assembled by special convocation, or by chance! This is of little conse-

quence. But what passed at this conference? It is here the interpretations of jealousy and hate begin. Is it true, as some memoirs have asserted, that the minister of foreign affairs, after a report upon the general state of Europe, concluded by counseling the violation of a neutral territory? Is it true, as some have asserted, that Fouché, in order to create embarrassment, and make himself necessary in that post which he had formerly occupied, warmly advocated a measure which he would soon be the first to denounce? Is it true that the opposition of Cambaceres to the seizure of the duke upon a neutral territory, drew down upon him the famous apostrophe of Bonaparte, "You have become very avaricious of the blood of the Bourbons?"

Bonaparte might have said: "The Bourbons have sworn to destroy me, they have devoted my heart to the steel of their satellites, they have willed my assassination. Well: let them tremble in turn! I can also assassinate. I have only to stretch forth my hand to seize one of them. I *will* seize him, I *will* destroy him, and they shall feel that they can no longer attempt my life with impunity." Perhaps, "in the very whirlwind of his passion," an infernal spirit, in order to strengthen him, may have whispered cool reflections: "The divorce between France and the eldest branch of the Bourbons seems definitive. The state of inaction to which the princes of this branch have been condemned has destroyed all sympathy between them and heroic France. The name of Condé, on the contrary, recalls more vividly the glory of arms. It recalls even the last wars. The grandfather and the grandson have fought among the brave against the brave. There is here a possibility of reconciliation, a germ of sympathy. It is this branch which I must destroy, even to the last shoot. It will be a crime, a great crime, but a state crime, a political crime. It will spread consternation in France even among my most devoted friends; it will stupify all Europe; but only for a moment; for to-morrow, other occurrences will concentrate the attention of all Europe; to-morrow it will be apprised of the new crimes of England, and the death of the Duc d'Enghien will be lost in the various events which fortune seems to prepare expressly for the purposes of concealment and oblivion."

On the 15th of March the Duc d'Enghien was seized at Ettenheim and brought to Strasburg. From Strasburg he was, on the 18th, transferred to Paris, where he arrived the 20th, and thence was sent to the castle of Vincennes. The governor of Paris appointed a council of war, which assembled in the night. The prince was condemned to death, and the sentence was immediately executed. In a proceeding dictated by policy, legal formalities are rarely observed. They were not in the present case. The prisoner of St. Helena continually justified himself by saying that the prince was tried "by a competent tribunal." The competence of the tribunal is a very doubtful matter; but could it be settled according to the wishes of Napoleon, there would still remain in this affair the infraction of the laws which protect the accused. The duke had no defender. Napoleon, it is true, has said, "If guilty, the commission did right in condemning him to death. If innocent, it should have acquitted him, for no order can justify the conscience of a judge." What a lesson for magistrates, for commissions or counsels of war, which should be tempted to make the scales of justice move in accordance with the interests or the passions of governments.

ENGLAND is thus described by her greatest poet:

"This other Eden; demi-paradise;
This fortress built by Nature for herself,
Against infection and the hand of war;
This happy breed of men, this little world;
This precious stone set in the silver sea,
Which serves it in the office of a wall,
Or as a moat defensive to a house,
Against the envy of less happier lands;
This blessed plot, this earth, this realm, this England;
This land of such dear souls, this dear dear land,
Dear for her reputation throughout the world."

England, which with Wales is no larger than the state of Georgia, stretches by an illusion to the dimensions of an empire. The innumerable details, the crowded succession of towns, cities, cathedrals, castles, and great and decorated estates, the number and power of the trades and guilds, the military strength and splendor, the multitudes of rich and of remarkable people, the servants and equipages,—all these, catching the eye, and never allowing it to pause, hide all boundaries by

the impression of magnificence and endless wealth. To see England well needs a hundred years: it is stuffed full with towns, towers, churches, villas, palaces, hospitals, and charity houses. In the history of art, it is a long way from a cromlech to York Minster; yet all the intermediate steps may still be traced in this all-preserving island. The climate is warmer by many degrees than that to which it is entitled by latitude. Neither hot nor cold, Charles II. said "it invited men abroad more days in the year and more hours in the day than another country." The frequent rain keeps the many rivers full, and brings agricultural productions up to the highest point. England has plenty of water, of stone, of potter's clay, of coal, of salt, and of iron. The land naturally abounds with game; immense heaths and downs are paved with quails, grouse, and woodcock, and the shores are animated by water-fowl. The rivers and the surrounding sea spawn with fish. There is the drawback of the darkness of the sky: the London fog sometimes justifies the epigram on the climate, "In a fine day, looking up a chimney; in a foul day, looking down one." England is anchored at the side of Europe, and right in the heart of the modern world. The sea, which according to Virgil divided the poor Britons utterly from the world, proves to be the ring of marriage with all nations. As America, Europe, and Asia lie, these Britons have precisely the best commercial position in the world.—*Emerson.*

Britain is a miniature of Europe. She has her mountains, Snowdon in Wales, Helvellyn and Skiddaw in Cumberland, the Highlands in Scotland. She has her lakes, the smiling meres of England, the crystal lochs that mirror Ben Nevis and Ben Lomond and their brethren. She has the picturesque dales and caves of Derbyshire, the fair plains of Warwickshire, and Surrey, and Bucks, and indeed throughout the realm. In Westmoreland and Cumberland, she has a pocket Switzerland. Her mines in Cornwall, and Staffordshire, and Northumberland, and so on, furnish all the great ores, iron, coal, lead, tin, copper. Her quarries are not exhausted by far. Her soil yields bounteous harvests. Her manufactures bring all nations in her debt. Her commerce exceeds that of any other people,

and she is the grand mart for the globe. The keels of her merchantmen furrow all the seas, and the smoke of her steamers darkens almost every maritime sky; steamers and merchantmen plying between her and her colonial possessions that invest the world.

England, Scotland, and Wales form the United Kingdom of Great Britain. The surface of the whole island is about 89,644 square miles: of which England contains 50,922, Scotland 31,324, and Wales 7,398. The population in 1861 was 23,570,245: of which England and Wales had 20,061,725, and Scotland 3,061,329, [See SCOTLAND, WALES.] England is divided into forty-one counties: Northumberland, Cumberland, Durham, Yorkshire, Westmoreland, Lancashire, Cheshire, Shropshire or Salop, Herefordshire, Monmouthshire, Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire, Staffordshire, Leicestershire, Rutlandshire, Northamptonshire, Warwickshire, Worcestershire, Gloucestershire, Oxfordshire, Buckinghamshire, Bedfordshire, Lincolnshire, Huntingdonshire, Cambridgeshire, Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex, Hertfordshire, Middlesex, Surry, Kent, Sussex, Berkshire, Wiltshire, Hampshire or Hants, Dorsetshire, Somersetshire, Devonshire, and Cornwall. There are several islands which pertain to England, those of Man, Jersey, Guernsey, and the smaller ones adjacent.

London has separate mention in pages beyond. The second city in England is Manchester in Lancashire; population in 1861, 338,346. It is surrounded by some of the best coal strata in England, a circumstance to which it owes in no small degree its prosperity. It has also reaped ample reward from the system of canals, which here had their origin with Brindley and his patron, the Duke of Bridgewater. [See BRINDLEY, CANALS.] In the time of Henry VIII. and Edward VI., the town was busy with manufactures. The enormities of Alva in the Netherlands, and afterward the revocation of the edict of Nantes, brought many enterprising and skillful foreigners hither. At first the woolen was the only branch of trade, but since the middle of the last century, the cotton has nearly superseded it. The series of brilliant inventions and discoveries applied, improved, or originated in or about Manchester, comprising the steam-engine, the spinning-jenny, the mule,

&c., have greatly helped the development of industrial power. At Manchester was one of the principal altars of the Druids, and as its name betokens, it was a station of the Romans. Liverpool, on the river Mersey in Lancashire, next to London, is the greatest port of Great Britain; population in 1861, 443,874. It was but a small fishing village, until in 1172, its favorable situation and its convenient harbor caused Henry II. to make it the place of rendezvous and embarkation of his troops for the conquest of Ireland. In 1700 it had only 5,000 inhabitants. Soon it began to send hardwares, cutlery, and woollens to the coast of Africa; there these were bartered for negroes, which were borne to the West Indies and exchanged for sugar and rum, laden with which the ships came back; and thus Liverpool grew to its wealth and the grandeur of commerce. It is the great emporium of American trade. The first great railway in England was that connecting Liverpool with Manchester. At its opening, July 30th, 1829, Mr. Huskisson was knocked down by one of the engines, which went over his thigh and mortally injured him. Bristol (between the shires of Gloucester and Somerset, and a county in itself) had a population of 154,093 in 1861. Sebastian Cabot was a native of the town, and its merchants entered with spirit into American explorations and colonizing. From the twelfth to the eighteenth century, Bristol ranked next to London, as the most populous, commercial, and flourishing town in the kingdom; but of late it has declined, and been exceeded in these respects by Liverpool, Manchester, Leeds, Birmingham, and Glasgow. Bath, the chief town of Somersetshire, lies about one hundred and seven miles west of London, and is situated on the river Avon, in a narrow valley. Its hilly environs are pleasant, and open on the north-west into beautiful and wide meadowlands. The population, in 1851, was 54,240. Its hot springs were highly esteemed by the Romans, who built extensive baths here. It was the most fashionable watering-place of England in the last century. Bathing, however, is far from being a practice of the inhabitants. One of the greatest manufacturing towns in the kingdom is Birmingham in Warwickshire; population in 1861, 295,955. It was early the seat of mechanical industry,

and when the Stuarts and their adherents came back with a fondness for metal ornaments, acquired during their long residence in France, Birmingham took the lead in making the glittering trinkets which the exotic taste demanded. Burke called it the toy-shop of Europe, but its chief wares are now of a more useful order. Plated ware, hardware, fire-arms, buttons, japanned ware, glass, steel pens, nails, pins, &c., are largely made. Leeds, in the West Riding of Yorkshire (population in 1861, 207,153), is the centre and mart of a great woolen and linen district, in which it is rivaled by the neighboring town of Bradford, population, 106,218. Sheffield, also in the West Riding (population in 1861, 185,157), is known the world over for its cutlery. Here also the process of silver-plating, and the composition called Britannia metal, were invented, and they are still a great branch of industry. Hull, or Kingston-upon-Hull, in the East Riding of Yorkshire, is a seaport of 99,000 inhabitants, once largely interested in whaling, and now engaged in extensive commerce with the Baltic. Newcastle-upon-Tyne, the chief town of Northumberland, is the seat of extensive chemical, glass, iron, and lead manufactures, but its chief business is the shipment of coals, the produce of the surrounding collieries. Southampton, in Hampshire (population 36,000), is now the largest packet port in the kingdom. It was founded by the Anglo-Saxons. It was anciently a place of great trade, largely exporting wool and tin, but it declined very much when the export of wool was prohibited. During the last century its prosperity began to revive, and it is still in the ascendant.

The government of England is a limited or constitutional monarchy, the sovereign power residing in three estates, king, lords, and commons. These three estates constitute the parliament, and their concurrence is necessary for enacting, annulling, or altering any law. The house of lords consists of the temporal peers of England, the elective peers of Scotland and Ireland, the bishops of England, and four Irish prelates who sit by rotation of sessions. This house is the supreme court of appeal for Great Britain and Ireland. The house of commons now consists of 656 members: 469 from England, 29 from Wales, 53 from Scotland, and 105 from Ireland. The

administration is intrusted by the sovereign to certain great officers of state, usually from twelve to fourteen, who form the cabinet. The first lord of the treasury is generally considered the prime minister. The superior courts for the administration of justice are the high court of chancery, the court of exchequer, the court of queen's (or king's) bench (the highest common-law and criminal court in the kingdom), and the court of common pleas. Assizes are held by the judges in every county of England and Wales, for which purpose the country is divided into eight circuits. The judges of these superior courts are appointed by the crown for life, and are removable only upon an address from parliament to the crown. England and Wales are divided ecclesiastically into the archiepiscopal provinces of Canterbury and York, containing twenty-five bishoprics or dioceses. Episcopacy is the established religion, but there are large numbers of dissenting and independent sects.

The Romans called the island Britannia, because the inhabitants adorned their bodies with *brit*, 'paint.' It was little known until the invasion of Julius Cæsar, who conducted his army into this country, on the pretext of punishing the Britons for the aid which they had given to the Gauls, in 55 B.C. The inhabitants were then ferocious and warlike, clad in skins, and armed with clubs, and even the iron-breasted Roman legions quailed at first before the horrid front which the infuriated natives presented to their invaders. The Romans kept possession of Britain about five hundred years, during which many improvements were introduced, and the manners of the people became assimilated to those of their conquerors. This, however, was not effected without much bloodshed. The Romans having, in the fifth century, quitted Britain, to defend their other territories, invaded by the Goths and Vandals, the Britons were attacked by the Picts and Scots, and sought the assistance of the Saxons and Angles. These defeated the Scots, but finally made themselves masters also of the kingdom, and gave it the name of Anglia, or England. It is in those times of conflict between the natives and their too powerful allies that the romances place the reign of the renowned King Arthur. The ancient Britons were driven into Wales. England was divided, by the Saxons, into seven

distinct kingdoms, called the Saxon Heptarchy, some of which were established in the fifth, and others in the sixth century. These kingdoms were for the most part subject to one king alone, those which were stronger than the others giving the law to them in their several turns, till in the end they were all united in the monarchy of the West Saxons under Egbert. In the following list of these kingdoms with their kings, a star is affixed to the names of those monarchs who obtained this ascendancy over the heptarchy.

KENT contained only the present county of Kent; its kings were:

- 455. *Hengist.
- 488. Eske.
- 512. Oeta.
- 542. Hermenric.
- 560. *Ethelbert, first Christian king.
- 616. Eadbald.
- 640. Ereombert.
- 664. Egbert.
- 673. Lothaire.
- 685. Edrick, slain in 687. The kingdom was now subject for a time to various leaders.
- 694. Wihtried.
- 725. Eadbert,
- 748. Ethelbert II., } sons of Wihtried, succeeding
- 760. Alric, } each other.
- 794. Edbert, or Ethelbert Pryn; deposed.
- 796. Cuthred.
- 805. Baldred, who in 823 lost his life and kingdom to Egbert, King of Wessex.

SOUTH SAXONY contained the counties of Sussex and Surrey.

- 490. *Ella, a warlike prince.
- 514. Cissa, his son, whose peaceful reign exceeded seventy years. Then the South Saxons fell into an almost total dependence on Wessex, and we scarcely know the names of the princes who were possessed of this titular sovereignty.
- 648. Edilwald, Edilwach, or Adelwach.
- 688. Authun and Berthun, brothers who reigned jointly. Both were vanquished by Ina, King of Wessex, and the kingdom was finally conquered in 725.

WESSEX, or WEST SAXONY, contained the counties of Devon, Dorset, Somerset, Wilts, Hants, Berks, and a part of Cornwall.

- 519. *Cerdic.
- 534. *Kenric, or Cynric.
- 559. *Ceawlin.
- 591. Ceolric.
- 597. Ceolwulf.
- 611. Cynegils, and his son Cwichelm.
- 643. Cenwal, or Cenwald.
- 672. Sexburga, his queen, sister to Penda, King of Mercia; of great qualities; probably deposed.

- 674. Escwine and Centwine.
- 676. Centwine alone.
- 685. Ceadwal, who went in lowly state to Rome, to expiate his deeds of blood, and died there.
- 688. Ina, a brave and wise ruler, who also journeyed to Rome, where he passed his time in obscurity, leaving behind him an excellent code of laws.
- 728. Ethelheard, or Ethelard.
- 770. Cuthred, his brother.
- 754. Sigebyrht, or Sigebrt. He treacherously murdered his friend, Duke Cumbran, governor of Hampshshire, who had given him an asylum once when expelled from his throne. For this infamous deed he was forsaken by the world, and wandered about in the wilds and forests, where he was at length discovered by one of Cumbran's servants, who slew him.
- 755. Cynewulf, murdered by Sigebyrht's brother.
- 784. Bertric, or Beorhtic; poisoned by drinking a cup his queen had prepared for another.
- 800. *Egbert, afterward sole monarch of England.

EAST SAXONY contained the counties of Essex and Middlesex and the southern part of Herts.

- 527. Erchenwin.
- 587. Sleda.
- 598. Sebert, first Christian king.
- 614. { Sexred
- { Seward
- { Sigebrt
- 623. Sigebrt the Little.
- 655. Sigebrt the Good.
- 661. Swithelm.
- 663. Sighere and Sebbi.
- 694. Sigherd and Suenfrid.
- 700. Offa; left his queen and kingdom, and became a monk at Rome.
- 709. Suebricht, or Selred.
- 746. Suithred.
- 792. Sigeric; died in a pilgrimage to Rome.
- 799. Sigere; Egbert seized the kingdom in 823.

NORTHUMBERIA consisted of the sometimes separate but commonly united states of Bernicia and Deira; the former including the county of Northumberland, and the south-eastern counties of Scotland as far as the Forth; the latter contained Yorkshire, Durham, Lancashire, Westmoreland, and Cumberland. Its kings were—

- 547. Ella, or Ida.
- 560. Adda.
- 567. Clappea,
- 572. Theodwald.
- 573. Fridulph.
- 580. Theodric.
- 588. Athelric.
- 593. Athelfrid.
- 617. *Edwin, the greatest prince of the heptarchy in that age.

- 633. Osric.
- 634. * Oswald.
- 644. * Oswy.
- 653. Ethelward.
- 670. Egfrid.
- 685. Alkfrid.
- 705. Osred I.
- 716. Cenred.
- 718. Osrick.
- 729. Ceolwulf.
- 738. Egbert.
- 757. Oswulph.
- 759. Edilwald.
- 765. Alured.
- 774. Ethelred.
- 778. Alswald I.
- 789. Osred II.
- 790. Ethelred restored.
- 796. Osbald.
- 797. Ardulph.
- 807. Alfwald II.
- 810. Andred. The Northumbrians submitted to Egbert of Wessex in 829.

EAST ANGLIA contained the counties of Suffolk, Norfolk, Cambridge, and part of Bedfordshire: its kings were—

- 575. Uffa.
- 582. Titillus.
- 599. * Redwald, the greatest prince of the East Angles.
- 624. Erpenwald.
- 636. Sigebert.
- 632. Egric.
- 635. Annas.
- 654. Ethelhere.
- 655. Ethelwald.
- 664. Aldwulf.
- 713. Selred, or Ethelred.
- 746. Alpwulf.
- 749. Beorn and Ethelbert.
- 758. Beorn, alone.
- 761. Ethelred.
- 790. Ethelbert, treacherously slain in Mercia 792, when Offa of Mercia overran the country, which was finally subdued by Egbert.

MERCIA contained the counties of Huntingdon, Rutland, Lincoln, Northampton, Leicester, Derby, Nottingham, Oxford, Chester, Salop, Gloucester, Worcester, Stafford, Warwick, Buckingham, Hereford, and parts of Bedford and Herts.

- 586. Crida.
- 597. Wibba.
- 615. Cheorlas.
- 626. Penda.
- 655. Peada.
- 656. * Wulfhere.
- 675. * Ethelred.
- 704. * Kenred.
- 709. * Ceolred.
- 716. * Ethelbald.
- 755. Beorned.
- 755. * Offa.

- 794. * Egfrýd.
- 795. * Cenulf.
- 819. Kenelm.
- 819. Ceolwulf.
- 821. Burnwulf.
- 823. Ludecan.
- 825. Wiglafe.
- 838. Berthulf.
- 852. Burhred. This kingdom like the others, finally merged into that of England.

England, from 783, suffered many invasions and ravages from the Danes, who several times made themselves masters of it. They were finally expelled (1041), and the Saxon government restored in the person of Edward the Confessor. During this time flourished Canute, Harold, and Hardicanute. During this time, too, the country was blessed under the rule of the wise Alfred, an account of whose reign will be found in our sketch of him. The following were the monarchs of England to the time of the conquest.

- 827. Egbert, first sole monarch; succeeded by his son.
- 837. Ethelwolf; he first granted tithes to the clergy; succeeded by his son.
- 857. Ethelbald, succeeded by his next brother.
- 860. Ethelbert, succeeded by his next brother.
- 866. Ethelred, succeeded by his brother.
- 872. Alfred, the Great, succeeded by his son.
- 901. Edward, the Elder; in whose reign England was more firmly consolidated into one kingdom.
- 924. Athelstan, eldest son of Edward; he caused the Bible to be translated into the Saxon, and presented a copy to every church throughout the kingdom; he also encouraged commerce by a decree that every merchant who had taken three voyages should be entitled to the rank of a thane.
- 940. Edmund I., fifth son of Edward the Elder; bled to death from a wound received in an affray, and was succeeded by his next brother.
- 947. Edred; Dunstan, the ambitious Abbot of Glastonbury, is virtually king.
- 955. Edwy, eldest son of Edmund. He married the beautiful Elgiva, his kinswoman. Dunstan united the priesthood against the marriage, and Edwy was forced to divorce Elgiva. She was cruelly murdered, and Edwy died of grief.
- 959. Edgar, the Peaceable, his brother.
- 974. Edward, the Martyr; stabbed by order of his step-mother, Elfrida, while drinking a cup of wine at the gate of Corfe Castle.
- 979. Ethelred II., son of Elfrida, dethroned by the Danes.
- 1013. Sweyne, succeeded by his son.
- 1014. Canute the Great; while he was absent in Denmark, Ethelred returned.
- 1015. Ethelred, restored; succeeded by his son.
- 1016. Edmund Ironside. The English and Danish armies met at Alney, and a single

combat ensued between the rival monarchs, in sight of their troops. Canute, being wounded, proposed a division of the kingdom. To this Edmund acceded, and the southern half fell to his share; but he being killed at Oxford shortly after, Canute was left in peaceable possession of all the land.

- 1016. Canute; married Emma, widow of Ethelred.
- 1036. Harold, surnamed Harefoot, the natural son of Canute and a cruel prince.
- 1039. Hardicanute, son of Canute and Emma; died of gluttony and drunkenness at a marriage feast.
- 1041. Edward, the Confessor, son of Ethelred; he had been bred in Normandy, and named William his successor; although Edgar was the rightful heir.
- 1066. Harold II., son of Earl Godwin; reigned nine months; killed at Hastings.

Thus in 1066, the Normans, under William the Conqueror, obtained possession of the kingdom, having defeated the English under Harold, in the battle of Hastings. By this circumstance, the whole moral and political constitution of England underwent an important change. Severe forest laws were decreed, making it forfeiture of property to disable a wild beast, and loss of eyes for a stag, buck, or boar: one might better slay a man than a deer. Justices of peace were appointed. Norman French was made the legal language of the realm. A survey of all the kingdom except Northumberland and Durham, was made, to determine the right in the tenure of estates, and furnish a basis for levying taxes. The book in which it was embodied was called the Dome's-day Book. The Norman principle of lordship and vassalage was introduced and enforced, and it was not until after some generations, that the barons themselves, feeling the chain of passive submission too galling, gave the first impulse to that spirit which burst the fetters of feudalism. To the time of John, the history of England is little else than an account of the acts of the kings, done with a direct view to acquire and sustain this unnatural authority. The first William did almost nothing else. His son William Rufus perished while hunting in the New Forests, a vast tract which his father had depopulated for that amusement.

Henry I., the youngest son of the Conqueror, seized the throne. By the military ardor of Robert, Duke of Normandy, the crown at the death of their father had been

given up to the second brother, in consideration of money advanced on his expedition to Palestine. On Robert's attempt to recover it now, he was taken and confined for the remainder of his life, eight and twenty years, in Cardiff Castle. Henry, to strengthen himself, married Matilda, a descendant of the ancient Saxon line, and removed a few of the unpalatable restrictions which his father had imposed. During this reign the Templars established themselves in England; the first English park was laid out at Woodstock; rents were made payable in money, having been previously payable in corn, cattle, &c.; the coinage was corrected, a standard fixed for the regulation of weights and measures, and the length of the English yard taken from the measurement of the king's arm. Woolen stuffs were introduced from the Netherlands, and a colony of Flemish weavers settled at Worstead in Norfolk. It is from this town that worsted fabrics have derived their name. After the death of Henry in 1135, the crown was in dispute between his daughter Maud or Matilda, who had wedded the German emperor, and his nephew Stephen, Earl of Blois. Stephen died in 1154, and Henry II., the son of Maud, came to the throne. He was the first of the Plantagenet line. He waged a war with the Scots, in which William their king was taken prisoner, and only re-obtained his crown by doing homage for it as a vassal. This reign was also distinguished by two great acquisitions of territory; Ireland by arbitrary conquest, and Guienne and Poitou by marriage. It was also marked by a contest between the king and the ecclesiastics. The power of the church of Rome had so increased as to overshadow the crown; Thomas a Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury, evincing its arrogance and determination to dictate in matters temporal as well as spiritual. To check these usurpations the celebrated statutes of Clarendon were enacted by a parliament held at that place, in 1164. Becket fulminated anathemas and excommunications at those who sided with the king, and yielded not a whit in his assumptions, till at last the harassed monarch, one day in Normandy, wished aloud that the insolent prelate was dead. Four rash knights hasted across the channel to Canterbury, and slew the arch-

bishop upon the very steps of the altar. The murdered man was canonized, and the monarch did hard penance at his shrine. It was in this reign that England was first divided into circuits for the administration of justice; the English laws were digested; charters were granted to many towns; and the windows of private dwellings were made of glass.

Richard I., the second son of Henry, succeeded his father in 1189. He can scarcely be called an English king, since during his ten years' reign he spent only eight months in England, being engaged in war upon the continent or in the crusades. The land suffered sadly from lawlessness and misrule. At the battle of Gisors in France, 1198, Richard gave to his soldiers as the watchword of the day, *Dieu et mon droit*. In remembrance of the signal victory that his arms obtained, he made *Dieu et mon droit* the motto of the royal arms of England, and it has ever since been retained. His death without issue admitted his weak and wicked brother John to the throne. King John, after many feeble attempts at continued despotism, was compelled, by the exasperated barons, to sign what was afterward called the *Magna Charta* ('great charter'), which renounced some of the most odious prerogatives of royalty, and extended a moderate share of liberty to the barons of the realm. John, however, involved the nation, with himself, in odious submissions to the pope, the influence of which it cost England and her succeeding kings many struggles to counteract. By the treachery of John, Normandy was lost to the English crown, the pope was constituted the virtual lord of his dominions, and Lewis, prince of France, was actually encouraged to assume the title. In this time, a standing army was first levied, and an annual election for the lord mayor and sheriffs of the city of London instituted.

In 1216, Henry III. became king. He was but a boy, and for many years a regency held sway. When he did assume power he showed the hereditary taint. Many times did he swear to observe *Magna Charta*, and as often did he violate it. This reign was occupied in such disputes with his barons, and extortions from the Jews. Yet civil liberty increased. The commons were first

summoned to a parliament; gold began to be coined; coal began to be used for fuel; and the art of distillation was introduced from the Moors. The first elephant seen in the land was one of enormous size, presented to Henry by the French king in 1238. Henry's son, Edward I., grasped the sceptre with a firmer hand. He added to *Magna Charta* the important clause securing the people from the imposition of any tax without the consent of parliament; and ever since this reign there has been a regular succession of parliaments. Wales was subdued and added to England. The dependency of Scotland was confirmed by the violent imposition of Baliol upon the throne, his subsequent confinement, and the decided overthrow of the Scotch forces that opposed the English. All, however, was recovered in the succeeding reign by the gallantry of Robert Bruce, and the field of Bannockburn. Edward II. was more like his grandfather than like his father. The barons rose in arms, and were abetted by the queen. Edward was murdered in Berkeley Castle. During this reign the Jews exacted two shillings a week for the loan of twenty: nowadays the Gentiles no longer suffer them to have monopoly in such usury. The long reign of Edward III., from 1327 to 1377, outdid the martial renown of his grandsire. By his successes against France at Cressy and Poitiers, and that against Scotland at Durham, he obtained for England much glory at much expense, and two royal captives, but little solid advantage, while the campaign in Spain occasioned the death of the Black Prince in 1376, and the next year that of his father. In this reign, and in one private individual, we find the early dawn of the reformation. Wickliffe, under the protection of John of Gaunt, the king's brother, began those denunciations of the papal abuses, which, in the end, overthrew that corrupt and foreign dominion in England. Two weavers from Brabant settled at York in 1331, where they manufactured woollens, which, said King Edward, "may prove of great benefit to us and our subjects." In this reign the lords and commons for the first time sat in separate chambers in parliament. Law pleadings had heretofore been had in French; they were now authorized in English. The order of the Garter was founded by Edward III.

The opening of the next reign saw the popular outbreak headed by Wat Tyler. The malcontents were met and soothed with much discretion by the young monarch, but his wisdom soon forsook him. It was during the absence of Richard in quelling a disturbance in Ireland, that the people, vexed with continual exaction, and offended at the injustice of the king to his cousin, the Duke of Lancaster, invited the latter from banishment, to control the operations of the king and his advisers. He landed, usurped the crown, murdered the king, quelled the insurrections consequent, and captured the heir to the Scottish throne. Henry IV. founded the order of the Bath. He persecuted the adherents to the doctrines of Wickliffe, and there is the stain upon his reign that in its time England first witnessed the death of a martyr for religious belief. His son, the fifth Henry, continued these persecutions, and there were more burnings at the stake. From the time of Henry V. may be dated the custom of lighting the streets of London at night, since it was his command that every citizen should hang a lantern on his door during the winter nights. His youthful excesses had taught him that crime and mischief lurk under the cover of darkness. From the same period also, may be dated the beginnings of the English navy; and one ship built at Bayonne expressly for the king, was thought quite a marvel of size and strength because it measured a hundred and eighty-six feet in length. Linen for shirts and under clothing was at this time esteemed great luxury, and a flock bed with a chaff bolster was a refinement of comfort known only to the opulent. Henry's great feat was the conquest of France, through the victories of Harfleur and Agincourt. He married Catherine of France, was chosen regent of the kingdom, and adopted as the heir of Charles VI. In the midst of his brilliant career, death snatched him away, 1422.

His infant son was crowned at Paris. The Maid of Orleans aroused the French, and her burning at the stake was soon avenged upon the English by the loss of every possession in France but the fortress of Calais. The reign of the sixth Henry continued as unfortunately as it had commenced. The wars of the roses drenched England with blood, till

after many ups and downs the York faction triumphed; Henry, now an old man, was imprisoned in the Tower; and Edward IV. ascended the throne in 1461. In this reign the right of voting at elections for knights of the shire was limited to freeholders having estates of the annual value of forty shillings. Seats in the commons were not, however, much sought by the middle classes of the fifteenth century. The functions of the commons consisted chiefly in the imposition of taxes, and even the peers evinced little interest or assiduity in the discharge of their parliamentary duties. Both houses enjoyed entire liberty of speech. In 1450, the first lord mayor's show took place in London. The same year saw the insurrection in Kent headed by Jack Cade, who, under the assumed name of Mortimer, asserted a fictitious claim to the throne. The stout Earl of Warwick, who had raised Edward to the throne, was sent to negotiate his marriage with a French princess; in his absence the fickle fellow wedded Lady Elizabeth Grey; Warwick took great offense, rebelled, deposed Edward, released Henry, and set him up again in the business of royalty. But on the field of Barnet, 1471, the great earl was slain; Edward resumed the crown, and soon after poor old Henry was murdered in the Tower. In this same year William Caxton, in the shadow of Westminster Abbey, set up the first printing-press in England. Richard III., who followed his brother Edward IV., and his young nephew Edward V., of the house of York, was himself defeated and succeeded by Henry VII., of the other line, who by marrying the daughter of Edward IV. united the two houses, and thus ended the contentions of York and Lancaster, in the year 1485.

Henry's reign was disturbed by the insurrections in support of Lambert Simnel and Perkin Warbeck, pretenders to the throne. It was the great era of maritime discovery, and the English monarch, not to be behind-hand, magnanimously authorized the Cabots to undertake an expedition at their own expense, with the privilege of raising his banner as his vassals and deputies on whatever soil they might find. They discovered Newfoundland, and a portion of North America, and this was the basis of the English claim to the new continent. Shillings were

first coined in this reign, and the court of the star chamber, afterward so odious, was established. Gardening was introduced in England generally, from the Netherlands. Henry VII. died in 1509. Henry VIII., though perhaps the greatest tyrant that ever filled the English throne, made a new era in the history of the country, in its total emancipation from papal authority. The power of which he had deprived the pope, he seized for himself, however, and was, at least, as vigorous in its exercise. The next reign ratified and enlarged his acts in favor of the protestant religion; and although the bigot Mary for a time rebound the chains, and rekindled the fires of persecution, the reformation was too firmly established to be overthrown, and her successor, Elizabeth, settled it upon a foundation which will endure as long as the conviction of its necessity exists.

The marital experiments of bluff and cruel King Hal we shall mention under our sketch of the house of Tudor. England was steadily advancing. The whole Bible was now rendered into English, and the first authorized edition printed; the book of common prayer for the new Anglican church was arranged by Cranmer; Wales began to be represented in parliament; ship-building was improved, and the navy extended; the first geographical map of England was drawn; cherries, hops, apricots, pippins, and various other fruits and vegetables, were introduced into the land; leaden pipes were substituted for the clumsy wooden conduits in which water had previously been conveyed; cotton thread came into use. Pins were introduced from France by Queen Catharine Howard. Heretofore, ribbons, loopholes, laces with tags, hooks and eyes, and skewers of brass, silver, and gold, had been used alike by men and women. The pins were a costly luxury at first, and the term 'pin-money,' as applied to a husband's allowance to his wife, had its origin thereby. A pound sterling was first called a sovereign in this reign. Provisions were so cheap that beef and mutton were had for a half-penny a pound. Money however, was a twelfth cheaper than in our time. Henry VIII. was the first English monarch to whom the title of King of Ireland was confirmed. Henry VIII., in league with the pope and the Emperor Charles V., made

some conquests in France, and his generals defeated and slew James IV. of Scotland, at Flodden Field; and, in his successor's reign, an expedition into that country was executed at the desire of the late king, on a fruitless expedition to induce the Scots to marry their Princess Mary to Edward VI.

The boy-king Edward did much in his short time to promote the reformation, and the realm had a respite from the noxious smoke of fires of persecution. A law was enacted that permitted clergymen to marry. But a little before his death the young monarch founded Christ Hospital in London, the school to which so many great scholars and authors have been indebted for their education. Grapes were brought over from France and cultivated; crowns, half-crowns, and six-pences were introduced into the currency; the sweating sickness, a dreadful plague which had prevailed from time to time, became totally extinct. The book of common prayer and the church service were established. Trade with Russia was initiated. The ten days' reign of Lady Jane Grey over, Mary, whom history has cursed with the epithet of bloody, became queen in 1553. Lady Jane, and her husband, father, and friends, were beheaded; papacy was restored, and fatal faggots flamed again. Smoke from human immolations upon the altar of bigotry went up continually. Calais, which had been taken by Edward III. in 1347, after a year's siege, which had been held by the English two hundred and ten years, and which was deeply prized as the last relic of the broad possessions and conquests of the Plantagenets, was by treachery yielded to the French. Its loss sorely smote the pride of the queen. "When I'm dead," she said, "Calais will be found written on my heart." She died toward the close of the same year. Coaches came into use in her time, before which ladies had been borne in litters, or had ridden on pillions behind their mounted squires. Flax and hemp were first cultivated; the use of starch was discovered; and the manufacture of drinking glasses began to be encouraged.

The reign of Elizabeth, from 1558 to 1603, was one of great renown. She restored the Anglican church, making herself, like her father, the head of the spiritual as well as

temporal power. All clergymen and all officers under the crown were compelled to take an oath acknowledging this supremacy. All persons were forbidden to attend upon any ministrations but those of the established church, and thus, sad to say, persecution did not end although protestantism had been restored. Elizabeth intrigued with Scotland, but fought with Spain. The defense of the kingdom against the celebrated Armada, in 1588, would of itself stamp her reign with glory. The attack on Cadiz by the Earl of Essex was eminently successful, and the other enterprises of her admirals were very considerable. She also supported the protestants of Germany against Austria, and the Dutch against the Spaniards. During the Elizabethan era, English literature, which had dawned under Chaucer in the days of Edward III., came to the meridian, and Shakspeare, Spenser, Bacon, Raleigh, Sidney, added more to the glories of England, than all the eminent wisdom and policy of the queen and her statesmen, or the prowess of her commanders. The naval power was much advanced; Drake circumnavigated the globe, coming home with great affluence of Spanish treasure, and what was better, an esculent root that he planted in Lancashire, the potato; a colony was planted in North America, and gallantly christened Virginia in honor of the maiden queen. Tobacco was brought from the West, and was soon very fashionable, after the stomachs of the courtiers were used to it. Tea was brought from the East by the Dutch. Pocket watches from Nuremberg began to be carried. Silk stockings were worn by Elizabeth; before, cloth hose had been the wear. Commerce widened; the East India company was organized; the whale and cod fisheries were entered upon. Paper-making from linen rags was begun at Dartford by Sir John Spielman, a German; Birmingham and Sheffield became the centre of hardware manufactures, and Manchester of woolen and stocking weaving. Theatrical representations ran a race awhile with the older and coarser amusement of bull-baiting, and then became the popular pastime.

On Elizabeth's death, the English and Scottish crowns became united in the person of James I., a vain and pedantic prince, son of the unfortunate queen whom Elizabeth had

long held a captive, and at last murdered. A similar crime, the tedious bondage and final murder of Raleigh, blots the reign of James. The Gunpowder plot we describe elsewhere. The Stuarts had all the Tudors' love of despotism, but not their strength of will. In this weakness civil liberty found its chance for growth. With James commenced those struggles between the crown and the commons, that brought his son to the scaffold, and worked out the expulsion of his race from the land. Parliament withheld supplies when grievances became too heavy; and in the king's want of money the rank of baronet originated. There was a rebellion in Ireland, and each baronet upon his creation was required to pay into the exchequer as much as would maintain "thirty soldiers three years at eightpence a day." Sir Nicholas Bacon, the father of the great Lord Bacon, was the first of the baronets. The discovery of the blood's circulation was made by Harvey in this time. The broad silk manufacture was introduced; copper half-pence and farthings were first coined; Napier calculated logarithms; brick came into use for building. The English Bible as we now have it, was translated by divines appointed by the king. The settlement of Virginia was firmly established, and the Puritans fled away to the wilderness of New England.

Charles I. succeeded to an empty treasury. After endeavoring to fill it by illegal taxes, he compromised with the people. Parliament granted an ample subsidy, and the king ratified, in the most solemn manner, the celebrated Petition of Right, the second great charter of the liberties of England. By this compact Charles bound himself never again to raise money without the consent of the houses, never again to imprison any person except in due course of law, and never again to subject his people to the jurisdiction of courts martial. Had he observed these stipulations, the impending calamity might have been averted. But no sooner was the supply collected than the promise by which it had been got was broken. The king resolved to do without a parliament, and from 1629 to 1640 none was convoked. In olden times of war, the English monarchs had called on the maritime counties to furnish ships for the defense of the coast. In the room of ships, money had sometimes

been accepted. This ancient impost it was now determined to revive, in a time of profound peace, and to exact it not only from the coast but from the inland shires. The whole nation was alarmed and incensed. John Hampden, a gentleman of Buckinghamshire, disputed the illegal levy; the case was argued before the judges of exchequer, and an obsequious decision sustained the crown. The civil grievances were rivaled by the ecclesiastical rigors of Archbishop Laud. An insane attempt to foist the Anglican liturgy upon the Presbyterians of Scotland roused them to open rebellion. In this dilemma a parliament was convened, but soon dissolved. In the fall of the same year, assembled the celebrated body since known as the Long Parliament. Many important reforms were enacted; Strafford and Laud were impeached; the king promised to show respect for the laws and good faith toward his subjects. His faithlessness was incurable. Only a few days after he sent his attorney-general to impeach Pym, Hollis, Hampden, and other leaders of the opposition, of high treason at the bar of the House of Lords; and with armed men he entered the other chamber to seize their persons. The attempt failed, for the threatened members had just left the house. At this unprecedented usurpation, the friends of the king were speechless; his opponents were furious. He fled to the north, and in August, 1642, the sword was drawn.

At first the royalists were successful. But Fairfax defeated Prince Rupert on Marston Moor in 1644, and Cromwell annihilated the cavaliers at Naseby in 1645. The king fled into Scotland, whence he was delivered into the hands of parliament for £400,000. A dark thought grew into a darker decision, and on the 30th of January, 1649, Charles Stuart was beheaded in front of the palace of Whitehall.

The era of the Commonwealth succeeded. Cromwell subdued Ireland and Scotland, and defeated a royalist army at Worcester; the young Charles escaped to the continent; the Long Parliament was dissolved by Cromwell with his soldiery, and the great general became lord high protector. Of his rule we have spoken in our sketch of his life. England maintained a high rank in the scale of nations, and Cromwell showed himself as well qualified

to govern as to gain. The usurpation was perhaps a harsh medicine to the constitution, but its operation was short, and its effects very salutary. Charles II. was restored in 1660. He came in upon a tremendous billow of loyalty, but the lazy, good-natured monarch was nothing but a Stuart, and the temper of the nation gradually cooled toward him. Nonconformists were rigorously dealt with. For a while he maintained a war with the Dutch. De Ruyter sailed up the Thames, and burned the vessels that lay at Chatham; the roar of foreign guns was heard for the first and last time by the citizens of London; a treaty was shortly concluded, very different from those which Cromwell had been in the habit of signing. While this ignominious war was raging, London suffered two great disasters, such as never, in so short a time, befell another city. A pestilence, surpassing in horror any that during three centuries had visited the island, swept away, in six months, more than a hundred thousand human beings; and scarcely had the dead cart ceased to go its rounds, when a fire, such as had not been known in Europe since the conflagration of Rome under Nero, laid in ruins the whole city from the Tower to the Temple, and from the river to the purlieu of Smithfield.—*Macaulay*. England sunk from the rank that Cromwell had given her, and Charles became a pensioner upon the bounty of Louis XIV. The strictness of the Puritans had been followed by a natural reaction, and a flood of debauchery and ribald life. Yet to this reign we date that famous writ of right, known as the *habeas corpus* act, by which no person can be detained in duance except in cases where the detention can be justified by law.

The Duke of Monmouth, one of the many natural sons of Charles, strove unsuccessfully in the west of England, to wrest the crown from James II. John Ketch, his executioner, who had butchered many brave and noble victims, has furnished our language a name for the headsman and hangman. The infamous Jeffreys went the circuit of what were called the bloody assizes; the jails were crowded with men, and women too, accused of participation in the rebellion; some were pitilessly scourged, hundreds were hanged, and almost a thousand were sent as slaves beyond the seas. The ermined murderer re-

turned to court from the west, leaving death, and wailing, and terror behind, to receive the encomiums of his master. The people of England by this time understood the rights of the subject, as well as the duties of the monarch, and when James II. attempted to rule absolutely, and to overthrow the religion of the country, a bloodless revolution forced him to abdicate the throne, and set upon it his daughter Mary, and her husband, William of Orange, an avowed Protestant. The liberties of the people took deeper root by his confirmation of their bill of rights. In this reign an expedition, headed by the king, was sent out to reduce Ireland, and a war waged with France, not generally successful, but there appeared some brilliant sparks of enterprise, and one or two fair incidents of good fortune. During this reign the Bank of England was incorporated. It was in the reign of Anne that the age of English chivalry seemed to revive, and the military mania of the two rival nations to be renewed. The valor and skill of Marlborough triumphed over the most splendid arrays of military might under Louis XIV. Germany was saved, Gibraltar taken, and Dunkirk demolished, by a course of victories as brilliant as any which the pen of the historian records. It was also in this memorable reign that the legislative union of Scotland with England took place. The era of Anne is styled an Augustan age of English literature. Addison, Steele, Pope, Bolingbroke, Gay, Swift, Prior, and other great wits and authors, lived and wrote. The queen died in 1714.

The succession of the house of Hanover now took place. The short reign of George I. was principally noted for its domestic and foreign inquietude. The year after his accession a rebellion arose in Scotland, headed by the Pretender, as the son of James II. was called. It was promptly put down, and severely punished. A destructive speculation known as the South Sea bubble ran to a great pitch and then burst, entailing great financial disaster, and ruining thousands of families. The reign of George II. was distinguished by the battle of Dettingen, where the king fought in person; the military contests with France; the naval triumphs over that kingdom and Spain; the conquest of French America, and the splendid successes of Clive in the East Indies.

It was in 1745 that the Stuarts made their last attempt for the crown. The Chevalier Charles Edward, son of the Pretender, landed in Scotland with a few adherents; the Highlanders rallied to his standard; his forces were triumphant at Preston Pans; he gained Edinburgh, reduced Carlisle, and advanced into England. The English Jacobites were not so ready as the Scotch; the chevalier turned back, pursued by the Duke of Cumberland, and on the bloody plain of Culloden the hopes of his house were forever extinguished. In the time of George II. the change from old to new style in the calendar was made. [See TIME.]

In the early years of the next reign, England waged another great and successful war with France and Spain. But the most important feature of the reign of George III. was the loss of America, produced by the odious tyranny of England. After a struggle of eight years, in which she saw her vast armies and fleets defeated by the bravery of a nation of patriots, Great Britain was compelled to relinquish her colonies, and acknowledge their independence. The peace of Europe was broken by the different powers siding with the combatants, and thus England was at once involved in war by sea and land with America, France, Spain, and Holland, while the dissensions of party at home increased to an alarming height. The war was concluded by a treaty with those powers in 1783. The war of the French revolution forms a second period of this reign. The first direct interference on the part of the British was in two unsuccessful expeditions to the continent under the Duke of York and Sir S. Hood, and in the capture of some French West India islands, and of Pondicherry in India. In the latter country very great advantages were acquired over the natives; Tippoo Sultan was entirely defeated and killed, and Seringapatam captured.

France, having disposed of her continental enemies, began to act on the offensive, and undertook an invasion of Ireland, seven ships of the line having, with that intent, anchored in Bantry Bay. The war in the mean time had divided the sentiments of the English people, and strong dissatisfaction was manifested by the revolutionary party. The ministers were firm in their measures, and the king's life was put in danger on his going to parliament.

Two attempts at negotiation failed, and the internal difficulties were increased by the stoppage of the bank, the mutiny of the fleet at Spithead and the Nore, and the menace of rebellion in Ireland. The first evil was palliated, but the two last were not suppressed without much bloodshed. The intentions of the French were, however, defeated; 1,800 men who had landed in Ireland, surrendered, and the English fleet recovered its reputation by a victory over the Spaniards, and by the celebrated battle of the Nile, in 1798. These events having raised the spirits of the continental powers, Germany, Russia, and Turkey joined England against France, while Ireland was pacified by a show of much promise which was to be effected by an union. The Austrians were annihilated at Marengo; the English, at the request of the sultan, agreed to evacuate Egypt; and they made an unsuccessful attempt upon the Boulogne flotilla with which the French threatened an invasion of Britain. Such was the state of things, when, in 1802, the combatants found it convenient to conclude peace.

The war recommenced in 1803, by the loss on the English side of Hanover, and the seizure of the British in France, which was retaliated by the seizure of French vessels and seamen. To oppose the increasing power of Napoleon, Mr. Pitt was once more made premier. In the mean time the most advantageous treaties had been concluded with the native states of India, and the French defeated by the dying Nelson in the great and decisive naval engagement of Trafalgar, in 1805. This was the last trophy of those great preparations which Mr. Pitt had made, to support his system by the overthrow of that of the French, an object which in the sequel, they certainly accomplished. Pitt died in 1806, and Mr. Fox, his great political opponent and successor, in the same year. During this period, the successes in other parts had been partial; but, at home, a triumph over injustice and inhumanity was obtained in the abolition of the slave-trade. The new ministry, persisting in pressing the Catholic claims, received his majesty's intimation to resign. It was at this juncture, in 1808, that Britain made herself a party to reinstate the imbecile Bourbon of Spain.

The campaign was commenced by Sir Arthur Wellesley (afterward the Duke of Wellington), with the repulse of Junot at Vimiera; but the defeat and death of Sir John Moore, at Corunna, followed. Though the English under Sir Arthur Wellesley were still in force in Portugal, and had obtained some advantages, as at Talavera, they had to contend equally with the weakness of the Spaniards and the power of the French. They therefore entrenched themselves behind their lines at Torres Vedras.

Two expeditions of different fortune took place at this time; one to the south of Italy, and the other to the island of Walcheren. Several valuable captures in other parts were made. At this period (1810), the insanity of the king incapacitated him from governing, and his son, the dissipated Prince of Wales, was appointed regent. The war in Spain was carried on with determination, but with partial success. The reorganization of the Spanish and Portuguese armies, and the reviving spirit of the cortes, changed the aspect of affairs. Meanwhile, Russia, Prussia, and Sweden had entered into alliance with England, who supplied them with vast subsidies to support their armies against France. Holland, also, by the assistance of England, had risen on its masters, and Napoleon, pressed by the allies, and having suffered immense losses in Russia, was obliged to give way, and armies entered France on two sides. Lord Wellington, proceeding through Spain, passed the Pyrenees through almost unremitted conflict, invested Bayonne, occupied Bourdeaux, defeated Soult before Toulouse, and there received the news of the capture of Paris, and the cessation of hostilities. Meanwhile England had been also engaged in a war with America, which was prosecuted on the plea of her assumed right to search our vessels for deserters. The treaty of peace was signed at Ghent in 1814.

The next year Great Britain was again called into active co-operation with the other confederates, to depose Napoleon, who had returned in triumph from Elba, and resumed the throne of France without opposition. After the victory at Waterloo, the allies entered Paris, and reinstated Louis XVIII., on the throne, while Napoleon surrendered him-

self to an English ship, and was sent to St. Helena, where he was detained until his death, in 1820.

George III., died in 1820, in the eighty-second year of his age, and the sixtieth of his reign, which is the longest and most memorable in the annals of England. For the last ten years the profligate George IV., had ruled as prince regent. The trial of his ill-used queen, her death, the alarming riots that accompanied her funeral, the scarcity and distress in Ireland, and the removal of civil disabilities from the Catholics, marked his ten years' reign. He died in 1830, and was succeeded by his brother William, who as Duke of Clarence had served for a long time in the navy.

The year 1832 is famous for the passage of the bill for parliamentary reform, which was carried by the commons against the will of a majority of the peers. Two years after, slavery was abolished throughout the British dominions; by this act 770,280 slaves became freemen, on the 1st of August, 1834, and £20,000,000 were granted by parliament for compensation to the masters.

William was succeeded by his niece Victoria, in 1837. By virtue of the Salique law, which excludes women from sovereignty, Hanover was now severed from England, and the Duke of Cumberland, a younger son of George III., became its monarch. During Victoria's reign England has waged several wars in the East; with the Chinese, with the Afghans, and with the Sikhs, [*See CHINA, AFGHANISTAN, INDIA.*] The great contest between Russia, and the allied powers of England, France, and Turkey, is also described in another page. [*See RUSSO-TURKISH WAR.*]

The following have been the rulers of England since the conquest.

1066. William the Conqueror; died at Rouen, Sept. 9th, 1087.

1087. William Rufus; killed by an arrow, Aug. 2d, 1100.

1100. Henry I., youngest son of the Conqueror; died of a surfeit, Dec. 1st, 1135.

1135. Stephen, Earl of Blois, nephew of Henry I. The Empress Maud, daughter of Henry, contended with him for the crown. Stephen died Oct. 25th, 1154.

THE PLANTAGENETS.

1154. Henry II., son of the Empress Maud by her second husband, Geoffrey Plantagenet, Earl of Anjou; died July 6th, 1189.

1189. Richard I.; died Apr. 6th, 1199.

1199. John, brother of Richard; died Oct. 18th, 1216.

1216. Henry III.; died Nov. 16th, 1272.

1272. Edward I.; died July 7th, 1307.

1307. Edward II.; murdered at Berkley Castle, Sept. 21st, 1327.

1327. Edward III.; died June 21st, 1377.

1377. Richard II., son of Edward the Black Prince, and grandson of Edward III.; dethroned Sept. 28th, 1399; murdered at Pomfret Castle, Feb. 10th, 1400.

BRANCH OF LANCASTER.

1399. Henry IV., son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, and grandson of Edward III.; died March 20th, 1413.

1413. Henry V.; died Aug. 31st, 1422.

1422. Henry VI.; deposed March 4th, 1461; murdered in the Tower, June 20th, 1471.

BRANCH OF YORK.

1461. Edward IV., a descendant from two sons of Edward III., Lionel, Duke of Clarence, and Edmund, Duke of York; died April 9th, 1483.

1483. Edward V.; deposed June 22d, 1483, and murdered in the Tower.

1483. Richard III., brother of Edward IV.; slain at Bosworth, Aug. 22d, 1485.

HOUSE OF TUDOR.

1485. Henry VII., Earl of Richmond, a descendant by his mother's side from John of Gaunt; married Elizabeth, the heiress of York; died Apr. 22d, 1509.

1509. Henry VIII.; died Jan. 28th, 1547.

1547. Edward VI., son of Henry VIII., by Jane Seymour; died July 6th, 1553.

1553. Mary, daughter of Henry VIII., by Catherine of Arragon; died Nov. 17th, 1558.

1558. Elizabeth, daughter of Henry VIII., by Anna Boleyn; died Mar. 24th, 1603.

HOUSE OF STUART.

1603. James I., of England, and VI., of Scotland, great-grandson of Margaret, daughter of Henry VIII., who married James IV., of Scotland; died Mar. 27th, 1625.

1625. Charles I.; beheaded at Whitehall, Jan. 30th, 1649.

THE COMMONWEALTH.

1649. Oliver Cromwell, made protector Dec. 12th, 1653; died Sept. 3d, 1658.

1658. Richard Cromwell, made protector Sept. 4th, 1658; resigned April 22d, 1659.

THE STUARTS RESTORED.

1660. Charles II., son of Charles I.; died Feb. 6th, 1685.

1685. James II., brother of Charles II.; abdicated by flight, Dec. 12th, 1688; died in exile, Aug. 6th, 1701.

1689. William (Prince of Orange, the son of Mary, daughter of Charles I.) and Mary (daughter of James II.) Mary died Dec. 28th, 1694; and William, of a fall from his horse, Mar. 8th, 1702.

1702. Anne, second daughter of James II.; died Aug. 1st, 1714.

HOUSE OF HANOVER.

1714. George I., Elector of Hanover and Duke of Brunswick Lunenburg, son of Sophia, who was daughter of Elizabeth, the daughter of James I.; died June 11th, 1727.

1727. George II.; died Oct. 25th, 1760.

1760. George III., grandson of George II.; died Jan. 29th, 1820.

1820. George IV.; died June 26th, 1830.

1830. William IV., brother of George IV.; died June 20th, 1837.

1837. Victoria, only child of Edward, Duke of Kent, the fourth son of George III.

EPAMINONDAS, a famous Theban, descended from the ancient kings of Bœotia, but born and reared in poverty. He was celebrated for his private virtues and military accomplishments. His love of truth was so great that he was never known to give utterance to a falsehood. He formed an inviolable friendship with Pelopidas, whose life he saved in battle. By his advice Pelopidas delivered Thebes from the power of Lacedæmon. This was the signal of war. Epaminondas was placed at the head of the Theban armies, and defeated the Spartans in the celebrated battle of Leuctra, 371 B.C. Epaminondas entered the territories of Lacedæmon with 50,000 men. Here he gained many friends and partisans, but, at his return from Thebes, he was seized as a traitor for violating the laws of his country. While he was making the Theban army victorious on every side, he neglected the law which forbade any citizen to retain in his hands the supreme power for more than one month, and all his eminent services seemed unable to redeem him from death. He paid implicit obedience to the laws of his country, and only begged of his judges that it might be inscribed on his tomb, that he had suffered death for saving his country from ruin. This animated reproach was felt; he was pardoned, and invested again with sovereign power. He was successful in a war with Thessaly, and again engaged against the Lacedæmonians. The hostile armies met near Mantinea 363 B.C., and while Epaminondas was fighting bravely in the thickest of the enemy, he received a fatal wound in the breast, and expired with joy on hearing that the Bœotians had obtained the victory. On hearing his friends regret that

he had left no children, he said, "I leave behind me two immortal daughters, the victories of Leuctra and Mantinea."

EPEE, CHARLES MICHAEL DE L', was born at Versailles in 1712. None of the teachers who had been successful with deaf and dumb pupils, had published accounts of their methods, so that De l'Epee was not indebted to them for the mode of instruction which he first employed upon two sisters. His zeal in the cause of those who were destitute of speech and hearing led him into pecuniary embarrassment. One incident in his life is peculiarly interesting. He met, one day, in the streets of Paris a deaf and dumb youth in the garb of a beggar, whom he was convinced was the heir of the rich family of the Count of Solar. A law-suit followed, which was at first successful, but when the friends of Solar were dead, his property was again wrested from him, and he was compelled to enlist in the army as a cuirassier. The Abbe De l'Epee died in 1789.

EPICTETUS, a Stoic philosopher, born at Hieropolis, in Phrygia, A.D. 90. He was the slave of Epaphroditus, a freedman of Nero. His master once struck him a severe blow upon the leg. "You will break it," was the calm reply of the Stoic. The brute repeated the blow and broke it. "Did I not tell you so?" was the quiet exclamation of the philosopher. He was afterward freed, and made governor of Cappadocia, A.D. 134.

EPICURUS was born at Gargettus, near Athens, 342 B.C. In the thirty-sixth year of his age he opened his school in an Athenian garden, a spot pleasantly typical of his doctrine. The Platonists had their academic grove; the Aristotelians walked along the Lyceum; the Cynics growled in the Cynosarges; the Stoics occupied the Porch; and the Epicureans had their Garden. There, in the tranquil garden, in the society of his friends, he passed a peaceful life of speculation and enjoyment. The friendship that existed among them is well known. In a time of general scarcity and famine, they contributed to each other's support, showing that the Pythagorean notion of community of goods was unnecessary amongst friends who could confide in each other. At the entrance of the garden they placed this inscription: "The hospitable keeper of this mansion, where you will find

pleasure the highest good, will present you liberally with barley cakes and water fresh from the spring. The gardens will not provoke your appetite by artificial dainties, but satisfy it with natural supplies. Will you not be well entertained?" He taught his scholars that the *summum bonum* consisted in happiness; and that happiness did not spring from sensual enjoyments, but from a practice of the virtues. He commended wisdom, was temperate, moderate, gentle, firm, and fearless of death. He died 270 B.C., and had many followers.

EPIRUS, a province on the borders of Greece, the most southerly portion of the modern Albania. This country was inhabited by the Chaones and the Molossians. The best known of the kings of Epirus is Pyrrhus, who reigned about 280 B.C., and distinguished himself greatly by his wars with the Romans, in favor of the Tarentines. Upon the death of Deodamia, the last of this race, about the year 240 B.C., the Epirots formed themselves into a republic, which was reduced 167 B.C. by Paulus Æmilius, the Roman general, all the towns destroyed, and the inhabitants enslaved in one day. Upon the taking of Constantinople, in 1204, Michael Angelus seized this country, and his posterity held it till it was taken by the Turks under Amurath II., in 1432. In 1447, Castriot (Scanderbeg) revolted from the Turks, but the country was finally reduced by Mohammed II., in 1466.

ERASMUS, DESIDERIUS, a man celebrated for his learning, was born at Rotterdam in 1467. At the age of seventeen he assumed the monastic habit, but subsequently obtained a dispensation from his vows. He traveled through many countries, but was received with the greatest kindness by Henry VIII. of England, and was for a short time professor of Greek at Oxford. Erasmus died in 1536. Besides his theological works, and his editions of the classics, he published an "Encomium on Folly," which has been often reprinted. His letters are of historical value. His writings contributed largely to bring about the Reformation, though he himself had not the faith and courage to be a reformer.

ERATOSTHENES, one of the greatest mathematicians of antiquity; the first who measured a degree of the meridian, and the

first who accurately determined the inclination of the earth's axis to the plane of the ecliptic. He flourished at Alexandria, and died B.C. 195, aged eighty.

ERFURT, in Thuringia, belonging to Prussia, contains at present 25,000 inhabitants. It was founded in the fifth century. It maintained a kind of independence until the seventeenth century, when the Elector of Mentz gained possession of it. In 1814 it was granted to Prussia by the congress of Vienna. Erfurt was famous for the meeting between Napoleon and the Emperor Alexander with many other kings and princes, September 27th, 1808. Napoleon's object was the pacification of all Europe. He was now at the summit of power and glory, and he stood upon the very pinnacle of grandeur, with a feeling of intense enjoyment. "Come to Erfurt," he wrote exultingly to Talma, "and you shall play to a whole pit full of kings."

ERIE, LAKE, one of the great fresh seas that under the United States from the British dominions in America, is 270 miles in length by from 25 to 50 in breadth. On its waters, Sept. 10th, 1813, a severe action was fought between the British squadron and an inferior force under Commodore Perry. "We have met the enemy and they are ours," was Perry's announcement of the victory to Gen. Harrison.

ERSKINE, THOMAS, Lord Erskine, a celebrated lawyer, was the son of David Henry Erskine, tenth Earl of Buchan, and was born in the year 1750. It was not until after he served some years in the army and navy that he embraced the legal profession, at the age of twenty-six. In 1778, he was admitted to the bar, and his success was both speedy and triumphant. During twenty-five years he enjoyed an extensive practice. He was appointed attorney-general to the Prince of Wales, and, in 1802, keeper of his seals for the duchy of Cornwall. He was lord-chancellor during the short ministry of Fox and Grenville in 1806. He died in 1823. His popularity may be inferred from the fact that his pamphlet, entitled "A View of the Causes and Consequences of the War with France," went through forty-eight editions. Though celebrated as a forensic orator, he failed in the House of Commons.

ESCURIAL, a magnificent palace, situated

on the ascent to the chain of mountains bounding Old Castile, twenty-two miles from Madrid. It was erected by Philip II., in commemoration of the victory of St. Quentin, gained over the French in 1557. The battle was fought on the day of the festival of St. Lawrence, and the palace was dedicated to this saint, whose instrument of martyrdom, a gridiron, is immortalized in the disposition of the buildings composing the Escorial. It is said to have cost \$50,000,000, and contains many noble works of art. Through all its apartments would be a journey of one hundred and twenty miles.

ESQUIMAUX, dwarfish tribes of North America, occupying the northern coasts of America. They live by hunting and fishing, and are alike destitute of laws and religion. They formerly put to death widows and orphans, and those who, from age or misfortune, were incapable of gaining a subsistence.

ESSEX, ROBERT DEVEREUX, Earl of, born in 1567, was educated at Cambridge, and introduced at court at an early age. He soon won the regard of Queen Elizabeth, and on his return from a campaign in the Low Countries, he was made master of horse. The last of his two expeditions against Cadiz failed from a misunderstanding between him and Raleigh. Returning, Essex was made earl-marshal of England, and master-general of the ordnance. Essex was impetuous and indiscreet. At the zenith of royal favor, he took no care of his actions. At the council-board, he contradicted the queen, who gave him a smart box on the ear; when he rose in extreme wrath, clapped his hand upon his sword, and swore that he would not have taken such an affront even from Henry VIII. In Ireland, he made a composition with the rebels, and quitted his government, without leave for either proceeding. On his return to London he was taken, tried, and beheaded, February 25th, 1601. While in prison he is said to have intrusted to the Countess of Nottingham a ring which he had received from the queen, when high in favor, with the promise to pardon any offense on its presentation. Contrary to her pledge, the countess retained the ring. She confessed her guilt upon her death-bed, and Elizabeth is said to

have exclaimed, "God may forgive you, but I never will!"

The son of Essex, after having served Charles I., became a general of the parliamentary party, but did not enjoy a high degree of favor, and died suddenly in 1646.

ESSLING, a small village about seven miles from Vienna. Here a dreadful conflict was fought May 21st and 22d, 1809, between the armies of France and Austria, commanded by Napoleon and the Archduke Charles. Napoleon was defeated with the loss of 30,000 men; but the loss of the Austrians, also most severe, exceeded 20,000. Marshal Massena was created Duke of Essling by Bonaparte.

ESTAING, CHARLES HENRY, Count d', a French admiral, and lieutenant-general of the French armies, was the descendant of a noble family, and commenced his career in the West Indies. He was sent with a fleet to aid the Americans during the Revolution. He was guillotined in 1793.

ETRURIA, the country of the Etruscans, now Tuscany. The Etruscans at a very early age had received the arts from Greece, and produced some most beautiful specimens. They gave to the Romans their early religious usages and architecture, and finally became the victims of Roman ambition.

In 1801 the name of Etruria was restored, and the country was made a kingdom, and remained so until amalgamated with the French empire, by a senatorial decree of May 30th, 1808. The next year Eliza, the sister of Napoleon, received this territory, with the title of Grand Duchess of Tuscany. In 1814 its ancient rulers regained it.

EUCLID, the great mathematician, flourished at Alexandria about 300 B.C.

EUGENE, FRANCIS, of Savoy, commonly called Prince Eugene, fifth son of Eugene Maurice, Duke of Savoy-Carignan, was born at Paris in 1663. His mother was Olympia Mancini, niece to Cardinal Mazarin. He was educated for the church, but after the death of his father, and the exile of his mother, he and his brother Philip went to Vienna, where they met with a gracious reception. In the war which broke out with Turkey, Prince Philip fell in battle, and left his command to Eugene, who signalized himself at the siege of Vienna in 1683, as he did afterward at

Buda. He next served against the French in Italy; and in 1697 commanded the army in Hungary, where he gained a splendid victory at Zeuta, in which the Turks lost above 30,000 men, with their commander the grand vizier. On the breaking out of the war occasioned by the disputes about the Spanish succession, Eugene commanded the imperialists in Italy, where he was opposed to Villeroy, whom he made prisoner. After this he acted in conjunction with Marlborough. In 1712 the prince came to England to prevail upon the court to continue the war, but could not succeed. Compelled to act on the defensive, he exerted himself to the utmost; and, in 1714, settled preliminary articles with Marshal Villars at Rastadt, which ended soon after in a general peace.

In 1716 the war with the Turks was renewed, and the prince again took the field in Hungary, where he attacked the enemy in their camp, and obtained a complete victory, which was followed by the capture of Temeswar and Belgrade. From this time to 1733 Eugene remained at Vienna, employed in the cabinet; but in that year he assumed the command in Italy, where he experienced various success in the contest with the combined powers of France, Spain, and Sardinia. He was found dead in his bed, April 10th, 1736.

EULER, LEONARD, a mathematician of Basle, born in 1707. He was educated at the university of his native place. In his nineteenth year he gained a prize from the academy of Paris for the best treatise on the masting of vessels. He took the department of mathematics in the academy of St. Petersburg, and published a vast number of treatises. In the French academy of sciences he gained ten prizes. In 1741 he became professor in the Berlin academy, but returned to St. Petersburg, where he died in 1783, in the office of director of the mathematical department. Throughout his life, he received honors from all quarters. He was cheerful and amiable in private life, although the last seventeen years of his existence were passed in total blindness.

EUPATORIA, a seaport on the west coast of the Crimea. After the allied English, French, and Turkish armies landed here, Sept. 14th, 1854, a detachment of Turks

occupied the place. It was attacked Feb. 17th, 1855, by a large force of Russians under Liprandi, who were repulsed.

EURIPIDES, a celebrated tragic poet, in great favor with Archelaus of Macedonia, was born at Salamis on the day that the army of Xerxes was routed by the Athenians. He wrote seventy-five tragedies, only nineteen of which are extant. Euripides was called Misogynes for his hatred of women, and particularly of his own wife. In the seventy-fifth year of his age, B.C. 405, he was torn to pieces by dogs.

EUROPE, the least extensive, but the most improved of the great divisions of the globe, is situated between 36° and 71° N. latitude. It contains about 3,900,000 square miles, with a population of 265,000,000, and is bounded by the sea in all directions except the east, where it joins Asia.

The following is a list of the states of Europe, classified according to their forms of government. *Republics*: Andorra (among the Pyrenees), Ionian Islands, San Marino, Switzerland, and the free cities of Bremen, Frankfort, Hamburg, and Lubeck. *Limited Sovereignties*: the duchies of Brunswick, Nassau, Saxe Altenburg, Saxe Coburg and Gotha, Saxe Meiningen Hildburghausen, and Saxe Weimar Eisenach; the grand-duchies of Baden, Hesse Darmstadt, Mecklenburg Schwerin, Mecklenburg Strelitz, and Oldenburg; the kingdoms of Bavaria, Belgium, Denmark, Great Britain, Greece, Hanover, Holland (with the duchy of Luxemburg), Portugal, Prussia, Sardinia, Saxony, Spain, Sweden and Norway, and Wurtemberg; the empire of France; the electorate of Hesse Cassel; and the principalities of Lichtenstein, Lippe Detmold, Schaumburg Lippe, Reuss, Schwarzburg Rudolstadt, Schwarzburg Sondershausen, and Waldeck. *Absolute Sovereignties*: the duchies of Anhalt Bernburg, Anhalt Dessau Cöthen, Modena and Massa, and Parma; the empires of Austria, Russia, and Turkey; the popedom of the States of the Church; the landgraviate of Hesse Homburg; the principalities of Monaco and Montenegro; the kingdom of the Two Sicilies; and the grand-duchy of Tuscany.

EUSEBIUS. There were several bishops of this name in the same epoch, who are often confounded. The first is the most

famous. Eusebius Pamphylus, Bishop of Cæsarea, flourished A. D. 270-340. Eusebius, Bishop of Nicomedia, an Arian, died 341. Eusebius, Bishop of Emessa, a theological writer, flourished 340-60. Eusebius, Bishop of Vercelli, an Athanasian theological writer, flourished 354-70.

EUTAW SPRINGS, S. C., BATTLE OF, one of the most severely contested battles of the Revolution, fought Sept. 8th, 1781. Both sides claimed the victory: it belonged to neither, but the advantage was with the Americans. Gen. Greene's forces numbered 2,300, a third of whom were militia; out of which 152 were killed, 424 wounded, and 40 missing. The loss of the British was 693, of whom 85 were killed on the field. Greene took 500 prisoners. This was virtually the close of the campaign in South Carolina.

EUTROPIUS, FLAVIUS, a Latin author who flourished about A. D. 360.

EVELYN, JOHN (1620-1706,) an English gentleman of easy fortune, who wrote several scientific works in a popular style. He was one of the first in England to treat gardening and planting scientifically.

EVERETT, EDWARD, the orator, scholar and diplomatist, was born in Dedham, Mass., April 11, 1794. He was graduated at Harvard College at the age of 17, with the highest honors of his class, gave the Phi Beta Kappa poem at 18, succeeded the gifted Buckminster in Brattle Street Church at 19. Elected to a Greek Professorship in Harvard College, with permission to visit Europe, he spent four years in study in Germany and in travel. In 1824 he gained great celebrity as an orator and thinker by his Phi Beta Kappa oration. His occasional orations and addresses from that time till his death, pronounced at Plymouth, Concord, Charlestown, Lexington, and other places, linked with revolutionary traditions and glory—eulogies on Washington, Jefferson, the elder and younger Adams, and anniversary and philanthropic discourses secured for him the preëminent position among the accomplished orators of America. In 1825-35 he was a Member of Congress—then four years Governor of Massachusetts. In 1841 he became Minister to England, and in the negotiation of the Northeastern Boundary question, the McLeod and Creole affairs he displayed great

ability and statesmanship. He became President of Harvard Coll. in 1849, Secretary of State under President Fillmore in 1852, U. S. Senator in 1853, (but resigned on account of ill health,) and candidate for the Vice Presidency in 1860 with John Bell of Tenn.

Emerging from private life at the opening of the rebellion he gave himself with patriotic ardor to the defense of his country. He was chosen to give the oration at the consecration of the cemetery at Gettysburg. His death was followed by an official order by President Lincoln, setting forth "the learning, eloquence, unsurpassed and disinterested labors of patriotism in a time of political disorder" of the deceased, and ordering appropriate honors to be rendered to his memory wherever the national name and authority are recognized.

His published works are "Life of Washington," and three volumes of Orations and Addresses.

EWING, JOHN, a celebrated American divine and mathematician, was born in Cecil Co., Md., June 22d, 1732, and was graduated at Princeton Coll. in 1755. He became, in 1759, pastor of the First Presbyterian congregation in Philadelphia, and instructed the philosophical classes in the College there. He was provost of the University of Philadelphia from 1775 till his death, Sept. 8, 1802.

EXMOUTH, Lord. EDWARD PELLEW was born at Dover, April 19th, 1757. Entering the navy, he was raised step by step till he reached the rank of admiral. In 1816 he bombarded Algiers, and rescued more than 1000 Christians who had been groaning in Algerine captivity. For this noble exploit he was raised to the peerage. On his coat of arms was emblazoned a figure new to heraldry, a Christian slave holding aloft the cross and dropping his broken fetter. He died January 23d, 1832.

EYCK, JOHN and HUBERT VAN, artists who flourished at Ghent and Bruges in the beginning of the fifteenth century, are said to have discovered the method of mixing paints in oil or varnish.

EYLAU, a small town in Prussia, where Napoleon won a great victory over the Russians on the 7th and 8th of Feb., 1807. The French lost 15,000 men, the Russians in slain alone, 20,000.

F.

FABIUS MAXIMUS, a celebrated Roman who, from a dull and unpromising childhood, sprang into a maturity of valor and heroism, and was gradually raised by his merit to the highest offices in the state. In his first consulship he gained a victory over Liguria, and the fatal battle of Thrasymene occasioned his election to the dictatorship. In this important office he began to oppose Hannibal, not by fighting him in the open field like his predecessors, but by continually harassing his army by countermarches and ambuscades, for which he received the surname of *Cunctator*, or 'delayer.' When he had laid down his office of dictator, his successors, for a while, followed his plan; but the rashness of Varro, and his contempt for the operations of Fabius, occasioned the fatal battle of Cannæ; and, on that occasion, the Carthaginian general observed that Fabius was the Hannibal of Rome. When he had made an agreement with Hannibal, for the ransom of the captives, which was totally disapproved by the Roman senate, he sold all his estates to pay the money, rather than forfeit his word. The bold proposal of young Scipio to carry the war from Italy into Africa, was regarded as chimerical by Fabius, and rejected by him as too hazardous an experiment. He did not live to see the success of the Roman arms under Scipio, and the conquest of Carthage by measures which he treated with contempt, and heard proposed with indignation. He died in his one hundredth year, 202 B.C., after he had been five times consul.

FABRICIUS, **CARUS**, surnamed **Luscinus**, a truly heroic and virtuous Roman, incorruptible at a time when wealth was almost omnipotent, and preserving a fearless bearing in the presence of the mightiest. He lived at a time of danger to the commonwealth, when Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, had come to Italy, less for the purpose of affording aid to the Tarentines, than of acquiring a military reputation by conquering the masters of the world. When he was sent on an embassy to Pyrrhus for the purpose of redeeming some prisoners, that king attempted to cor-

rupt his fidelity by a bribe, which was indignantly refused. The king on the next day ordered a curtain to be suddenly drawn, displaying to view an elephant of enormous size, a creature hitherto unknown in Italy. The brave Fabricius calmly said, "Your beast of to-day moves me no more than your gold of yesterday." He died 275 B.C.

FAHRENHEIT, **GABRIEL DANIEL**, inventor of the thermometer which bears his name, about 1726, was a physician and philosopher of Dantzic.

FAIRFAX, **LORD THOMAS**, was born at Denton, in Yorkshire, in 1611. He entered into military service under Lord Vere, in Holland, and on the breaking out of the civil wars took part against the king. Afterward, however, the jealousy of Cromwell disgusted him with the Puritans, although he continued in the employ of the government. He assisted in the Restoration, was reconciled to Charles II., and died in 1671.

FAIRIES. Almost all nations have, in ignorant times, possessed a strong belief in the supernatural, which has been continued to the present day, among the unenlightened. Wild and terrific scenes were peopled by the imagination with fierce and fearful beings, while flowery dells, sequestered glades, green and smiling forests, and pleasant water-falls were selected as the haunts of a gentler and more graceful race of beings than belong to humanity. Pastoral nations delighted to picture forms of miniature elegance, whose habitations were delicate and fragrant flowers. The fairy queen Titania hung like a bee or butterfly within a harebell, or led the gay dance by moonlight over roses, without bending the most fragile floweret or leaf beneath her footstep. The beings called fairies were at first termed elves, the word 'elf' originating with the Saxons, who from remote antiquity believed in them.

The Laplanders, Icelanders, and inhabitants of Finland believed in the existence of fairies. Many affirmed that they had had intercourse with them, and had been invited to their subterranean retreats, where they were hospitably entertained. The little men

and women handed round wine and tobacco, with which the mortal visitors were supplied in abundance, and afterward sent them on their way, with good advice, and an honorable escort. Up to this time, these people boast of indulging in the magical ceremonies and dances of the fairies.

The word fairy is thought, by most writers, to be derived from the Persian, and the character of the English fairies and the Persian *Peris* is similar. The *Peris* of the orientals are represented as females of exquisite beauty and great gentleness, who are not permitted to reside in heaven. They are not of earth, howbeit. They live in the colors of the rainbow, among the gorgeously tinted clouds, and are nourished by the fragrance of sweet flowers. The Dives of the Persians were spirits of the male sex, with habits and dispositions directly contrary to those of the *Peris*. They were malevolent, cruel, and fierce, and hideous in their appearance. Huge spiral horns sprang from their heads; their eyes were large and staring, their claws sharp and their fangs terrific. Covered with shaggy hair, and having long rough tails, it seemed as if they possessed every deformity. The Dives warred with mankind, and pursued the *Peris* with unrelenting hatred. Their lives, however, were limited, and they were not incapable of feeling personal violence. The fancies of the inhabitants of the East teem with supernatural beings. The *Genii*, spirits of vast size, were said to have been imprisoned by Solomon, who shut them up in caskets upon which he placed his seal. Some were thrown into rivers. A fisherman once drew one up from the bottom of a stream in his net, and the vessel being opened, a dense smoke arose from the interior. The smoke gradually assumed the vast figure of a *Genius*. The whole story is related in the "Arabian Nights' Entertainments."

Fairies of a certain class, such as the warlike elves or fays, were believed to exist by all European nations. During times of military enthusiasm, the fancy of warriors saw processions of fairies, well armed and mounted, bearing gorgeous banners; their weapons glittering in the moonlight, or gleaming like lightning on the darkness of the night. A Bohemian legend says that a

certain knight, traveling with a friend, met one of these nocturnal processions, and, disregarding the caution of his companion, spurred his horse forward to attack them. Horse and rider were found dead upon the spot in the morning. The Swedes asserted that there was a certain class of supernatural beings, pretty much the same as the Brownies of Scotland, who assisted the miners, labored in the shafts, and were far more ingenious than mortal workmen.

The fairies of England were generally of a harmless disposition. Oberon and Titania, the fairy king and queen, were pleasant little people, with a spice of humanity in their dispositions. Robin Goodfellow was a mischievous little creature, but not very spiteful. He was represented like a rustic, "in a suit of leather, close to his body, his hands and face russet color, with a flail." The Scottish fairies were certainly guilty of great deviations from the path of honesty. One of their greatest sins was that of stealing fine children from their cradles, and leaving in the place of a healthy infant a rickety and deformed being. The elves often stole away wives from their husbands, and these women were only to be regained by confronting the fairy procession on a certain night, within a year and a day after the loss, which time was allowed the bereaved mortals for restitution. The electrical circles which are sometimes found upon the turf were believed to be fairy rings, within which it was thought dangerous to sleep, or to be found after sunset. The Scotch fairies were of diminutive stature, of a doubtful nature, capricious and very resentful. The Scotch were afraid to speak of them disrespectfully, and even called malicious spirits, "gude people."

These fairies lived in green hills, on which they danced by moonlight. The interior of their habitations is described as presenting a most beautiful appearance, brilliant with glittering gold and gems, and containing every thing which a splendid fancy could contrive. But as "all is not gold that glitters," these fine appearances are said to be a show, put on to conceal a mean or repulsive reality.

These little beings are admirable riders, and the best judges of horses in the world. They go about in large companies by night,

when their presence is disclosed by the shrill, bell-like ringing of their bridles. When the little men find their steeds jaded, they do not scruple to continue their pleasure at the expense of mortals. They steal horses, and ride them almost to death. The animals are found in the morning in their stalls panting and flecked with foam, with their manes and tails matted and twisted. The shrewd reader will guess that the fairies often had to bear blame which belonged to careless grooms.

A sailor on the Isle of Man, who was riding to visit his sister, was invited by a party of jolly fairies who were hunting, to join them in their excursion. Not being aware of the nature of the little men, who made a gay appearance, as they swept by in green dresses, riding to the music of a mellow horn, Jack followed on, delighted, and only learned his danger when he arrived at his sister's house. These diminutive huntsmen used to seize upon the horses which English residents brought over to the Isle of Man, and ride them without ceremony. A gentleman of the island attributed the loss of half a dozen capital hunters, to the little men in green. Sometimes they were more honest, and paid good money for horses to which they took a fancy. A man who had a fine horse to sell, was once riding his steed among the mountains, when a dapper little gentleman stepped up, and examined it. He made the animal show his paces, and, after some haggling about the price, bought him. All this was well enough; but when the seller dismounted, the purchaser, having fixed himself in the saddle, sank through the earth with his bargain. The man who beheld all this, was somewhat startled, but as there was no mistake about the hard red gold which he had received from the fairy horseman, he put it in his pocket, and marched off.

The Brownies were singular beings, meagre, shaggy, and wild in their appearance. The Brownie, in the day-time, lurked in remote recesses of the old houses which he delighted to haunt, and in the night sedulously employed himself in discharging any laborious task which he thought might be acceptable to the family to whose service he had devoted himself. But, unlike a servant, he did not labor in the hope of wages: on the contrary, an offer of recompense, particu-

larly of food, drove this delicate gentleman away forever. He was fond of stretching himself at length before the fire, like a dog, and this appeared to give him the highest satisfaction. An amusing anecdote is told concerning this habit. A Brownie who had attached himself to a certain house, used to hover round the kitchen, uneasy if the servants sat up late, which prevented him from occupying his place upon the hearth. Sometimes the impatient Brownie appeared at the door, and admonished the servants in the following terms: "Gang a' to your beds, sirs, and dinna put out the wee grieshoch;" thus anglicized, "Go to your beds, all of you, and don't put out the few embers." The Brownie left the hearth at the first crow of the cock.

In this liking for a nap by the fire, the Brownie resembled Milton's lubber fiend, but the latter toiled for hire:

"How the drudging goblin sweat,
To earn his cream-bowl duly set,
When in one night, ere glimpse of morn,
His shadowy flail hath threshed the corn,
That ten day-laborers could not end;
Then lies him down the lubber fiend,
And, stretched out all the chimney's length,
Basks at the fire his hairy strength;
And cropful out of door he flings,
Ere the first cock his matin rings."

L'Allegro.

The last Brownie known in Ettrick Forest resided in Bodsbeck, a wild and solitary spot, where he exercised his functions undisturbed, till the scrupulous devotion of an old lady induced her to hire him away, as it was termed, by placing in his haunt a porringer of milk and a piece of money. This hint to depart he did not require to be repeated: all the night he was heard to howl and cry, "Farewell to bonny Bodsbeck," which before the dawn he had abandoned forever.

The inhabitants of Germany believe that there exists a race called the *Stille Volke*; 'the silent people.' To every family of eminence a family of the *Stille Volke* is attached, containing just as many members as the mortal family. When the lady of the mortal family becomes a mother, the queen of the *Stille Volke* enjoys the same blessing, and the silent people endeavor to ward off any injury which threatens those whom they protect.

It would be impossible to enumerate all the different sprites with which superstition has

filled the woods, waters, hills, and valleys of Europe. A few of the most agreeable elves have been touched upon. It is not worth while to present the dark features of a gloomy superstition. The Kelpies and the Wild Huntsmen have found no place in this sketch.

The legends of the Irish are generally gay, exhibiting the character of that poor but pleasant people. The Irish fairies are spruce little gentlemen and merry little ladies, who trip it away with blithe hearts and light footsteps upon their favorite and beautiful places of resort. Poor people delight to describe wealth and splendor which they do not possess, and, accordingly, in the tales of the Irish, the palaces of the "good people" are full of gold and brilliance.

FALCONER, WILLIAM, was born at Edinburgh in 1730, and brought up to the sea. An occurrence in his own life forms the groundwork of his fine poem, "The Shipwreck." He was lost at sea in 1769.

FALIERI, MARINO, Doge of Venice, in the fourteenth century, having, previously to his elevation, gained brilliant victories for the republic. Michael Steno, a young patrician, who conceived himself injured, revenged himself by some offensive lines directed against the honor of the doge's wife. For this he was only punished by a temporary confinement, and the doge, burning for deeper revenge, formed a plan for punishing the aristocracy and annihilating the power of the senate. This, however, was discovered, and Falieri put to death in 1355. Lord Byron and Casimir Delavigne have made this story the subject of powerful dramas.

FALKIRK, a town of Stirlingshire in Scotland, where the army of Scots commanded by Cumyn and Sir William Wallace, was defeated by Edward I. of England, July 22d, 1298. Between 20,000 and 40,000 of the Scotch were slain. A battle was fought at Falkirk, Jan. 18th, 1746, between the army of George II. and the adherents of Prince Charles Stuart, in which the latter were successful.

FALKLAND, LUCIUS CAREY, Viscount, was born in 1610. His juvenile irregularities were terminated by an early marriage with a young lady to whom he was sincerely attached. In parliament he distinguished himself by an independent course, although he

ultimately espoused the royal cause, and perished at the battle of Newbury, at the age of thirty-four. His private character endeared him to all. He was fond of study, and once observed, "I pity unlearned gentlemen on a rainy day." Lord Falkland was a high-minded patriot. Lord Clarendon eulogized him, as "a person of such prodigious parts of learning and knowledge, of that inimitable sweetness and delight in conversation, of so flowing and obliging a humanity and goodness to mankind, and of that primitive simplicity and integrity of life, that if there were no other brand upon this odious and accursed civil war than that single loss, it must be most infamous and execrable to all posterity."

FALKLAND ISLANDS, a group comprising two large and numerous small islands, mountainous and boggy, in the South Atlantic Ocean, east of the Straits of Magellan. The harbor of Port Louis is a convenient place of refit and refreshment for vessels rounding Cape Horn. They were discovered in 1592, and belong to Great Britain.

FAMINE in Egypt, which lasted seven years, 1708 B.C. At Rome, when many persons threw themselves into the Tiber, 436 B.C. In Britain, so that the inhabitants ate the barks of trees, 272 A.D. One in Scotland, where thousands were starved, 306. In England and Wales, where 40,000 were starved, 310. All over Britain, 325. At Constantinople, 446. In Italy, where parents ate their children, 450. In Scotland, 576. All over England, Wales, and Scotland, 739. Another in Wales, 747. In Wales and Scotland, 792. Again in Scotland, 803. Again in Scotland, when thousands were starved, 823. A severe one in Wales, 836. In Scotland, which lasted four years, 954. Famines in England, 864, 974, 976, 1005. Awful one throughout Europe, 1016. In Scotland, which lasted two years, 1047. In England, 1050, 1087. In England and France, leading to a pestilential fever, from 1193 to 1195. In England, 1251, 1315, 1335. During that of 1315, the people fed on horses, cats, and dogs. In England and France, called the dear summer, 1353. In England, 1438, so great that bread was made of fern root. In 1565 two millions were expended on the importation of corn. One in 1748. Another in 1795,

and in 1801. In the diocese of Dronheim, in Norway, in consequence of the intercepting of supplies by Sweden, 5,000 persons perished, 1813.

Scarcity of food was severely felt by the Irish poor, in 1814, 1816, 1822, and 1831. The failure of the potato crop in Ireland, in 1846 and the three following years, caused great want and suffering.

FANCOURT, SAMUEL, a dissenting minister of Salisbury, the first who opened a circulating library in London; he came to that city about 1740, and set up his library; died in poverty, 1768, aged ninety.

FARINELLO, an eminent Italian opera singer, died about 1780. In the time of Philip V. and Ferdinand VI. he was virtually premier in Spain.

FARQUHAR, GEORGE, an actor and soldier, but chiefly remarkable for the ability of his dramatic works, born in Londonderry, Ireland, in 1678, died in 1707. Poor Farquhar early married a woman who deceived him by pretending to be possessed of a fortune, and he sank a victim to over exertion. A letter written shortly before his death to Wilkes the actor, possesses a touching brevity of expression: "Dear Bob, I have not anything to leave thee to perpetuate my memory but two helpless girls. Look upon them sometimes, and think of him that was to the last moment of his life thine—GEORGE FARQUHAR."

FAUST, JOHN, a goldsmith of Mentz, to whom the invention of the art of printing has been attributed. He died in 1466.

FAUST, Doctor JOHN, a dealer in the black art, who lived in the fifteenth century. He was a student of Wittemberg, but abandoned theology for magic. This personage is often confounded with the preceding. He figures in many old romances and tales, English and German. The following is a sketch of one of these, "The History of the Damnable Life and Deserved Death of Doctor John Faustus." This romance is a translation from the German. It is filled "up to the blue" with magic and supernatural horrors, and acquires new interest from the fact it embodies the same old German tradition upon which Goethe founded his wild drama of Faust. Faustus is first introduced as a student of the university of Wittemberg, where

he is made doctor of divinity, but soon after gives himself up entirely to the study of the black art. He makes a compact with the devil, by which the latter is to serve him in all his desires for the space of twenty-four years, at the expiration of which he is to deliver himself up, body and soul, to the destroyer. This compact is written with his own blood, and straightway Mephistophiles becomes his familiar spirit. Generally speaking, this spirit is obedient to the wishes of Faustus, but when the doctor puts an improper question, or tries to do a good action, Mephistophiles dragoons him into propriety by a rabble rout of imps, or frightens him with a cock and a bull story about the other world, giving him a foretaste of the pleasant pastime of being "tossed upon pitchforks from one devil to another." On one occasion, in particular, a great procession of evil spirits came to torment him, in which procession Lucifer appears "in a manner of a man all hairy, but of a brown color like a squirrel, curled, and his tail turning upward on his back as the squirrels use. I think he could crack nuts too like a squirrel."

Then a minute action is given of Faustus's journey to Tartarus, and through the air, and among the planets, and afterward through the most famous kingdoms of the earth, whereby it appears that he, and not Columbus, was the discoverer of America. Of course the magic doctor was deeply read in all mysteries, and he certainly discourses wisely upon comets, and falling stars, and other marvels. One chapter relates "how Faustus was asked a question concerning thunder." His answer is certainly very luminous for a doctor in divinity and the black art. "It hath commonly been seen heretofore," says he, "that before a thunder-clap fell a shower of rain, or a gale of wind: for commonly after wind falleth rain, and after rain a thunder-clap, such thickness comes to pass when the four winds meet together in the heavens, the airy clouds are by force beaten against the fixed crystal firmament, but when the airy clouds meet with the firmament, they are congealed, and so strike, and rush against the firmament, as great pieces of ice when they meet on the waters; then each other sounded in our ears; and that we call thunder." Afterward

comes a series of the doctor's merry conceits, showing how he practiced necromancy; how he transported three young dukes through the air from Wittenberg to Munich; and how one of them fell from the magic cloak on which they sailed through the air, and was left behind at Munich, being "stricken into an exceeding dumps." We are also told how he pawned his leg to a Jew; how he ate a load of hay, and how he cheated a horse-jockey, and conjured the wheels from a clown's wagon, with many other wonders of a similar nature. And finally, we are informed that, at the end of the appointed time, the evil one came for him between twelve and one o'clock at night, and after dashing his brains out against the wall, left his body in the yard, "most monstrously torn and fearful to behold."

FAWKES, Guy, the principal agent in the gunpowder plot, in the reign of James I., who, being discovered, and having betrayed his accomplices to the number of eighty, was executed in 1606. [See GUNPOWDER PLOT.]

FENELON, FRANÇOIS DE SALIGNAC DE LA MORTE, the venerable Archbishop of Cambray, was born in 1651. He preached at the age of fifteen with success, and was appointed Archbishop of Cambray in 1694. He had great success in converting the Huguenots, but it was by means of mild persuasion and not of infuriate threats. He superintended the education of the Dukes of Burgundy, Anjou, and Berri, the grandsons of Louis XIV. Fenelon died in 1715. His literary productions are numerous, but his most celebrated work is "*Les Aventures de Télémaque*," which inculcates a pure system of morality in a pleasing and interesting manner.

FERDINAND V., surnamed the Catholic, son of John II. of Arragon, was born in 1453. He married Isabella, Queen of Castile, and thus arose the united kingdom of Spain. In ten years he conquered the Moors of Grenada, and expelled them from Spain in 1492. He acquired Naples and Navarre, and during his reign America was discovered by Columbus. He died in 1516 of the dropsy. His policy was despotic, and his character was stained by the introduction of the Inquisition.

FERGUSON, JAMES, a self-taught experimental philosopher, mechanist, and astronomer, was born in Keith in 1710. While a shepherd, he watched the stars by night, and at an early age constructed a celestial globe. For some years he supported himself in Edinburgh by his talents as a miniature painter. In 1763 he was chosen member of the Royal Society. He died in 1776.

FERRARA, a duchy in upper Italy, for a long time ruled by the house of Este, now forming part of the States of the Church.

FESCH, JOSEPH, Cardinal, the maternal uncle of Napoleon Bonaparte, and Archbishop of Lyons, was born at Ajaccio, in 1763, and died in 1839.

FEUDAL or FEODAL LAWS, the tenure of land, by suit and service, to the lord or owner of it, introduced into England by the Saxons about 600. The slavery of this tenure was increased under William I., 1068, who, dividing the kingdom into baronies, gave them to certain persons, and required these persons to furnish the king with money and a stated number of soldiers. The feudal system was discountenanced in France by Louis XI. about 1470; was limited in England by Henry VII., in 1495; but abolished by statute, 12th Charles II., 1663. Clanship was introduced into Scotland by Malcolm II. in 1008, and finally broken up by statute in 1746.

FEZZAN, anciently Phazania, is a country of Africa, south of Tripoli. No exact estimate of the population has been made. It perhaps amounts to rather more than 26,000. Fezzan is the largest oasis in the great desert. It is now a Turkish pachalic.

FICHTE, JOHANN GOTTLIEB, an eminent German thinker, was born in Upper Lusatia, May 19th, 1762, and died Jan. 21st, 1814.

FIELDING, HENRY, one of the earliest and greatest English novelists, was born at Sharpham Park, Somersetshire, April 22d, 1707. He was a great-grandson of the Earl of Denbigh. The Earls of Denbigh derived their origin from the house of Hapsburgh, which supplied emperors to Germany and kings to Spain. Gibbon used this fact to point his eulogy upon the novelist, who had won for himself a more durable glory than that of noble birth: "The successors of Charles V. may disdain their brethren of

England; but the romance of 'Tom Jones,' that exquisite picture of human manners, will outlive the palace of the Escurial and the imperial eagle of the house of Austria." Henry's father served under Marlborough and rose to the rank of lieutenant-general; his mother was a daughter of Mr. Justice Gould. The general had a large family and was a bad economist; Henry was educated at Eton and Leyden, where he studied diligently; and then at twenty-one he was thrown upon his own resources. He came to London, and, as he said, must "become a hackney writer or a hackney coachman." He lived precariously by writing poor pieces for the stage. In 1736 he married Miss Cradock, who had beauty and £1500, and inherited from his mother an estate in Dorsetshire worth £200 a year. In Dorsetshire he lived dashingly and in three years was penniless. Then dramatic writing again, political pamphleteering, an attempt to subsist as a barrister, and failures as a journalist; till in 1742 he published "Joseph Andrews," which he wrote in ridicule of Richardson's "Pamela." The revels and good fellowship of which he was so fond brought gout upon him, and he suffered severely from that and poverty. His wife, who was his model for his heroines, died, and he was whelmed in grief. Her maid was almost broken-hearted at the loss of so good a mistress. The bond of sympathy became a stronger one, and Fielding made the maid his wife. Poverty forced him to accept, in December, 1748, what was then considered the degrading office of Bow-street magistrate, the duties of which he honorably discharged. "Tom Jones," that master-piece among English novels, was published in February, 1749, and "Amelia" in 1751. His constitution was shattered; dropsy, jaundice, and asthma had seized him; and his physicians warned him to seek a warmer clime. He sailed for Lisbon, and died there October 8th, 1754, in the forty-eighth year of his age.

The dissipation and errors of Fielding's life are not to be palliated, but through them all shines a noble and kindly nature. "Tom Jones" has been pronounced the best novel in the language. This, and Fielding's other tales, though touched by the grossness of the time, display inimitable wit, wisdom, humor,

and are wonderful for their truth to life and yet the raciest originality.

FIFTH MONARCHY MEN. These were fanatical enthusiasts who arose in the time of Oliver Cromwell, and believed the day was at hand when Jesus should descend from heaven, and erect the fifth universal monarchy. Cromwell dispersed them in 1653.

FINGAL, an ancient chieftain of Morven, a province of Caledonia, born in 282. He was the determined enemy of the Romans, and is celebrated by Ossian, who represents him as his father.

FISHER, Joun, Bishop of Rochester, was born in 1459. He was eminent for his learning and virtues, a firm adherent to the church of Rome, and, like Sir Thomas More, would not sanction Henry's divorce of Queen Catherine. The king threw him into the Tower. While in prison the pope made him a cardinal, which drew from the king the brutal remark, "Well, let the pope send him a hat when he will: mother of God! he shall wear it on his shoulders then, for I will leave him never a head to set it on." After a twelvemonth of confinement, Fisher was executed, June 22d, 1535.

FITCH, JOHN, was born in East Windsor, Conn., in 1743. In 1785 he conceived the project of propelling a vessel by the force of condensed vapor. By unwearied exertion he succeeded in raising the means to build a rude steamboat in 1787. It was tried at Philadelphia, and sailed eight miles an hour. Poor and obscure, he had not the money to perfect his invention as he wished. There is reason to believe that Fulton had access to his plans at a later date. In a letter to Mr. Rittenhouse in 1792, Fitch said, "This, sir, will be the mode of crossing the Atlantic in time, whether I shall bring it to perfection or not." People thought him crazy. His life had been rife with perplexities and disappointments; he sought solace in strong drink, and finally plunged into the Alleghany River near Pittsburg in 1798.

FLANDERS, formerly a province of the Austrian Netherlands, now forming the Belgic provinces of East and West Flanders. East Flanders contains 781,000 inhabitants; West Flanders 627,000. Both parts are extremely fertile, and the Flemings are extensively employed in manufactures. The

Franks seized upon Flanders about 412, and in 864 it was granted to Baldwin I., with the title of Count of Flanders, the sovereignty being reserved to France. The country, by the marriage of Philip, Duke of Burgundy, with Margaret, daughter of Lewis de Malatin, Earl of Flanders, in 1369, came to the house of Burgundy; and it passed to the house of Austria by the marriage of Mary, daughter and heiress of Charles the Bold, to Maximilian, Emperor of Germany. Still the sovereignty was in France till 1525, when Charles V., taking Francis I. prisoner at Pavia, released it from that servitude. In 1556, Charles resigned these territories to his son Philip, King of Spain. Flanders shook off the Spanish yoke in 1572. In 1725, by the treaty of Vienna, it was annexed to the German empire. The whole of this country was conquered by the French in 1794; but only part of it now remains in their possession, forming the French department of Nord. [*See* BELGIUM.]

FLEETWOOD, CHARLES, a parliamentary general in the civil wars, the son of Sir William Fleetwood, knight, cup-bearer to James I. and Charles I., and comptroller of Woodstock park. In 1644, the subject of this article was made colonel of horse and governor of Bristol. He was afterward raised to the rank of lieutenant-general, and had a share in the defeat of Charles II. at Worcester. On the death of Ireton, Fleetwood married his widow, and being now related to Cromwell, was appointed deputy of Ireland, in which place he was succeeded by Cromwell's younger son, Henry. Fleetwood joined in deposing Richard, and after the restoration he became one of the council of state, and commander-in-chief of the forces, but afterward retired to private life at Stoke Newington, where he died soon after.

FLETCHER, ANDREW, commonly called Fletcher of Saltoun, was born in 1653. He was distinguished by learning and eloquence, by courage, disinterestedness, and public spirit, but of an irritable and impracticable temper. Like many of his most illustrious contemporaries (Milton, for example, Harrington, Marvel, and Sidney), Fletcher, from the misgovernment of several successive

princes, conceived a strong aversion to hereditary monarchy; yet he was no democrat. He was the head of an ancient Norman house, and was proud of his descent. He was a fine speaker and a fine writer, and proud of his intellectual superiority. Both in his character of gentleman and in his character of scholar, he looked down with disdain on the common people, and was so little disposed to intrust them with political power that he thought them unfit even to enjoy personal freedom. It is a curious circumstance that this man, the most honest, fearless, and uncompromising republican of his time, should have been the author of a plan for reducing a large part of the working classes of Scotland to slavery. He bore, in truth, a lively resemblance to those Roman senators who, while they hated the name of king, guarded the privileges of their order with inflexible pride against the encroachments of the multitude, and governed their bondmen and bondwomen by means of the stocks and the scourge.—*Macaulay*.

He opposed the arbitrary measures of the Duke of York in Scotland; his estate was confiscated, and he fled to the Continent. He came to England with the Duke of Monmouth in the rebellion of 1685, and was appointed to command the cavalry of the expedition. Fletcher was ill mounted; and, indeed, there were few chargers in the camp which had not been taken from the plough. Ordered upon a sudden and important service, he thought that the exigency of the case warranted him in borrowing, without asking permission, a fine horse belonging to Dare, the mayor of Lynn, who had joined the revolt. Dare resented this liberty, and assailed Fletcher with gross abuse. Fletcher kept his temper better than any who knew him expected. At last Dare, presuming on the patience with which his insolence was endured, ventured to shake a switch at the high-born and high-spirited Scot. Fletcher's blood boiled. He drew a pistol and shot Dare dead. Such sudden and violent revenge would not have been thought strange in Scotland, where the law had always been weak; where he who did not right himself by the strong hand was not likely to be righted at all; and where, consequently, human life was held almost as cheap as in the worst governed provinces of Italy. But

the people of the southern part of the island were not accustomed to see deadly weapons used and blood spilled on account of a rude word or a gesture, except in duel between gentlemen with equal arms. There was a general cry for vengeance on the foreigner who had murdered an Englishman. Monmouth could not resist the clamor. Fletcher, who, when his first burst of rage had spent itself, was overwhelmed with remorse and sorrow, escaped to the Continent, and repaired to Hungary, where he fought bravely against the common enemy of Christendom. To Monmouth's cause this was a serious loss, but the event was fortunate for Fletcher, since he was saved from the dangerous fate to which the insurrection came. He returned to England with William of Orange, became prominent in the political affairs of Scotland, and died in 1716. In one of Fletcher's pamphlets, occurs the memorable saying, "I knew a very wise man that believed that if a man were permitted to make all the ballads, he need not care who should make the laws of a nation."

FLETCHER, JOHN, son to the Bishop of London, a famous dramatic writer, born in 1576, died of the plague in 1625. [*See BEAUMONT AND FLETCHER.*]

FLEURUS or **FLERUS**; a town of Belgium, in the province of Hainault, on the Sambre, six miles north-east of Charleroi. Four battles have been fought here. In 1622 the troops of Spain and Germany were matched against each other. In 1690 the French defeated the allies here with great loss. June 17th, 1794, the French under Jourdan gained a complete victory over the Austrians and allies, and it was on this occasion that aerostation was found to be of practical use. Coutel, the chief of the aerostatic corps, ascended with a general and adjutant, in a balloon of great size, hovered over the enemy, and reconnoitered their works. The information thus gained was conveyed to the French by means of signal flags. During the process of inflation, the fire of a battery was opened upon the assistants, and as the balloon ascended for the first time, a cannon-ball passed between its neck and the gondola. Soon, however, the daring aeronauts attained a safe elevation, and could see beneath them the then harmless cannon fruitlessly dis-

charging their shot into the upper air. The fourth battle, called the battle of Ligny, was fought June 16th, 1815, between the Prussians and French, and was desperately contested. [*See LIGNY.*]

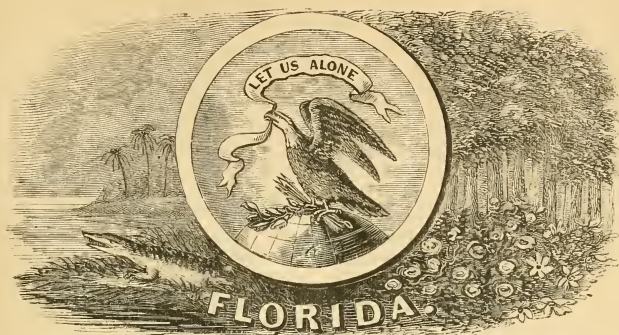
FLEURY, ANDRE HERCULE DE, Cardinal, preceptor to Louis XV., became prime minister on the disgrace and fall of his rival, the Duke of Bourbon. His administration was conducted with great skill and address; commerce and industry flourished under him, and he had the fortune to conciliate the differences between the courts of London and Madrid. He died in extreme age in 1743.

FLODDEN FIELD, BATTLE OF. James IV. of Scotland took part with Louis XII. of France against Henry VIII. of England, and this battle between the English and Scotch, Sept. 9th, 1513, was the result. James, most of his nobles, and 10,000 of his army, were slain, while the English, whom the Earl of Surrey commanded, sustained only insignificant loss.

FLORIAN, a French dramatic writer, novelist, and fabulist, married a niece of Voltaire. He was a member of the French academy, and died Sept. 13th, 1794.

FLORIDA, one of these United States, has an area of 59,268 square miles, and in 1860 had 140,425 inhabitants, of whom 61,745 were slaves, and 932 free colored persons. It consists of a narrow strip between Georgia and Alabama, and the Gulf of Mexico, with a vast peninsula which sunders that gulf from the Atlantic. The southern part of this peninsula is low and flat, being mostly covered with swamps called everglades. In the north the surface of the country is in some parts slightly undulating, and the surface west of the neck of the peninsula is somewhat more uneven. Among the everglades are numerous tracts of pine land, prairies, and hummocks, and these with some marshes mark the northern part. The soil is generally sand, except in the hummocks, where it is clay mixed with sand: these are scattered throughout the country, varying in extent from a few acres to a thousand, and forming altogether but an inconsiderable portion of the peninsula; they are covered with a growth of oak, dog-wood, magnolia, and pine, and afford excellent arable land.

FLO



The prairies, or savannahs, are often miles in extent, fine natural pastures for great herds of cattle. The barrens are overgrown with forests of pine, with little underwood. The swamps are either formed by the inundation of the rivers, which, overflowing their high wooded banks, flood the low lands in the rear, or by the drainage of the surrounding region: the latter or pine-barren swamps are overgrown with cypress, and the river swamps are covered with a heavy growth of timber. The substratum of the eastern part of the peninsula is clay mixed with sand, but that of the western is a rotten limestone, undermined in many places by subterraneous streams, forming cavities called sinks. Connected with the same rock formation is the bursting forth of numerous springs so copiously as to form at once full-grown rivers. Indeed, they rather seem to be eruptions of subterraneous streams, suddenly emerging from dark labyrinths underneath, through which they have long crept. The central district of Florida is the finest tract. Here are many pine barrens, but among them are gentle eminences of fertility, supporting a vigorous growth of oaks and hickories, while numerous streams flow through the country or expand into beautiful lakes. Travelers have described the water in these rivers and lakes as so pellucid that the boat seems floating in the air. The warmth and humidity of the climate compensate for the poverty of the soil, and give it a vegetation of great variety and luxuriance. Majestic forests abound with game, and give

a peculiar and picturesque appearance. Intermixed with the dark glossy leaves of the oaks appear flowers of the most vivid and varied colors. Groves of magnolias cover immense tracts, bending beneath the weight of their snowy blossoms, and fill the air with perfume. The exportation of timber is a great source of the wealth of Florida. Cotton, sugar, and tobacco are the other staple exports. Tropical fruits flourish and flavor excellently. The long coast line of Florida is so dotted with keys and banks that there are few available harbors. The mild winters make it much resorted to by those afflicted with pulmonary disorders.

Florida was discovered in 1512, by Juan Ponce de Leon, in his famous search after the fabulous fountain of youth, which was to restore health and beauty to the aged, on Palm Sunday (*Pascua Florida*), and hence the name. The French and Spaniards long made it the theatre of contest, but at length the Spaniards were established in the town and fort of St. Augustine. In 1763 Florida was ceded to Great Britain, in exchange for the island of Cuba. In 1781 the Spaniards conquered West Florida, and by the peace of 1783, Great Britain relinquished both provinces to Spain. Spain reluctantly ceded it to the United States in 1820, and in 1845 it was admitted as a state. The most important event in its recent history is the war against the Seminoles from 1835 to 1842. The greater portion of the tribe have been removed beyond the Mississippi.

The general assembly, consisting of two houses, meets biennially on the fourth Monday of November. The governor is chosen by the people for four years, and is ineligible for the succeeding term. The right of suffrage belongs to every free white male citizen aged twenty-one or more, who has resided in the state for two years, and the county six months. Florida seceded from the Union, Jan. 10, 1861. Her important island positions, however, at Key West, Fort Jefferson on the Tortugas, and Fort Pickens on Santa Rosa Island, opposite Pensacola, which together command the Gulf of Mexico, were fortunately retained to the Union. The state suffered comparatively little by the war.

Tallahassee is the capital. Pensacola has one of the safest and most roomy harbors on the gulf: the government has a navy-yard here. St. Augustine is the oldest town in the United States, having been settled by the Spaniards almost fifty years before the English reared their huts at Jamestown in Virginia. South of Florida, a chain of small rocky islands, called Keys from the Spanish *cayo*, extend to the westward. South of the bank upon which the Keys rise, and separated from them by a navigable channel, is a long narrow coral ledge, known as the Florida Reef. The most important of the Keys is Key West, a corruption of *Cayo Hueso*, 'Bone Key.' Long the haunt of wreckers, smugglers, and pirates, its reputation of late years has improved. It is six miles long by two in breadth, with a large and well sheltered harbor. Sponges are gathered, turtles and their eggs collected on the neighboring keys, and salt made by evaporation. Wrecking is the most important business, for the neighboring reefs are rife with disaster.

FLOYD, WILLIAM, the first delegate from New York that signed the Declaration of Independence, was born on Long Island, Dec. 17th, 1734. He was a lawyer. An opulent landed proprietor, he was one who like Charles Carroll set his all at stake, and his property was laid waste by the British troops. Having commanded the militia of Long Island during the war, and served as representative in the first federal congress, he removed to a farm on the Mohawk River in 1803, where he died Aug. 4th, 1821, at the age of eighty-seven.

FOLARD, Chevalier CHARLES DE, a celebrated tactician, born at Avignon in 1669. He was aid-de-camp under the Duke de Vendome in 1702, was wounded in the battle of Cassano, and made prisoner at Blenheim. He next served against the Turks, and then entered into the service of Charles XII., during the latter part of his career. He died at Avignon, in 1752.

FONTAINE, JEAN DE LA, one of the most distinguished literary men in the reign of Louis XIV., born in 1621. Fontaine was educated at Rheims, and went to Paris, where he lived in habits of intimacy with the wits of the age. He died at Paris, in 1695, aged seventy-four. The most simple of men in private life, his writings exhibit great shrewdness and knowledge of mankind. His early works are tainted with licentiousness. He is best known by his "Fables."

FONTAINEBLEAU, a town of France, thirteen leagues south-east of Paris, where is a splendid palace. It is famous, in diplomatic history, as the place where several treaties have been concluded. It was here that Napoleon signed his first abdication, April 5th, 1814, and bade an affectionate farewell to his devoted troops.

FONTENELLE, BERNARD LE BOVIER DE, a distinguished French savant, author of "Plurality of Words," born 1657, and lived to January, 1757, nearly one hundred years. His mother was a sister of the celebrated Cornille.

FONTENOY, a village of Belgium, where the French, headed by Count Saxe, defeated the English, Hanoverians, Dutch, and Austrians, under the command of the Duke of Cumberland, April 30th (May 11th), 1745. The battle was fought with great obstinacy, and the carnage on both sides was considerable. Count Saxe, who was at the time ill of the disorder of which he afterward died, was borne about in a litter, encouraging his soldiers.

FOOTE, SAMUEL, a comic dramatist and actor, born at Truro, Cornwall, in 1721, died at Dover, in October, 1777. He was a great mimic and a man of wit. A gentleman, who was the fortunate possessor of some fine Constantia wine, after praising its good qualities, invited Foote to taste. A very small bottle was produced, together with a very

small glass, which the niggardly host half filled. The wag swallowed this immediately. "Well, Foote," said his entertainer, "what do you think of that? It is forty-seven years old." "What do I think?" replied Foote; "why, sir, I think it's very little for its age."

FORD, JOHN, one of the finest of the old English dramatists, was born in 1586, and died in 1639.

FOSTER, JOHN, an original and vigorous essayist, was born in 1770, and died in 1843. He was a Baptist clergyman in England.

FOUCHE, JOSEPH, the famous minister of police under Bonaparte, was born at Nantes in 1763. At the beginning of the revolution he distinguished himself by violent harangues, and was sent to the national convention in 1792, where he attached himself to Marat and voted for the death of Louis XVI. During the reign of terror, Fouché was active in spoliation and atrocity. When Robespierre fell, Fouché shared in his odium, and withdrew from the scene for a couple of years. Under the directory he came forth, and was successively ambassador to Milan, to Holland, and minister of police. This latter post was the one for which Fouché was fitted both by nature and his career. He carried espionage to an almost fabulous perfection. At the creation of the empire Napoleon made him Duke of Otranto. After the battle of Waterloo he advised the abdication of Napoleon, and at the same time made his own peace with the Bourbons. His services were retained some time by Louis XVIII., but he soon went as ambassador to Dresden. The general law of 1816 against all regicides deprived him of this last post, and after traveling awhile in Germany, he settled at Trieste. He died in 1820, leaving a fortune estimated at \$2,500,000.

FOUQUIER-TINVILLE, ANTHONY QUENTIN, an attorney, born in 1747, rendered his name infamous during the French revolution. He obtained from Robespierre the post of public accuser, but was put to death as one of the revolutionary tribunal, May 7th, 1795.

FOURIER, CHARLES, the distinguished social philosopher, was born at Besancon in 1772; died in Paris, 1837.

FOX, CHARLES JAMES, second son of Henry

Fox, the first Lord Holland, was born Jan. 14th, 1748. His mother was Lady Caroline Lennox, daughter of the Duke of Richmond, who was a grandson of Charles II., and so very proud of his sinister origin that neither he nor his duchess could consent that their daughter should wed Lord Holland, whose father Sir Stephen had been a singing-boy in a cathedral, while she was a great-granddaughter of Louise de Querouaille, the 'Popish mistress.' They commanded her to wed elsewhere, and an evening was set for the gentleman's formal introduction as hersuitor. Lady Caroline, that afternoon, completed her toilet by shaving her eye-brows! The ducal parents were very wroth, but it was plain she could not be presented to a new lover in that plight. Before morning she had eloped with Lord Holland. The match was happy. Lord Holland was a queer one. Thus, one day, Master Charles James very earnestly insisted upon smashing his watch just for the fun of it. "Well, if you must, I suppose you must," said papa; and the watch was smashed. The father is said to have lured the son to play, and at a later day paid up his gaming debts with £140,000. Play was a blemish of the age, and did not spare Fox: yet while in office, we are told, he never touched a card; and when at last his political friends wiped out the score against him, he abandoned the wretched habit altogether.

He received his education at Eton, where he distinguished himself by his classical exercises. From that seminary he removed to Hertford College, Oxford, after which he went on his travels. In 1768 he was returned to parliament for Midhurst. In 1770 he was appointed a commissioner of the admiralty, which place he resigned in 1772, and soon after obtained a place at the treasury board. Some differences arising between him and Lord North, he was dismissed in 1774, and from that time Fox assumed the character of a whig.

Almost the whole of his political life was spent in opposition. In vehemence and power of argument he resembled Demosthenes; but there the resemblance ended. He possessed a strain of ridicule and wit, which nature denied to the Athenian; and it was the more powerful, as it always ap-

peared to be blended with argument, and to result from it. To the perfect composition which so eminently distinguished the speeches of Demosthenes, he had no pretense. He was heedless of method; having the complete command of good words, he never sought for better; if those which occurred expressed his meaning clearly and forcibly, he paid little attention to their arrangement or harmony. The moment of his grandeur was when, after he had stated the argument of his adversary, with much greater strength than his adversary had done, and with much greater than any of his hearers thought possible, he seized it with the strength of a giant, and tore and trampled on it to destruction. If, at this moment, he had possessed the power of the Athenian over the passions or the imaginations of his hearers, he might have disposed of the house at his pleasure; but this was denied to him; and, on this account, his speeches fell very short of the effect which otherwise they must have produced.

In 1780 he was elected for Westminster, which, with a slight interruption, he continued to represent to his death. When the Rockingham party came into power, Mr. Fox was appointed secretary of state for foreign affairs. On the dissolution of this administration, by the death of the chief, a coalition was formed between Mr. Fox and Lord North, who, with their respective adherents, came again into office in 1783. The introduction of the India bill occasioned their final dismissal the same year. In 1788 Mr. Fox traveled, but while in Italy he was recalled in consequence of the king's insanity. On this great occasion, he maintained that the Prince of Wales had a right to assume the regency, which was opposed by Mr. Pitt and the parliament. The next remarkable event in the public life of Mr. Fox was the part he took with regard to the French revolution. That change he hailed as a blessing, while Burke denounced it as a curse; and this difference of sentiment produced a schism between them which was never repaired. On the death of Mr. Pitt, in 1806, Mr. Fox came again into office, as secretary of state; but he died of dropsy, Sept. 13th, 1806. His remains were interred in Westminster Abbey.

FOX, GEORGE, the founder of the society of Friends or Quakers, was the son of a weaver at Drayton in Leicestershire, and born in 1624. The shoemaker to whom he was indentured, traded also in wool and cattle, and George spent many of his hours in tending flocks, an employment which fostered his bent for musing and solitude. His communings finally wrought him to that religious enthusiasm in which he fancied himself receiving messages from on high. An impressive passage in his "Journal" has been paraphrased in Tennyson's "Two Voices." "One morning, as I was sitting by the fire, a great cloud came over me, and a temptation beset me, and I sate still. And it was said, All things come by nature; and the Elements and Stars came over me, so that I was in a moment quite clouded with it; but inasmuch as I sate still, and said nothing, the people of the house perceived nothing. And as I sate still under it, and let it alone, a living hope arose in me which cried, There is a living God who made all things. And immediately the cloud and temptation vanished away, and the life rose over it all, and my heart was glad, and I praised the living God." Conceiving himself divinely commissioned to convert his countrymen from their sins, he began about 1647 to travel through the country, and harangue at the market-places upon the vices of the age. He had formed the opinions that a learned education is unnecessary to a minister; that the existence of a separate clerical profession is unwarranted by the Bible; that the Creator of the world is not a dweller in temples made with hands; and that "the light of Christ within" is a rule of duty superior to the Scriptures. He believed that he was divinely commanded to abstain from taking off his hat to any one in homage; to use the words 'thee' and 'thou' in addressing all persons; to bid nobody good-morrow or good-night; and never to bend his knee to any one in authority, or take an oath, even on the most solemn occasion. He sometimes entered churches during service, and was moved to interrupt the clergymen by vociferous contradiction. By such breaches of order, and such rude speech as "Come down, thou deceiver," he naturally gave great offense, which sometimes led to long imprisonment, and sometimes to severe handling by the populace.

His sect became numerous. At Derby Fox admonished the justice and those with him to tremble at the word of the Lord: the justice called him a quaker (whence the name arose), and threw him into a dungeon for a year. Fox visited Ireland, the American colonies, and many parts of Europe, and died in London in 1690, worn down by the toils and hardships his zeal had brought upon him.

FOX, JOHN, a pious Protestant, was born at Boston, England, in 1517. His renunciation of popery lost him his fellowship at Oxford, and for a time he was much straitened for the wherewithal of life. After the accession of Elizabeth his fortune was easier. He died in 1587. He is best known for his "Book of Martyrs."

FRANCE has an area of 203,736 square miles; population in 1861, 37,472,132. The Pyrenees separate it from Spain, the Alps from Italy, the Jura mountains from Switzerland, the Rhine from the duchy of Baden, but the rest of the frontier is conventional, and has often varied with the fortunes of war. France has ever been considered one of the most agricultural countries of the continent; yet the husbandry is often rude, and the implements used ancient and clumsy. The great division of property arising from the law of equal distribution among all the children at the demise of the parents, lessens the size of the farms. The northern part is the best tilled. The ordinary grains are grown, and in the southerly portions, maize, the vine, the mulberry, and the olive flourish. Beet-root is extensively grown for the manufacture of sugar. The basins of the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Upper Loire are the most distinguished for their mulberry plantations and the produce of silk. The vintage is among the chief harvests of France; the average yearly produce of the vineyards is 924,000,000 gallons, of which about one-seventh is distilled into brandy.

France was anciently divided into thirty-three provinces of very unequal extent: Artois, Picardy, Champagne, Lorraine, Alsace, Franche Comte, Burgundy, Orleans, Isle of France, Perche, Normandy, Brittany, Maine, Anjou, Touraine, Berri, Nivernois, Bourbon, Lyonnais, Auvergne, Marche, Poitou, Aunis, Saintonge, Angoumois, Limousin, Guienne,

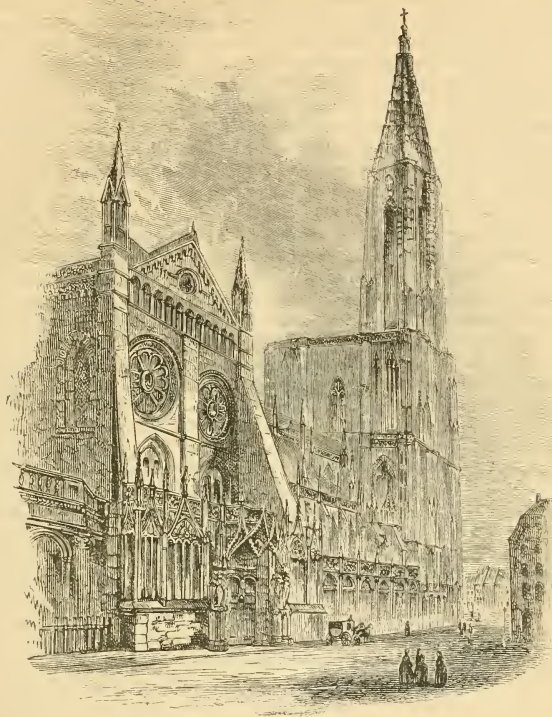
Gascony, Bearn, Foix, Rousillon, Languedoc, Dauphiny, and Provence. But since the revolution it has been divided into eighty-six departments. The departments formed from the six northern provinces are the department of the North, Pas-de-Calais, Somme, Lower Seine, Eure, Calvados, Manche, Orne, Seine, Seine-et-Oise, Seine-et-Marne, Oise, Aisne, Aube, Upper Marne, Marne, and Ardennes. The departments formed from the six provinces of the east are Meurthe, Moselle, Meuse, Vosges, Lower Rhine, Upper Rhine, Doubs, Upper Saône, Jura, Côte-d'or, Yonne, Saône-et-Loire, Ain, Rhone, Loire, Iserè, Drôme, Upper Alps. The departments formed from the seven provinces of the south are the Mouths of the Rhone, Lower Alps, Var, Upper Garonne, Tarn, Aude, Hérault, Gard, Lozère, Upper Loire, Ardèche, Eastern Pyrenées, Ariège, Lower Pyrenées, Gironde, Dordogne, Lot-et-Garonne, Lot, Aveyron, Tarn-et-Garonne, Landes, Gers, Upper Pyrenées, Corsica. The departments formed from the six provinces of the west are Charente, Lower Charente, Vienne, Deux-Sevres, Vendée, Maine-et-Loire, Ille-et-Vilaine, Côtes-du-Nord, Finistère, Morbihan, Lower Loire, Sarthe, Mayenne. The departments formed from the eight central provinces are Loiret, Eure-et-Loir, Loir-et-Cher, Indre-et-Loire, Cher, Indre, Nièvre, Allier, Creuse, Upper Vienne, Corrèze, Puy-de-Dôme, Cantal, and Vauluse. These departments are each administered by a prefect. They are subdivided into arrondissements, and these again into cantons and communes.

Paris, the metropolis of France, is the subject of a separate article. Lyons, at the confluence of the Saone and Rhone, capital of the department of Rhone, is the second city in the empire; population over 318,803. It was founded by the Romans, B.C. 42. In a single night, A.D. 59, the town was laid in ashes by fires from lightning. It was rebuilt by the aid of Nero, to whom the citizens adhered in his downfall. In 1793, the people of Lyons rose against the tyranny of the Jacobins. An army was sent by the convention to put them down, and the city sustained a siege for two months. After its surrender thousands of the inhabitants were massacred by the terrorists under Collot d'Herbois, and all the principal edifices were demolished. In

the spring of 1814, several severe actions took place in the neighborhood, between the French and Austrians. On the return of Napoleon from Elba, in March, 1815, he was received here with acclamation. Lyons is a place of much traffic, and its manufactures are the most important in France. Its silks, for texture, hue, and beauty, are not equaled in the world. In their manufacture half the population are directly or indirectly concerned. Marseilles, on the Mediterranean, is the third city of the empire, and capital of the department of Bouches-du-Rhone; population, 260,910 in 1861. A Grecian settlement was made here as early as B.C. 600. Cicero styled it the Athens of Gaul. Having embraced the cause of Pompey, it was taken by Cæsar, B.C. 49, after a long siege. During the thirteenth century it freed itself from feudal subjection and became a municipal republic. It came under the permanent dominion of the French crown in 1482. The prosperity of Marseilles is due to its extensive commerce. Its safe harbor, in which fly the flags of all nations, is formed by a small inlet of the sea, running into the heart of the city, which is built around it. Bordeaux, an important port, the capital of the former province of Guienne, and of the present department of Gironde, sits on the left bank of the Garonne, and contains 162,750 inhabitants. It is a city of great antiquity, and distinguished for its gloomy splendor. It has some magnificent churches. Its academy of sciences has a library of 128,000 volumes. The Romans called this place *Burdigala*. In the fifth century it was in the blighting hands of the Goths, and later it was pillaged and burned by the Normans. When Louis VII. married Eleanor, daughter of the last Duke of Guienne, it fell into the hands of the French. When that princess was repudiated, it, with all the south-east of France, came into the hands of the Duke of Normandy, afterward Henry II. of England, her second husband. It was restored to France under Charles VII. in 1451. During the revolution it was devastated by the terrorists, as being the seat of the Girondists. Bonaparte's continental system bore heavily upon the trade of the inhabitants of Bordeaux, and accordingly they willingly declared themselves in favor of the Bourbons, March 12th, 1814. Wine, brandy,

and fruits are the great articles of export from Bordeaux. The finest clarets are from this part of France. Havre (population 74,336), at the mouth of the Seine, is an important port. One of the most interesting towns in France is Rouen, a little higher on the Seine; population 102,649. Its ancient name was *Rotomagus*. It was the capital of the duchy of Normandy. It was besieged by the English under Henry V. in 1418, and resolutely defended by Alain Blanchard, with 4,000 men. Famine, after five months, compelled the garrison to surrender, and Henry soiled his fame by the execution of the brave Blanchard. For thirty years the English held the town, and here in 1431 they burnt Joan of Arc. The tall, narrow houses of old Rouen are often highly picturesque, and curious for their rich carvings and quaint Gothic ornaments. The noble cruciform cathedral, whose spire springs 433 feet toward the sky, and the still purer Gothic church of St. Ouen, are objects of note in this ancient town. Rouen ranks next to Lyons among the manufacturing towns of France, and is a great seat of the cotton manufacture.

The cathedral of Strasburg is yet more beautiful than that of Rouen. It was founded in 1015, and not completed till 1439. The spire, the loftiest in the world, rises 466 feet above the pavement; at the outset a similar spire was intended to rise over the south portal. The airy grace of the architecture, the beauty of the sculptured ornaments, and the richness of the many-hued windows, place this ancient pile among the foremost grandeurs of Gothic art. Strasburg (population 82,014) is on the left bank of the arrowy Rhine, and the chief town of fruitful Alsace. German is the language of the common people in this part of France, though French is generally understood. By the fortifications and citadel of Louis XIV., Strasburg was made one of the strongest places in Europe. At Rheims is another ancient cathedral of great beauty. Before its altar the kings of France have been crowned for centuries, and at its font Clovis, the founder of the monarchy, was baptized from paganism into the Christian church. Rheims has some 44,000 inhabitants, and extensive woolen manufactures; yet it is a dull old town, and its wide streets are grass-grown for the lack of bustle. Caen



CATHEDRAL OF NOTRE DAME AT STRASBURG.

was anciently the capital of lower Normandy, and the favorite residence of William the Conqueror, who was buried in the *Abbaye-aux-Hommes*, which he built. Caen was taken and plundered by Edward III. of England, who met with a desperate resistance. "The town was then," says Froissart, "large, strong, and full of drapery and all other sorts of merchandise, rich citizens, noble dames and damsels, and fine churches." Caen is still a fine town, the centre of considerable trade and manufactures, and the dwelling-place of 40,000 people. Grenoble, capital of the department of Isere, and of the ancient Dauphiny, was the first city to open its gates

to Napoleon, when he returned from Elba. The garrison had taken up arms to resist the little band of imperialists, when Napoleon, advancing and uncovering his breast, said to them, "If there be one among you, who would slay his general and emperor, he can do it. Behold, I am defenseless." He was answered by animating shouts of "*Vive l'Empereur*." The population of Grenoble is 27,000. The town is largely engaged in the manufacture of kid-gloves. [See BAYONNE, BREST, NANTES, PARIS, TOULON, TOULOUSE.]

The territory of France is admirably defended by nature against invasion, except toward the north-east. The Atlantic coast

has few harbors of any depth, and those are hard of access or strongly defended. The Pyrenees would be impassable in the face of an aroused nation; the wall of the Alps, the Jura, and the Vosges, on the eastern frontier, equally so. But on the Bavarian, Prussian, and Belgian frontiers, there are no natural defenses. In this quarter, therefore, military science has done its utmost to command all the great approaches, and in no other country are there so many strongly fortified towns in a same extent of territory. Here are the fortresses of Dunkirk, Lisle, Douay, Cambrai, Valenciennes, Conde, Maubeuge, Avesnes, Rocroy, Givet, Charlemont, Mezieres, Sedan, Thionville, Metz, Bitche, and Weisemburg. Along the Rhenish frontier (the proper defense of which is not the Rhine, however, but the Vosges) are the strongholds of Haguenau, Strasburg, Schelestadt, and Neuf Brisach. Befort, Besancon, and the Fort-de-l'Ecluse command the entrance from Switzerland. Toward the Alps and Sardinia are Grenoble and Briancon. The Pyrenean passes are warded by Perpignan, Bellegarde, Mont Louis, St. Jean-Pied-de-Port, and Bayonne. Many of the towns in the interior are fortified, but Paris, with its continuous wall and detached forts, is the most important. The great naval stations and dock-yards are at Brest, Toulon, Rochefort, Cherbourg and L'Orient.

The principal stock of the French race is the Celtic, admixed with the Romans, Visigoths, and Franks. The Catholic is the predominant religion of the country: both Catholic and Protestant clergymen are supported by the state. Education is carefully fostered by the government. The scheme of public instruction embraces a wide range of institutions and acquirements. Besides the ordinary academies and elementary schools, and the great universities and institutes, there are military schools, such as the Polytechnic and that of St. Cyr; naval schools, as at Brest, and the marine schools of surgery at Rochefort and Toulon; normal schools in almost every department, for the training of teachers; the Conservatoire of Arts and Trades, the Conservatoire of Music and Oratory, the Imperial School of the Fine Arts, all at Paris; schools of roads and bridges, schools of mines, schools of agriculture, schools of arts, and

trades, and manufactures, schools of design, &c. Thus, throughout the whole empire, industrial education is provided; sometimes of a theoretical character, and sometimes exceedingly practical, as in the schools of weaving at Lyons and Nismes, of ship-building at La Rochelle, or lace-making at Dieppe. As a consequence, the French hold high rank among ingenious and enlightened nations. The inventions of French chemists and their improvement of chemical science have done much in producing with economy and expedition the many chemical agents employed in the various branches of manufactures, particularly dyeing. The cloths and other woollens fabricated are of the best quality. The cotton manufacture is still more important, and the calicoes are widely approved. French silks surpass all others for pure brilliancy of color and exquisite taste in patterns. In jewelry, marquetry, ornamental bronze, and furniture, the French are almost unrivalled; in chronometers and instruments for scientific purposes they are wholly so. Finest porcelain is made at Sevres, Paris, and Limoges. During the wars at the beginning of the present century, English cruisers cut France off from supplies of sugar; the saccharine properties of the beet were tested; and sugar from beet-root is now a great branch of manufacture. The leading exports from France are wine, brandy, liqueurs, salt, linen, hempen cloth, woollens, silks, cottons, hats, jewelry and household furniture.

France was called by the Romans Transalpine Gaul, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to distinguish it from Cisalpine Gaul, on the Italian side of the Alps. Like other countries, it soon became a desirable object to the ambitious Romans, and, after a brave resistance, was annexed to their empire by the invincible arms of Julius Cesar, about 48 B.C. Gaul continued in the possession of the Romans until the downfall of that empire, in the fifth century. On the last day of the year 406, the Rhine was crossed by a host of barbarians who never repassed that frontier stream. Some twenty years before, when Maximus, chosen emperor by the legions in Britain, had crossed the channel into Gaul to dethrone his rival, Gratian, a considerable band of native Britons had followed his eagles. They retained possession of Armorica, which he bestowed upon them, and thence came its name

of Bretagne, or Brittany. Armorica maintained its independence against the present invasion of Vandals, Alans, Suevians, and Burgundians, but the rest of Gaul became their prey. The Suevians, Alans, and Vandals passed the Pyrenees into Spain; the Burgundians settled, with the sanction of the Roman government, in the east of Gaul; and the Visigoths, who had long been ravaging both the Roman empires, were induced to accept the cession of the country south and west of the Loire. About 420, under the leadership of Pharamond, the Franks, an ancient people of Germany, settled in Flanders, and began to get a foothold in the land to which they afterward gave their name. With Pharamond originated the Salic law by which the sovereignty is rendered hereditary only in the male line. The Franks and Burgundians, after establishing their power, and reducing the Gauls to a state of slavery, parceled out the lands among their principal leaders; and succeeding kings found it necessary to confirm their privileges, allowing them to exercise sovereign authority in their respective governments, until they at length assumed an independence, only acknowledging the king as their head. This gave rise to those numerous principalities that formerly existed in France, and to the several parliaments; for every province became, in its policy and government, an epitome of the kingdom.

The first Christian monarch of the Franks was Clovis (son of the chivalrous Childeric), who is regarded as the true founder of the monarchy. He expelled the remnant of the Romans, weakened the Visigoths, and gained brilliant victory over the Germans. He is celebrated by the vow which he made to embrace the Christian religion at the solicitation of his wife Clotilda, and was baptized at Rheims. The Franks finally conquered the Burgundians and Visigoths, and became masters of all Gaul. The first race of French kings, prior to Charlemagne, found a cruel enemy in the Saracens, who then overran Europe, and retaliated the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their posterity. In the year 800, Charlemagne, King of France, the glory of these dark ages, became master of Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, and was crowned King of the Romans by the pope. He divided his empire by will among

his sons, which proved fatal to his family and their posterity. Soon after this the Normans ravaged the kingdom of France, and, about the year 905, obliged the French to yield up Normandy and Bretagne to Rollo, their leader, who married the king's daughter, and was persuaded to profess himself a Christian. This laid the foundation of the Norman power in France, which afterward gave a king to England, in the person of William, Duke of Normandy, who subdued Harold, the last Saxon king, in the year 1066.

In the reign of Philip I., who came to the throne in 1060, the crusades were commenced. In 1108, Philip was succeeded by his son Louis the Fat, or Louis VI., who engaged in a war with Henry I. of England. Letters of franchise were granted to many cities and towns by Louis VI., and the authority of the crown over the great feudatories much increased. Louis VII., surnamed the Young, carried on his father's policy for strengthening the regal power. He marched into Champagne in the year 1137, and having surprised the city of Vetry, met with no resistance, except in the parochial church, which he caused to be set on fire; a thousand and three hundred persons perished in the flames. At this time the English kings, as Dukes of Normandy and Anjou, were vassals of the French crown. Henry II. married Eleanor of Guienne, the repudiated wife of Louis, and thus his power in France was greater than that of the monarch to whom he owed allegiance: he held Normandy, Anjou, Maine, Touraine, Poitou, Limousin, Angoumois, Saintonge, Berri, Marche, part of Auvergne, Guienne, and Gascony.

Philip Augustus, Louis's son and successor in 1180, and Richard I. of England, undertook a joint expedition to the holy land, in 1191; but the former returning to Europe in disgust, the latter was obliged to relinquish the enterprise, and on his way home was imprisoned in Austria. During his captivity, and in the reign of his shiftless brother John, Philip gained Normandy, Anjou, Touraine, and Berri. Philip consolidated the regal power by substituting constitutional forms for individual caprice. His reign was marked by blood-stained crusades against the Albigenses in the south of France.

Philip II. was succeeded by his son, Louis

the Lion, in 1223. He was poisoned after a short reign of three years, during which he conquered Poitou, and was succeeded in 1226 by his son, Louis IX., commonly styled St. Louis, who engaged in a new crusade against the infidels in Egypt and Palestine, in which himself and his nobility were taken prisoners. Having been afterward ransomed, he led an army against the infidels of Africa, where he died in 1270, before Tunis. His son and successor, Philip III., kept the field against the Moors, and saved the remains of the French army; and this procured him the surname of the Hardy. In the reign of Philip IV., surnamed the Fair, who succeeded in 1285, the supreme tribunals, called parliaments, were instituted. The reign of St. Louis, one of the most equitable and virtuous of princes, and the reigns of his direct descendants, some of them as remarkable for opposite qualities, were marked by the consolidation of the power of the law as distinguished from that of the sword. This beneficial change, however, was accompanied under the successors of Louis with the most revolting acts of injustice in the name of law. Many nobles were despoiled of their fiefs, the order of the Templars was extirpated in the blood of its members, the Jews and Lombards were grievously oppressed, and trade was ruined by an abased coinage. Persecution assumed a more systematic form by the establishment of the inquisition at Toulouse, to root out the poor Albigenses. In this period the greater part of Languedoc was added to the domains of the crown, which were considerably augmented elsewhere.

The direct branch of Capetian kings ended with Charles IV., who left only a daughter; and the states having solemnly decreed that all females were incapable of succeeding to the crown, Philip de Valois, the next male heir, was raised to the throne in 1328. He was the grandson of Philip the Hardy by his third son, Charles of Valois. The mother of Edward III. of England was a daughter of Philip the Fair. Edward having claimed the French crown, hostilities commenced, and the English gained the battle of Crecy in 1346, and Poitiers in 1356; but about the end of the fourteenth century, the French recovered all the provinces which the English had conquered in France.

During the reign of Charles VI., who became insane shortly after coming of age, France fell into dissension. Two great factions contended for the mastery, the one headed by the king's uncle, the Duke of Burgundy, the other by the king's brother, the Duke of Orleans; while the citizens and peasants rebelled against the exactions of the nobles, and demanded an increase of their privileges. Henry V. of England took advantage of these disorders, and invaded France in 1415. He made himself master of Harfleur, and gained the famous battle of Agincourt, in which the French lost an incredible number of men. In 1420 the succession to the French throne was secured to the King of England by treaty; in consequence of which the infant Henry VI. was crowned King of France at Paris. But by degrees Charles VII. recovered possession of the kingdom, in which he was greatly assisted by the enthusiast, Joan of Arc, who raised the siege of Orleans, and defeated the English; but being taken prisoner, this gallant girl was barbarously burned for alleged sorcery.

Louis XI., a crafty and intriguing prince, did for France what Henry VII. did for England in breaking down the feudal power. By craft or by force, he rendered the regal power absolute, and enlarged and consolidated his empire. He robbed the nobles of their choicest privileges, and gradually united all the great fiefs with the crown. Upon the overthrow and death of Charles the Bold, he seized Burgundy. Pope Paul II. gave him the title of Most Christian King, which became an appellation of the monarchs of France; pretty name for such a cruel ruler, whose tyranny forced his subjects into a union against him, known as "the league of the public good." His son Charles VIII. was the last prince of the first line of Valois. The Duke of Orleans ascended the throne in 1498, under the title of Louis XII. He was so humane, generous, and indulgent to his subjects, that he obtained the appellation of father of his people. Francis I., one of the most distinguished of the kings of France, succeeded him. He ascended the throne in 1515, at the age of twenty-one, and died in 1547. His reign was passed in contests with the Emperor Charles V. He conquered the Milanese in 1525, but was taken prisoner at the siege of Pavia. In 1535 he

possessed himself of Savoy, but was afterward defeated. During his reign, notwithstanding the wars, arts, commerce, and literature began to flourish in France. In the time of Henry II., Calais was conquered, the last relic of the English possessions in France.

On the accession of Francis II., commenced those civil commotions which harassed France during thirty years. The king was instigated to attempt the extirpation of the Protestants, who, by way of reproach, were denominated Huguenots. The minority and reign of Charles IX. exhibited a series of treacheries, commotions, and assassinations; France became a field of war and bloodshed. The massacre of St. Bartholomew's disgraced the age. Henry III. was a weak and debauched prince; and in him ended the line of Valois. On his death, the crown devolved on the house of Bourbon, in the person of Henry IV., King of Navarre, who was descended from Robert of France, Count of Clermont, the fifth and last son of Saint Louis. Henry was the son of Antony of Bourbon, Duke of Vendome, and Jeanne d'Albret, heiress of Navarre. He was justly styled the Great, being one of the best and most amiable of the French princes; but he perished by the hand of an assassin in 1610.

Under the minority and in the reign of Louis XIII., France returned to disorder and wretchedness, and Cardinal Richelieu, the prime minister, rendered the power of the crown absolute. The reign of Louis XIV. was long and brilliant. The great Condé compelled the Emperor Ferdinand III. and Christiana, Queen of Sweden, to conclude the peace of Westphalia. But the unbounded ambition of Louis rendered him odious or formidable to every prince in Europe. The united forces of England, Holland, and Austria obliged him to conclude the peace of Ryswick in 1697, and that of Utrecht in 1713. He reigned from 1643 to 1715. William III. of England was the great enemy of Louis XIV. In 1702, he organized a new confederacy of the powers of Europe against him, but died before hostilities commenced. The Duke of Marlborough, who led the allied forces, gained, in 1704, the battle of Blenheim, which was followed by other victories. But, in 1713, this bloody and useless contest was terminated by the peace of Utrecht,

though Louis succeeded in placing his grandson on the throne of Spain.

At the age of five years, his great-grandson ascended the throne, under the title of Louis XV. In conjunction with Germany, Russia, and Sweden, France, in this reign, twice contended against Prussia and Great Britain. These wars were concluded in 1748 and in 1763. Louis XVI. assumed the crown of France in 1774, under most unfortunate auspices. He found a court abandoned to the utmost extravagance, and the country loaded with an enormous debt. The king convoked an assembly of the notables, consisting of princes, deputies chosen from among the nobility, dignified clergy, the parliaments, and the *pays d'état*.

It was proposed to establish a land tax, without any exception in favor of the nobility or clergy. This proposal being followed by a general refusal, the assembly of the notables was dissolved, and the minister thought he could make a more advantageous bargain with the parliaments. But as the latter remonstrated, and advanced the opinion that the right of imposing new taxes belonged only to the states general, the king convoked them in 1789. Necker's indiscreet measure, by which it was stipulated that the numbers of the *tiers état* (third estate) should be, at least, equal to that of the other two orders conjointly, threw the preponderance into the scale of the former, who could not fail to find many adherents in the superior classes. As soon as the deputies of the third order had formed themselves into a national assembly, the other orders were led away by their impulsive force, and the equilibrium was entirely destroyed.

The storm of popular fury gathered and broke rapidly. On the 4th of July, 1789, the Bastille was destroyed. On the 4th of August the privileges of the nobility were suppressed. On the 5th of October, 1789, the king, queen, and royal family were forced from Versailles by the mob, and brought captive to the capital. However, the monarch disconcerted the schemes of his adversaries by a free acceptance of the new constitution, which abolished the feudal system and the titles of nobility. The situation of Louis and his family became so unsupportable under

the harsh restraints which were imposed, that they contrived to escape from their implacable enemies; but the unfortunate monarch, being recognized at St. Menchoult by Drouet, the post-master, was stopped at Varennes, constrained to return to Paris with his family, and to become a mere prisoner.

While the king was preparing to surrender his throne and life, the Jacobins caused a decree to be enacted, suppressing the chasseurs and grenadiers, of whom they were afraid, as well as the staff of the national guard. All the measures which they pursued till the 10th of August, 1792, had, for their sole aim, the overthrow of the monarchy. On that day, the Marseillaise, who had been invited to Paris to form the advanced guard in the attack on the palace of the Tuileries, in conjunction with the national guards, fired on the devoted Swiss who composed the royal body-guard, and almost annihilated them. The king and his family sought refuge in the assembly; it was decreed that they should be imprisoned in the Temple, and they were conducted thither.

The national convention was opened on the 21st of September, and in the first sitting abolished royalty and proclaimed the republic. The king was tried and condemned, and on the 21st of January, 1793, perished on the scaffold. Against the French republic, Austria and Prussia had already declared war, and, on the king's death, their example was followed by Great Britain and Holland, and speedily after by Spain and Russia. While France was pressed on all sides by the different powers of Europe, this unfortunate country was a prey to all kinds of internal disorders, and to the most unbounded licentiousness.

Robespierre and Danton obtained a decree by which all the *sans-culottes* were to be armed with pikes and muskets at the expense of the rich, who were themselves to be disarmed as suspected persons. Marat, one of the principal agents in the revolution, was assassinated by Charlotte Corday. Toward the close of June, 1793, the new constitution was adopted, and great disturbances broke out at Lyons, Marseilles, and in La Vendée. Soon after the surrender of Valenciennes to the English, the committee of public safety was established, to desolate France by the

most horrid butcheries and persecutions. They apprehended all suspected persons, and tried them by revolutionary committees, the powers of which were so unlimited that they could readily seize on four-fifths of the population of France.

One of their early victims was the unhappy Marie Antoinette, the widow of the murdered Louis. Her death was followed by the destruction of the Girondists. The infamous Duke of Orleans was brought up to Paris from Marseilles, and, being tried and condemned, braved the insults of the multitude on the way to execution. Brittany and a great part of Normandy being filled with the royalists, who had acquired the denomination of *Chouans*, Carrier, one of the most atrocious monsters of the revolution, was sent to Nantes, where he spared neither age nor sex, but put to death the aged, the infirm, and even infants. The atrocities committed by the satellites of the convention in the city of Lyons, exceeded all that can be conceived; at the end of five months, nearly 6,000 persons had perished.

In Paris the executions were now multiplied to such a degree, that eighty persons were frequently conveyed in the same vehicle to the place where they suffered. To cite the names of all the illustrious victims who fell, would far exceed our limits, and, at the same time, present too horrid a picture of human depravity. At length, Robespierre, Couthon, and St. Just were brought to condign punishment. A form of government was afterward settled by the convention; and a council of ancients, a council of five hundred, and five rulers, called a directory, were appointed: but the other powers of Europe being still in league against France, and the new government being unfortunate in the field, the executive power was, in 1799, vested in three consuls, of whom the first was the victorious Napoleon Bonaparte.

The consulate restored the energy of the government. Bonaparte, having, in 1800, gained the victory of Marengo, forced Austria to conclude the treaty of Luneville in February, 1801; and concluded the treaty of Amiens with England in October of that year; thus restoring peace to all Europe. The British government refusing to surrender Malta, according to the treaty of Amiens,

after some angry discussions the English ambassador left Paris in April, 1803, and war was recommenced. In 1804, the first consul, Napoleon Bonaparte, was crowned Emperor of France by the pope; and, in 1805, King of Italy, at Milan. He afterward assumed the title of Mediator of Switzerland, and Protector of the Confederation of the Rhine. He made one of his brothers King of Holland, another King of Naples, a third King of Spain, and a fourth King of Westphalia.

These manifestations of ambition excited, in succession, the jealousies and fears of all Europe. Austria and Russia commenced hostilities in 1805, but were overthrown at Austerlitz; Prussia in 1806, but she was crushed at Jena; Russia again in the same year, but she was defeated at Friedland; Spain, in 1807; Austria, again, in 1808, but she was overthrown at Wagram; Russia, again, in 1812; and finally, Russia, Prussia, Sweden, Austria, England, &c., invaded France in 1814, when Napoleon abdicated, retired to the island of Elba, and the Bourbons were restored. After a year's absence, Napoleon returned to Paris, but having been defeated in the memorable battle of Waterloo, again abdicated the throne, and was conveyed as a state prisoner to the island of St. Helena, where he died in 1821. The Bourbons were reinstated on the throne in the person of Louis XVIII., brother of Louis XVI., and France relinquished the states and provinces acquired during the revolutionary wars. Louis XVIII. died on the 16th of December, 1824; his brother, Charles X., ascended the throne, and was crowned with splendor at Rheims, after taking the solemn oath to govern according to the charter. But the misfortunes of the Bourbons had not taught them wisdom. In 1830, the tyranny of the ancient regime seemed to have reappeared, and fetters were placed upon the press. On Tuesday morning, July 27th, the liberal journals of Paris were seized, and a revolution immediately broke out. In three days the glorious struggle was terminated in favor of the people. The paving-stones and tiles of the houses became weapons more formidable than sabres or muskets. The royal cavalry, as they rushed upon the barricades, were assailed in front and from above; the

young scholars of the Polytechnic school, having been dismissed without their swords, seized what arms they could find, and ranged themselves on the side of the people; some commanded the populace, others served the guns with spirit and success. Aug. 2d, the king abdicated, and was permitted to leave France. The Duke of Orleans was chosen king, a new ministry appointed, and, after a fair trial, the old ministry was imprisoned for life.

Louis Philippe, though put upon the throne by the will of the people, forgot the lesson that experience should have taught him. The tranquillity of France was again ruffled by discontent. At length, in February, 1848, the suppression of a great reform banquet which was to be holden at Paris, caused a violent tumult. Barricades were thrown up in the streets of Paris, the Tuileries were ransacked, the prisons opened, and wild excesses indulged in by the furious populace. Louis Philippe abdicated in favor of his little grandson, and fled across the channel. A republic was at once proclaimed, and a provisional government formed. This gave place on the 6th of May to an executive commission, chosen by the national assembly. Lamartine, Arago, Garnier-Pages, Marie, Ledru Rollin, Dupont de l'Eure, were the leading members of this commission. Liberty, equality, fraternity, were the watchwords of the new republic. The penalty of death for political offenses was abolished. Universal suffrage was proclaimed. All slaves upon French territory were set free. The perpetual banishment of the late monarch and his family was decreed. National workshops were established, wherein all laborers out of work were employed at the public expense.

A spirit of anarchy was abroad, and the new government was assailed by many riots. A fearful struggle broke out on the 23d of June. Paris was declared to be in a state of siege, and the government invested General Cavaignac with dictatorial power. After a bloody contest of four days he brought the insurgents to submission. Sixteen thousand persons had been killed or wounded, and half as many were taken prisoners. A constitution was promulgated, under which, on the 11th of December, 1848, Louis Napoleon

was elected president; Cavaignac was the candidate of the republicans.

The constitution was overthrown by the *coup d'état* of Dec. 2d, 1851. The legislative assembly was dissolved, and the resisting members arrested. Paris was declared to be in a state of siege, and occupied by thousands of troops. Thiers, Changarnier, Cavaignac, Bedeau, and Lamoriciere were thrown into prison. Hundreds were banished to the pestilential marshes of Cayenne. Louis Napoleon was declared elected president for ten years. This was only preliminary to further usurpation. Dec. 2d, 1852, the empire was restored, and the nephew of his uncle reigned as Napoleon III.

We subjoin a list of the dynasties of France.

THE CARLOVINGIANS.

- 752. Pepin the Short.
- 768. Charlemagne, emperor of the West.
- 814. Louis the Debonair, emperor.
- 840. Charles the Bald, emperor in 875.
- 877. Louis the Stammerer, his son.
- 879. Louis III. and Carloman II.
- 882. Carloman II.
- 884. Charles the Fat; usurper, in prejudice to Charles the Simple.
- 887. Eudes, or Hugh, Count of Paris.
- 893. Charles III., the Simple.
- 922. Robert, brother of Eudes; Charles killed him in battle.
- 923. Rodolf, Duke of Burgundy.
- 936. Louis IV., son of Charles III.
- 954. Lothaire, his son.
- 986. Louis V., the Indolent, son of Lothaire; poisoned by his queen, and thus ended the line of Charlemagne.

THE CAPETS.

- 987. Hugh Capet, son of Hugh the Great, Count of Paris, seized the crown, in prejudice of Charles of Lorraine, the uncle of Louis IV.
- 996. Robert II., his son, born 970.
- 1031. Henry I., his son, born 1005.
- 1060. Philip I., his son, born 1053.
- 1108. Louis VI., the Fat, his son, born 1078.
- 1137. Louis VII., the Young, his son, born 1120.
- 1180. Philip Augustus, his son, born 1165.
- 1223. Louis VIII., Cœur de Lion, his son, born 1187.
- 1226. Louis IX., St. Louis, his son, born 1215.
- 1270. Philip III., the Hardy, his son, born 1245.
- 1285. Philip IV., the Fair, his son, born 1268.
- 1314. Louis X., the Headstrong, his son, born 1289.
- 1316. John I., a posthumous son of Louis X.; lived only a few days.
- 1316. Philip V., the Long (on account of his stature), son of Philip the Fair, born 1294. He was preferred to the daughter and heiress of Louis X., thus confirming the Salic law.

- 1322. Charles IV., the Handsome, third son of Philip the Fair, born 1295.

BRANCH OF VALOIS.

- 1328. Philip VI., born 1293, grandson of Philip the Hardy by his third son, Charles of Valois.
- 1350. John II., the Good, his son, born 1319.
- 1364. Charles V., the Wise, his son, born 1337; the first prince who bore the title of dauphin.
- 1380. Charles VI., his son, born 1368.
- 1422. Charles VII., the Victorious, his son, born 1403.
- 1461. Louis XI., his son, born 1423.
- 1483. Charles VIII., the Affable, his son, born 1470.

BRANCH OF VALOIS ORLEANS.

- 1498. Louis XII., the Father of the People, born 1462, descended from a younger son of Charles V.

BRANCH OF VALOIS ANGOULEME.

- 1515. Francis I., the Father of Letters, born 1494.
- 1547. Henry II., his son, born 1519.
- 1559. Francis II., eldest son of Henry II., born 1544.
- 1560. Charles IX., second son of Henry II., born 1550.
- 1574. Henry III., third son of Henry II., born 1551.

HOUSE OF BOURBON.

- 1589. Henry IV., the Great, born 1553, descended from Robert, Count of Clermont, younger son of St. Louis, and brother of Philip III.
- 1610. Louis XIII., his son, born 1601.
- 1643. Louis XIV., his son, the Great, born 1638.
- 1715. Louis XV., his great-grandson, born 1710.
- 1774. Louis XVI., his grandson, born 1754.
- Louis XVII., his son. [Numbered with the kings though he never reigned. He died in prison, June 8th, 1795, aged ten years and two months.]

REPUBLIC.

- 1793. Till 1804, under various forms, France was a republic.

THE EMPIRE.

- 1804. Napoleon I., born Aug. 15th, 1769.

THE BOURBONS RESTORED.

- 1814. Louis XVIII. (Count of Provence), brother of Louis XVI., born Nov. 17th, 1755.
- 1824. Charles X. (Count of Artois), his brother, born Oct. 9th, 1757; deposed.

HOUSE OF ORLEANS.

- 1830. Louis Philippe, son of the notorious Duke of Orleans, born Oct. 6th, 1773; deposed.

NEW REPUBLIC.

- 1848. Louis Napoleon Charles Bonaparte, born April 20th, 1808, chosen president.

THE EMPIRE REVIVED.

1852. Napoleon III. [By assuming this title Louis Napoleon recognized the son of Napoleon I., as the second emperor of the name. His father abdicated in his favor, but he never reigned.]

FRANCIA, GASPARD RODRIGUEZ DE, commonly called Dr. Francia, and known as the dictator of Paraguay, was born at Assomcion in that province, 1757. When the South American provinces threw off the yoke of Spain, Francia was zealous in establishing the independence of Paraguay, and soon attained the sole dictatorship, which he held from 1815 till his death in 1840. He adopted the principle of non-intercourse, and during his rule Paraguay was another Japan. Although he is accused of cruelty, it should be remembered that he preserved order in Paraguay, during a period in which the neighboring state of Buenos Ayres changed its government, amid convulsions of riot and blood, nearly forty times!

FRANCIS I. of France, surnamed by his subjects the father of letters, was born at Cognac in 1494; his father was Charles, Count of Angouleme. He succeeded Louis XII., in 1515. Louis had laid claim to the duchy of Milan. Francis renewed the demand. He passed the Alps, penetrated as far as Milan, and found the imperialists and Swiss camped near Marignano. The contest was kept up for two whole days. Francis and the Chevalier Bayard performed prodigies of valor, and the Marshal of Trivulzio, who had been in eighteen actions, called this a combat of giants. The Swiss were beaten with a loss of 15,000 men; Sforza ceded Milan, and retired to France, where he died. The Swiss agreed to a perpetual treaty of peace, and long remained the faithful allies of France. Leo X., equally reconciled, came to a conference in which the pragmatic sanction was abolished, to make way for the concordat by which the king enjoyed the power of conferring benefices.

The death of the emperor, Maximilian I., presented the imperial throne to the view of Francis I. and Charles of Spain. The former never pardoned his rival for having obtained it, and hence arose interminable wars. The first care of Francis I. was to attach to himself Henry VIII. of England; and they had an interview near Calais on the Field of

the Cloth of Gold; but Charles V. ruined his rival's scheme by gaining the favor of the all-powerful Cardinal Wolsey. The campaign which followed presented a scene of alternate success and defeat on both sides. The Milanese were won by the intrigues of Leo X. and Charles V.; and France had at once for adversaries the new pope, Adrian VI., the emperor, England, the Venetians, and the Genoese, and, to crown her misfortunes, the Constable of Bourbon, whom discontent drove to the arms of Charles V., and whom imperial favor raised to the rank of commander-in-chief.

Francis fought in different places with various success. The imperialists and the English were repulsed by La Tremouille, the Duke of Guise, and the Duke of Vendome; but Bonnivet was beaten, and the brave Bayard killed, in Italy. Yet these misfortunes did not destroy the hopes of Francis: he passed the mountains and re-entered the territory of the Milanese. Following the advice of Bonnivet, he besieged Pavia, although the oldest officers warned him against doing so. The allies arrived in time to succor it, and, on February 24th, 1525, was fought the battle of Pavia, in which Francis, after having had two horses killed under him, and smarting with wounds, was taken prisoner. Bonnivet killed himself in despair.

The king wrote to his mother, Louisa of Savoy, who was regent in his absence, this memorable line, "Madame, we have lost all but honor." Transferred to Spain, he was imprisoned at Madrid, where, disheartened and sick, he signed the treaty by which he ceded Burgundy, Flanders, and Artois, and gave up his two sons as hostages. Issuing from his prison, his spirits revived with the free air and open scenery, and springing upon a spirited horse, he exclaimed with animation, "I am yet a king." His progress through Spain hardly resembled that of a prisoner. Throughout his journey, entertainments were given him by the Spanish noblemen, who were glad of an opportunity to display their wealth and consequence. One night, on arriving at a noble manor, he was obliged to take his seat at a splendid festival; it concluded with a ball, in which the courteous monarch did not refuse to take a part. He asked two beautiful

girls, daughters of a proud old nobleman, to dance with him. But they only consented to perform that part of the figure in which the lady averts her face from her partner; in short, so blindly patriotic were these pretty Spaniards, that they turned upon their heels, to the no small confusion of the King of France. Their old father, however, not only disapproved of their conduct, but punished it in a summary manner, for, seizing both by the hair, he dragged them out of the ball-room with more rapidity than grace. So much for refusing a king's invitation.

Francis witnessed a whimsical instance of Spanish pride in his reception by a certain old gentleman named Don Diego d'Alvar, who, feigning a painful indisposition, kept his seat, while the French monarch remained standing in his presence. Don Diego had a menagerie, an expensive part of the establishment of a Spanish grandee in those times. During the festival given to Francis, an African lion escaped from his cage. Consternation spread among the guests, each of whom thought himself the devoted victim of the infuriated animal, when the major-domo of the castle, seizing in one hand a flaming brand, and grasping his sword in the other, advanced to meet the lion. The animal, frightened by the flames, recoiled, and the major-domo followed him up to his cage, in which he enclosed him with as much coolness as if he had been operating upon a greedy hound taken in the act of thieving from the larder. This act of courage was more admired by Francis than anything else which occurred at the castle of Don Diego.

Francis returned to France. His cause becoming that of all the princes who dreaded the increase of the power of Charles V., a league was formed between the pope, the princes of Italy, Henry VIII. of England, and Francis I. The indignant emperor sent Laney into the States of the Church, where he made himself master of many places. The Constable of Bourbon, even after the conquest of Milan, wanting money, advanced upon Rome, and promised his troops the pillage of this city. He was killed in the assault. The furious soldiers, at the end of two hours' fighting, entered Rome, killed all they met, sacked the houses, profaned the churches, and delivered themselves up to ex-

cesses of all kinds, which continued for two months.

The flame of war rekindled. Marshal Lautrec regained the greater part of Milan; sacked Pavia, in revenge for the capture of the king; then forced the imperialists to conclude a treaty with the pope, who was besieged in the castle of St. Angelo; and went thence to Naples, where he perished of the plague with the rest of his army. In 1529, a treaty of peace was concluded at Cambray, called the Peace of Ladies (*Paix des Dames*), on account of the plenipotentiaries, the Duchess of Angoulême, for Francis I., her son, and Margaret of Austria, governess of the Low Countries, for Charles V., her nephew. The king engaged to pay the emperor 2,000,000 crowns, to cede the sovereignty of Flanders and Artois, and to marry Eleonora, the sister of the emperor, whose attentions had solaced his captivity.

Finding peace established, he employed himself in repressing a multitude of disorders to which the wars had given rise, in making wise regulations, in reforming legal abuses, and preserving the tranquillity of the church by persecuting the reformers that menaced it. He founded colleges, protected literature, which he himself cultivated, encouraged the arts, founded the royal library and printing establishment, honored learned men, and labored to deserve the title of restorer of the sciences. Commerce, trade and industry were fostered under his rule.

But he again cast his eyes upon Milan, and in 1535 entered Italy, and made himself master of Savoy. Charles, in turn, made an irruption into Provence, but was repulsed with loss. The Flemings, who had entered Picardy, met with the same fate. The alliance concluded between Francis I. and Solymán, the sultan of the Turks, rendered Charles more prudent, and he concluded a truce for ten years. This was soon broken by his ill faith, and the murder of two French ambassadors. War was waged with various success, for two years, in Italy, France, Spain, and the Netherlands, till Charles and Francis concluded peace at Cressy in 1544.

In March, 1547, Francis, who possessed so many good qualities, died, the victim of his illicit intrigues. Notwithstanding his numerous wars, he kept the finances of France in a

flourishing condition. He wedded in 1514, Claude, daughter of Louis XII. and the Duchess of Brittany. She died in 1524, and in 1530 he married Eleanor of Austria, sister of Charles V., and widow of Emmanuel the Fortunate of Portugal. She died in 1557.

FRANCIS, Sir PHILIP, a famous politician, was born in Ireland, in 1740. He was educated at St. Paul's school; after which he obtained a place in the office of the secretary of state. In 1760, he went in the suit of the English ambassador to Lisbon. In 1763, he was a clerk in the war office, and, in 1773, he went out to India, as a member of the council of Bengal, and fought a duel with Warren Hastings, who was wounded. On his return to England, he was elected to parliament for Yarmouth in the Isle of Wight. He supported the proceedings against Warren Hastings, whom he opposed on every occasion. When the whigs came into office, he was made knight of the bath. He died Dec. 22d, 1818. The authorship of the letters of Junius is most generally ascribed to him. [*See JUNIUS.*]

FRANCIS, St. There are five saints of this name in the Romish calendar. St. Francis of Assise, 1182-1226; St. Francis of Calabria, 1416-1507; St. Francis of Borgia, died 1572; St. Francis of Sales, 1567-1622; St. Francis Xavier, 1506-1552. [*See XAVIER.*] The mendicant order of friars called Franciscans, and also Grey Friars, was founded by St. Francis of Assise, 1209-1220. Their rules were chastity, poverty, obedience, and very austere regimen; but they became rich, voluptuous, and lazy. They appeared in England in 1224, and at the breaking up of monasteries by Henry VIII., they had fifty-five abbeys or other houses.

FRANKFORT, on the MAIN, is one of the four free cities, and the seat of the German diet. A territory of 91 square miles is attached to the city, and the government is republican; total population in 1855, 74,784. Frankfort was made a free city in 1154. It is a place of large traffic, banking, and manufactures. The aggregate capital of its bankers is said to be \$100,000,000. In the sixteenth century its annual fairs were attended by forty thousand strangers. Though no longer so famous, they are still animated and attractive.

FRANKLIN, BENJAMIN, was born in Boston, Jan. 17th, 1706. He was the youngest of seventeen children, and was intended for his father's business, which was that of a soap-boiler and tallow-chandler, but being disgusted with this employment, he was apprenticed to his brother, who was a printer. This occupation was more congenial to his taste, and he used to devote his nights to the perusal of such books as his scanty means enabled him to buy. By restricting himself to a vegetable diet, he obtained more money for intellectual purposes, and at sixteen had read Locke on the Understanding, Xenophon's Memorabilia, and the Port Royal Logic, in addition to many other works. Having incurred the displeasure of his father and brother, he ran away, sailed in a sloop to New York, walked thence to Philadelphia, and entered that city with a dollar in his pocket, and a loaf of bread under his arm. Here he obtained employment as a printer, and Sir William Keith, the governor, observing his diligence, persuaded him to go to England, to purchase materials for a press, on his own account, promising him letters of introduction and credit. This was in 1725. He found he was the bearer of no letters that related to himself, and he was accordingly obliged to work at his trade in London. He returned to Philadelphia, where, in a short time, he entered into business with one Meredith, and about 1728 began a newspaper, in which he inserted many of his moral essays. He published "Poor Richard's Almanac" for a quarter-century and more. It is well known for its pithy sayings: "Drive thy business, let not that drive thee;" "God gives all things to industry; then plow deep while sluggards sleep, and you will have corn to sell and keep;" "Three removes are as bad as a fire;" "Keep thy shop, and thy shop will keep thee;" "If you would have your business done, go; if not, send;" as poor Richard says. The frugal maxims of poor Dick, Franklin himself strictly observed, and he grew to prosperity and good repute in his adopted city. At the age of twenty-seven, he began the study of the modern and classical languages. He founded the University of Pennsylvania and the American Philosophical Society, and invented the Franklin stove, which still holds its place, even among the



FRANKLIN'S GRAVE AT PHILADELPHIA.

variety of modern inventions of a similar kind. In 1746, he made his experiments on electricity and applied his discoveries to the invention of the lightning-rod.

In 1751, he was appointed deputy post-master-general for the colonies. After the defeat of Braddock, a bill for organizing a provincial militia having passed the assembly, Franklin was chosen its commander. In 1757, he was sent to England with a petition to the king and council against the proprietaries, who refused to bear their share in the public expenses. While thus employed, he published several works, which gained him a high reputation, and the agency of Massachusetts, Maryland, and Georgia. In 1762, Franklin was chosen fellow of the royal society, and made doctor of laws at Oxford, and the same year returned to America.

In 1764 he was again deputed to England as agent of his province, and in 1766 was ex-

amined before the house of commons on the subject of the stamp-act. His answers were clear and decisive. His conduct in England was worthy of his previous character. Finding him warmly attached to the colonies, invective and coarse satire were leveled against him, but his integrity and matchless wit formed an invulnerable defense. He was next offered "any reward, unlimited recompense, honors and recompense beyond his expectations," if he would forsake his country, but he stood firm as a rock.

He returned to America in 1775, and was immediately chosen a member of congress, and performed the most arduous duties in the service of his country. He was sent as commissioner to France in 1776, and concluded a treaty, February 6th, 1778, in which year he was appointed minister plenipotentiary to the court of Versailles, and one of the commissioners for negotiating peace with Great Brit-

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ain. Although he solicited leave, he was not permitted to return till 1785. He was made president of Pennsylvania, and as a delegate to the convention of 1787, approved the federal constitution. He died April 17th, 1790.

How generally he was beloved, both at home and abroad, the various honors which he received, show. Incorruptible, talented, and virtuous, he merited the eulogium of Lord Chatham, who characterized him as "one whom all Europe held in high estimation for his knowledge and wisdom; who was an honor, not to the English nation only, but to human nature." His wit and humor rendered his society acceptable to every class. On one occasion, he was dining with the English ambassador and a French functionary at Paris. The former rose, and gave the following sentiment: "England! the bright sun whose rays illuminate the world!" The French gentleman, struggling between patriotism and politeness, proposed, "France! the moon whose mild beams dispel the shades of night." Doctor Franklin, rising in turn, said, "General George Washington! the Joshua who commanded the sun and moon to stand still, and they obeyed him!" Franklin's wit and humor are happily displayed in an epitaph which he once wrote.

THE BODY

OF

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN,
PRINTER

(LIKE THE COVER OF AN OLD BOOK,

ITS CONTENTS TORN OUT,

AND STRIPPED OF ITS LETTERING AND GILDING),

LIES HERE, FOOD FOR WORMS;

YET THE WORK ITSELF SHALL NOT BE LOST,

FOR IT WILL (AS HE BELIEVED) APPEAR ONCE MORE
IN A NEW

AND MORE BEAUTIFUL EDITION,

CORRECTED AND AMENDED

BY

THE AUTHOR.

FRANKLIN, Sir JOHN, was born at Spilsby, Lincolnshire, in 1786. His early love for the sea led him into the navy as a midshipman at the age of fourteen. In 1803 he accompanied Capt. Flanders in a voyage of discovery to the South Seas, and was wrecked on the coast of New Holland. He was at Copenhagen, Trafalgar, and New Orleans. His first Arctic voyage was in 1814, as second to Capt. Buchan. He was also in the expedition of Ross and Parry. Afterward, with

Mr. Richardson, he made two arduous journeys by land in the polar regions, and for his services was knighted. From 1830 to 1843 he was governor of Van Diemen's Land. On the 19th of May, 1845, he sailed once more for the frozen seas of the north. After a time the anxiety of Christendom was awakened in behalf of Sir John and his comrades. Expedition after expedition, both from England and America, was dispatched for their rescue. The generous toil was in vain. The sad fate of the long missing party was at last ascertained, but not from a survivor's lips. [See NORTH-WEST PASSAGE.]

FREDEGONDE, the wife of Chilperic of France, a ruthless woman who persuaded her husband to oppress his subjects. She is said to have murdered Sigebert, Meroveus, the son of Chilperic, Andoveus, his brother, and Pretextatus, Bishop of Rouen. Afterward, retiring to Paris, she continued her persecutions of Brunchaut, and Childebert her son, took the field, and vanquished him with the slaughter of 30,000 of his army. She then wasted Champagne, and retook Paris. She died in 597, after having caused Chilperic to be assassinated.

FREDERICK I., surnamed Barbarossa, succeeded to the imperial crown, on the death of his uncle, Conrad III., in 1152. His first business was to insure the tranquillity of Germany, after which he marched into Italy, and assumed its sovereignty. He afterward renewed the war, took Milan a second time, and destroyed it, but he was excommunicated by the pope. He engaged in the crusades against the Turks, defeated Saladin in two combats, and took several cities from the infidels. He was drowned July 10th, 1190; in the midst of his successes.

FREDERICK II., King of Prussia, commonly called the Great, was the son of Frederick William I., and was born January 21st, 1712. His education was strict, but when he grew up, he showed so strong an inclination to literature and music, as to incur the displeasure of his father, who considered reading as beneath the dignity of a monarch and a man. So harsh was the conduct of his parent, that in 1730 he attempted to escape from Prussia, but was taken with his traveling companion, Lieutenant Catt, who was put to death by order of the king. The prince

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himself was punished by confinement. The death of his father raised him to the throne, May 31st, 1740, and, by taking advantage of the defenseless state of Maria Theresa, he added Silesia to his dominions. In 1744, he again took up arms against Austria; and the treaty of Dresden, in 1745, left him in possession of an extended territory. In 1755, he entered into an alliance with England, which produced the seven years' war; in which Frederick exhibited all the powers of his character as a skillful general. In 1757, he had to contend with Russia, Austria, Saxony, Sweden, and France; notwithstanding which, and though his enemies made themselves masters of his capital, he extricated himself from his difficulties, and by the battle of Torgau repaired all his losses. In 1763, peace was restored. Frederick afterward led a philosophic life, with the exception of his wicked share in dismembering Poland in 1773. He died August 17th, 1786.

FRENEAU, PHILIP, a poet of the American Revolution, died at Freehold, N. J., Dec. 18th, 1832, aged about eighty. He was for some time a captive in the Scorpion prison-ship at New York.

FRIDAY, the sixth day in the week, was so called from Friga, a Scandinavian goddess commonly supposed to be the same with Venus. She was the wife of Thor, and the goddess of peace, fertility, and riches. Friga, Thor, and Odin composed the court or supreme council of the gods. The Mohammedans consider Friday holy, because on that day the Hegira occurred. *Per contra*, throughout Christendom from time immemorial, Friday has been dreaded as a day of ill omen. From the earliest days of Christianity the Friday before Easter has been kept as a solemn fast, in remembrance of the crucifixion of Christ, Friday, April 3d, A.D. 33. By the Saxon Christians this fast was called Long Friday, because of the great length of the offices observed and fastings enjoined. The name Good Friday is peculiar to the Episcopal church. The evil repute of this day of the week may have arisen from the fact that it was darkened by our Saviour's death. A superstitious fear of it has been especially prevalent among seamen. It would seem that Americans, whether mariners or landmen, have little cause to dread this day.

On Friday, August 21st, 1492, Christopher Columbus sailed on his great voyage of discovery. On Friday, October 12th, 1492, he first discovered land. On Friday, January 4th, 1493, he sailed on his return to Spain, and had he not reached home in safety, the happy result that led to the settlement of this vast continent, would not have been known. On Friday, March 15th, 1493, he arrived at Palos in safety. On Friday, November 22d, 1493, he arrived at Hispaniola, on his second voyage to America. On Friday, June 13th, 1494, he, though unknown to himself, discovered the continent of America. On Friday, March 5th, 1496, Henry VII. of England gave to John Cabot his commission, which led to the discovery of North America; this is the first American state paper in England. On Friday, September 7th, 1565, Melendez founded St. Augustine, the oldest town in the United States by more than forty years. On Friday, November 10th, 1620, the Mayflower, with the Pilgrims, made the harbor of Provincetown, and on that day they signed that august compact, the forerunner of our present glorious constitution. On Friday, December 22d, 1620, the Pilgrims made their final landing at Plymouth rock. On Friday, February 22d, 1732, George Washington, the father of American freedom, was born. On Friday, June 16th, Bunker Hill was seized and fortified. On Friday, October 7th, 1777, the surrender of Saratoga was made, which had such power and influence in inducing France to declare for our cause. On Friday, October 19th, 1781, the surrender at Yorktown, the crowning glory of the American arms, occurred. On Friday, July 7th, 1776, the motion in Congress was made by John Adams, seconded by Richard Henry Lee, that the united colonies were, and of right ought to be, free and independent. Thus, by numerous examples, we see that, however it may be with foreign nations, Americans need never dread to begin on Friday any undertaking, however momentous it may be.

FRIEDLAND, a town of Bohemia, memorable for the battle fought there on the 14th of June, 1807, between the French and the allied Russians and Prussians, which resulted in the total defeat of the latter, with immense loss. Napoleon commanded the French in



FULTON'S FIRST STEAMBOAT.

person. The treaty of Tilsit was a result of his victory.

FRIENDLY ISLANDS, a group of islands in the South Pacific Ocean, 150 in number. They are very fertile, but contain but few springs of good water. They were discovered by Tasman in 1642, and visited in 1773 by Captain Cook, who thought the inhabitants amicable and inoffensive, and christened the isles accordingly. It was afterward learned that they intended to kill him and seize his vessels. The people are industrious, and many have been converted to Christianity by missionaries.

FRISIANS, an old tribe of Germans, inhabiting Friesland. Prussia took possession of East Friesland in 1744, and it was annexed to Hanover in 1815.

FRITH, JOHN, an early martyr to the reformation in England, was burned about 1533; Frith's work on the Eucharist is supposed to have been the first English treatise on the side of the reformed doctrines.

FROBISHER, Sir MARTIN, the first Englishman who tried to find a north-west passage to the Pacific, in 1576. He entered the strait since known by his name. He was knighted for his services against the Armada.

He died in 1594 from a wound got in an attack on Brest.

FROISSART, JOHN, the celebrated French chronicler, died in 1402, aged sixty-nine.

FRY, ELIZABETH, who has been called 'the female Howard,' was born in 1780, at Earlham, Norfolk. Her maiden name was Gurney, and she was a member of the society of Friends. Her life was devoted to labors of love in behalf of the poor, the afflicted, and the suffering. In her endeavors for the reformation of criminals she visited all the principal jails in Great Britain, France, Holland, Denmark, and Prussia. The unwearying benevolence of this excellent woman made serious inroads on her health, and she died at Ramsgate, October 11th, 1844.

FUENTES D'ONORE, BATTLE OF, in Portugal, May 5th, 1811, between the French under Massena, who desired to relieve Almeida, and a greatly inferior force commanded by Lord Wellington. The fight lasted until evening, and victory rested with neither army.

FULLER, THOMAS, an eminent English divine and writer, born 1608 died 1661, aged fifty-three. He was the author of various works in practical divinity and history, but his quaint melange, "The Worthies of Eng-

land," is now best known. His memory was wonderful: it is said that he could repeat five hundred unconnected words after twice hearing them, and recite all the signs in the principal thoroughfare of London after once passing through it and back again. He was chaplain to Charles II.

FULTON, ROBERT, the celebrated American engineer, was born in Pennsylvania in 1765. At an early age he exhibited a fondness for the mechanical arts, and a talent for drawing. In his twenty-second year, he went to England, and subsequently to France, distinguishing himself in both countries by mechanical inventions. He returned to America in 1806. Mr. Livingston, the American ambassador to

France, furnished him with funds to carry out his plans. Fulton had built a steamboat upon the Seine in 1803, which was partly successful. In 1807, the first attempt at steam navigation in America was made upon the Hudson. The maximum speed was only five miles an hour. In 1809 Mr. Fulton took a patent for his invention, and in 1811 a second patent for subsequent improvements. He died February 24th, 1815.

FUSELI, HENRY, was born at Zurich, Feb. 7th, 1741, and bred to the church. He came to England in 1763, and by the advice of Sir Joshua Reynolds adopted painting as a profession, wherein he attained a flattering eminence. He died April 16th, 1825.

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GADSDEN, CHRISTOPHER, lieutenant-governor of South Carolina, was born in 1724. He was an early and ardent friend of liberty, and discharged the duties of member of the provincial congress with ability and applause. After the capture of Charleston by the British in 1780, Mr. Gadsden and other firm patriots were arrested, in flagrant violation of the terms of capitulation, and incarcerated for months in dungeons at St. Augustine. He died Aug. 28th, 1805.

GAELS, a family of the Celts, who passed over from Gaul to Britain and the neighboring islands. Traces of them are still found in the remote districts of Ireland and Scotland.

GAGE, THOMAS, the last royal governor of Massachusetts. He was lieutenant under Braddock, witnessed his defeat, and bore his body from the field of battle. In 1760 he was appointed governor of Montreal, and a few years afterward succeeded to the chief command of the British forces in America. He was the successor of Hutchinson in the office of governor of Massachusetts. Gage was naturally a benevolent and amiable man, but his sense of duty forced him to the execution of the odious measures of his masters in England. He went home in the autumn of 1775, and died in April, 1787.

GAINES, EDMUND PENDLETON, major-general in the American army, born in Virginia,

1777, entered the army in 1799, served with distinction in the war of 1812, and died in 1849.

GALATIA, originally part of Phrygia and Cappadocia, obtained its name from the settlement of a large body of Gauls in that section of Asia Minor, about B.C. 239. It became a Roman province, B.C. 25. St. Paul appears to have visited Galatia twice, about A.D. 50 and 55 (Acts xvi. 6; xviii. 23).

GALBA, SERGIUS, or SERVIUS SULPICIUS, succeeded Nero on the imperial throne. He had risen gradually through various state offices, although continually exposed to the jealousy of Nero, who ordered him to be assassinated; and having escaped the toils which were laid for him, he was saluted emperor, A.D. 68. His avarice induced him to profit by the sale of offices, and his appointment of Piso Licinianus, instead of Otho, to fill the office of colleague in the government, exasperated the prætorians, who put him to death, A.D. 69, in the seventy-second year of his age, after a reign of three months.

GALENUS, CLAUDIUS, commonly called GALEN, a celebrated Greek physician, who lived in the second century of the Christian era. He was an oracle in medical science for centuries.

GALILEO, or GALILEI, was born at Pisa, July 15th, 1564. He was a professor of math-

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ematics at Pisa, and afterward at Padua. He constructed for himself a telescope in 1609, with which he discovered mountains and cavities in the moon, the round disc of the planets, the four satellites of Jupiter, and spots on the sun. For teaching the Copernican theory, he was accused of heresy, examined by the inquisition, and put to the torture. Worn out by age, he succumbed to his persecutors, and abjured his objectionable doctrines, in 1633. In his later years he became blind. He died at Florence, January 8th, 1642.

GALL, FRANCIS JOSEPH, the founder of the science of phrenology, was born in the duchy of Baden, March 9th, 1758 and died in Paris in 1828.

GALLATIN, ALBERT, born in Geneva, 1761, came to America in 1779, was for a while tutor at Cambridge, and finally removed to Pennsylvania. He represented that state as representative and senator in Congress from 1793 to 1801. President Jefferson appointed him secretary of the treasury in 1802, and he administered that department with eminent ability till 1813, when he was sent abroad to negotiate peace with Great Britain. He was afterward minister to France, Great Britain, and the Netherlands. He died in 1849.

GALLAUDET, REV. THOMAS H., the pioneer of deaf-mute instruction in America, died at Hartford, Sept. 10th, 1851, aged sixty-four. He visited Europe in 1815, acquired the art from Abbe Sicard, and returned in August of the next year, with Laurent Clerc, one of Sicard's most intelligent deaf-mute pupils. He was the first principal of the American Asylum at Hartford, resigned in 1830, and became chaplain at the Retreat for the Insane in that city.

GALVANI, LUIGI, a physician and physiologist, famous for his discovery of galvanism, was born at Bologna in 1737, and died in 1798.

GAMA, VASCO DE, the celebrated Portuguese navigator, who in 1497 discovered the way to the East Indies around the Cape of Good Hope. He lived in the reign of Emanuel the Fortunate. He was appointed viceroy of the Portuguese Indies, and died in December, 1524, at Goa.

GANSEVOORT, PETER, was born in Albany, N. Y., July 16th, 1749. He accompanied Montgomery to Canada, in 1775, and was raised to the rank of colonel the ensuing year.

August 2d, 1777, he was besieged with his command in Fort Stanwix (where the town of Rome now stands), by Colonel St. Leger, with a body of British Tories and Indians, who, after a most gallant defense, were repelled and forced to retreat, August 22d. Gen. Gansevoort died July 2d, 1812.

GARDEN, ALEXANDER, an eminent botanist, born in Scotland, 1730; removed to Charleston, S. C., 1752, where he practiced medicine; died in London, 1791, aged sixty-one.

GARDENING. Introduced into England from the Netherlands, whence most vegetables were imported till 1500; muskmelons, the pale gooseberry, salads, garden roots, cabbages, &c., were brought from Flanders, and hops from Artois, 1520; rye and wheat from Tartary and Siberia, where they are yet indigenous; barley and oats unknown, but certainly not indigenous in England; rice from Ethiopia; buckwheat, Asia; borage, Syria; cresses, Crete; cauliflower, Cyprus; asparagus, Asia; chervil, Italy; fennel, Canary Islands; anise and parsley, Egypt; garlic, the East; shalots, Siberia; horse-radish, China; kidney beans, East Indies; gourds, Astracan; lentils, France; potatoes, Brazil; tobacco, America; cabbage, lettuce, &c., Holland. Jasmine came from the East Indies; the elder tree from Persia; the tulip from Cappadocia; the daffodil from Italy; the lily from Syria; the tube rose from Java and Ceylon; the carnation and pink from Italy, &c.; ranunculus from the Alps; apples from Syria; apricots from Epirus; artichokes from Holland; celery from Flanders; cherries from Pontus; currants from Zante; damask and musk roses from Damascus, as well as plums; gilliflowers, carnations, the Provence rose, &c., from Toulouse, in France; oranges and lemons from Spain; beans from Greece, and peas from Spain.

GARDINER, STEPHEN, Bishop of Winchester, was a strenuous opponent of the reformation in England. He lost his place under Henry VIII., but regained it under the bigoted Mary, whom he instigated to persecute the Protestants with fire and sword. 1483-1555.

GARRICK, DAVID, one of the most celebrated and talented of English actors, and the friend of Dr. Johnson. He was born at Lichfield, 1716, and died Jan. 20th, 1779, having amassed a bountiful fortune by the profession he had elevated and adorned.

GARTER, ORDER OF THE. This famous order of knighthood was instituted by Edward III. of England. King Edward, being of a military genius, and engaged in a war for recovering France, made it his business to draw the best soldiers of Europe into his interest. With this view he projected a restoration of King Arthur's round table, and proclaimed a solemn tilting, to invite foreigners of quality and courage to the exercise. The place for the solemnity was fixed at Windsor. He published his royal letters of protection for the safe coming and returning of such foreign knights as intended to venture their reputation at the jousts and tournaments, which were to be held on the 19th of January, 1344. He provided a great supper to begin the solemnity, and then ordering this feast to be annually kept at Whitsuntide, he for that purpose erected a particular building in the castle, wherein he placed a round table, of two hundred feet diameter, in imitation of King Arthur's at Winchester, and thereat entertained the knights at his own expense of a hundred pounds a week.

The said king issuing out his garter for the signal of a battle that was crowned with success (supposed to be Cressy), he instituted an order of knights, April 23d, 1349-50, giving the garter pre-eminence among its ensigns, whence the select number whom he incorporated into a fraternity were styled *Equites Aureæ Periscelidis*, 'the knights of the golden garter.' The Black Prince was the first of the original twenty-five knights.

The habits and ensigns of this order consist of the garter, surcoat, mantle, hood, george, collar, cap, and feathers; the four first were assigned by the founder, and the rest by Henry VIII.

The garter, appointed to be worn by the knights on the left leg between the knee and calf, was instituted by the founder, as a tie of association, honor, and military virtue, to bind the knights strictly to himself and each other in friendship, and as an ensign of unity and combination, to promote the honor of God, and the interest of their prince and sovereign. He also caused to be wrought in gold letters this motto, *Honi soit qui mal y pense* (Evil to him who evil thinks); declaring thereby the equity of his inten-

tion, retorting shame and defiance upon him who thought ill of the just enterprise in which he had engaged for the support of his right to the French crown. The garter is of blue velvet bordered with gold (having the letters of the motto of the same), and is buckled on at the time of the election.

The knight's pantaloons are of pearl-colored silk. On the outside of the right knee is fixed a knot of open silver lace and ribbons intermixed, in the form of a large rose; and, a little below the knee, is placed the garter. His shoes, which are of white shammy, with red heels, have each a knot on the exterior side. His doublet is cloth of silver, adorned before and behind, and down the sleeves, with several guards or rows of silver lace, each having a row of small buttons set down the middle. The cuffs are open, and adorned with the before-mentioned lace and ribbons set in small loops. At the bottom of the upper seam of each cuff is fixed a knot of silver ribbons that fall over his gloves, which are of kid, laced at the top with silver, and adorned at the opening with a knot, like that on the cuff. His surcoat is of crimson velvet, lined with white taffeta. His cap is of black velvet adorned with a diamond band, and a plume of white feathers, with a heron sprig in the middle. The mantle is of sky-colored velvet, adorned on the left shoulder with St. George's cross encircled with the garter, wreathed on the edges with blue and gold. The hood is of crimson velvet and lined with white taffeta. The collar, which weighs thirty ounces troy, of gold, was introduced by Henry VIII., and contains twenty-six garters enameled, and as many knots, alluding to the sovereign of the order, to which is pendent the figure of St. George and the dragon, which is a gold medal, and may be enriched with jewels at the pleasure of the owner. The officers of the order are the prelate of the garter, the chancellor of the garter, the register of the garter, and black rod, the last officer being instituted by the founder. The knights are installed in St. George's Chapel, at Windsor.

GASCOIGNE, Sir WILLIAM, an eminent English lawyer and judge, born 1350, died 1413.

GASSENDI, PIERRE, an eminent French

astronomer and philosopher, one of the great restorers of inductive philosophy, died 1655, aged sixty-three.

GAS, introduced in London, for lighting Pall Mall, in 1809; first into the United States, at Baltimore, 1821.

GASTON DE FOIX, Duke of Nemours, the nephew of Louis XII. of France, was born in 1488. He ran a brilliant career in arms, and fell in the battle of Ravenna, April 11th, 1512.

GATES, HORATIO, was an Englishman by birth, and the godson of Horace Walpole; scandal said the filial relationship was closer and less sanctified. In Braddock's disastrous campaign, he commanded one of the independent companies from New York, and was severely wounded. Afterward he reached the rank of major in the regular army, but neither his pay nor promotion equaled his desires; and after several years of solicitation and waiting for something better, he sold his commission, a disappointed man, crossed the Atlantic in 1772, purchased an estate in Virginia, espoused the popular side, and renewed his old campaigning acquaintance with George Washington. When Washington was put at the head of the continental army, at his express request Gates was made adjutant-general, with the rank of brigadier. His experience was of much service in organizing the raw forces at Cambridge. In May, 1776, he was made major-general, and in June the command of the army engaged in the invasion of Canada was conferred upon him. Questions of rank and precedence arose between him and Schuyler, the commander of the northern department. Through the intrigues of Gates with Congress, Schuyler was removed in August, 1777, and Gates made his successor. Schuyler was then busy in opposing the progress of Burgoyne's expedition; the glory of the victory that ensued was due in good part to his previous operations, though his supplanter had the fame. The Conway cabal raised up Gates as a rival to Washington, but their schemes, although very annoying and embarrassing, were finally abortive. When Gates was named to the command in the South, General Lee predicted, "His northern laurels will be exchanged for southern willows." This was verified in the disaster of Camden. His con-

duct was investigated, and he was acquitted of blame. Meantime hostilities had ended. Gen. Gates removed to the city of New York, and died April 10th, 1806, aged seventy-eight. A few years before, he had manumitted his slaves, but many preferred to remain in the family. Vanity was the general's besetting sin, often obscuring his judgment and better traits.

GAY, JOHN, the author of the "Beggars' Opera," "Black-Eyed Susan," and "The Hare with Many Friends," died Dec. 4th, 1732, aged forty-four. Over his grave in Westminster Abbey is a tablet with a long recital of his praises, set up by his friends, the Duke and Duchess of Queensberry; but few read more than the irreverent epitaph which Gay himself composed:

"Life's a jest, and all things show it:
I thought so once: now I know it."

Gay and Swift were fast friends, and the letter of Pope, announcing Gay's death, was thus indorsed by Swift: "On my dear friend Mr. Gay's death. Received, December 15th, but not read till the 20th, by an impulse foreboding some misfortune."

GENGHIS KHAN, the famous Mongol emperor, was born A.D. 1163. He founded in 1206 that vast empire, the grandeur of which was the theme of admiration throughout the world. The leading men of the small domain left him by his father having rebelled against him, he marched upon them with an army of 30,000 men, and completely frustrated their designs. Tartary and China and all inland Asia fell before the power of the conqueror, whose dominions extended to the banks of the Dnieper. He died Aug. 24th, 1227, leaving to his children an empire twelve hundred leagues in length. The conquests of the great khan were stained with the most atrocious cruelties; his march was like the progress of a fiery storm, bursting over several countries at once, and involving them in ruin. According to the most moderate calculation, no fewer than 2,000,000 men fell beneath the murdering sword, without reckoning the numbers that affliction and the horrors of slavery consigned to the grave.

[See MONGOLS.]

GENLIS, STEPHANIE, Countess de, was born near Autun, in 1746. Soon after her birth she narrowly escaped suffocation, for a

gentleman who called to see her mother, was about to sit down upon the chair on which the infant was laid, had actually divided the flaps of his coat for that purpose, and was only prevented by the united screams of the nurse and mother. The literary talent of Mademoiselle de St. Aubin early developed itself, and induced the Count de Genlis to offer her his hand without ever having seen her. She was governess to the children of the notorious Duke of Orleans, to whose number she added an illegitimate daughter, afterward the wife of Lord Edward Fitzgerald. Madame de Genlis died, after a wandering life, in 1830, just after one of her pupils had become King of the French.

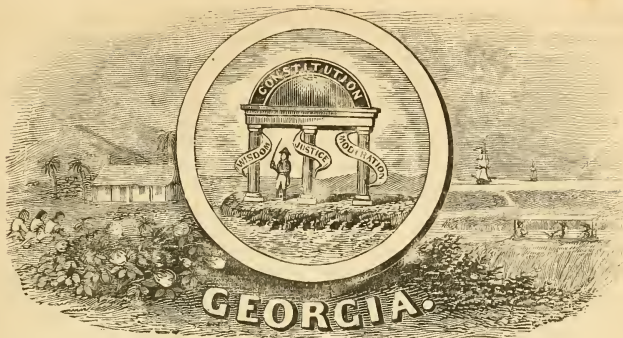
GENOA is now a duchy of Sardinia. The city of Genoa, on the Mediterranean coast, has a population of 100,000. The harbor is capacious and secure. The city is built on a declivity, and the streets are narrow, dirty, and steep. The duchy contains 1,257 square miles, and 545,000 inhabitants. Genoa is a town of great antiquity. It was seized by the Langobards, after the fall of the western Roman empire, and came next into the hands of the Franks. It was erected into a republic after the fall of the Carolingian dynasty. Quarrels with the Pisans and Venetians occupied the Genoese for many years. In the thirteenth century the Genoese founded many and wealthy colonies in the Levant and the Euxine. The French assumed the sovereignty of Genoa, but did not long retain it. Internal dissensions not unfrequently enabled foreign powers to seize upon the state. In 1528 tranquillity was restored to Genoa, an aristocratical form of government established, and a doge placed at the head of the state. Some time after this the city was convulsed by furious contentions between the old and new nobility, the two factions into which the aristocracy was divided. By degrees Genoa lost her foreign possessions, the last of which, Corsica, revolted in 1730. During the invasion of Italy in 1797, Genoa observed a strict neutrality, but the dissensions of the Genoese did not escape the vigilant eye of Napoleon. He established a form of government on the French representative system, and gave it the title of the Ligurian republic. In 1805 it was annexed to the French empire. In 1815 the congress of Vienna annexed

Genoa to the territories of Sardinia. The city was seized by revolutionists, and a republic proclaimed in April, 1850, but General Marmora quelled the rising before the month was out.

GEORGE I., II., III., IV., of England. [See HANOVER, HOUSE OF.]

GEORGIA has an area of 58,000 square miles; population in 1860, 1,057,286, of whom 591,588 were whites, 462,198 slaves, and 3,500 free negroes. Along the coast is a level strip, interspersed with many swamps. West of this tract are a series of plains forming the sand-hill belt or pine barrens, thickly grown with forests of the long-leaved pine; varied with fine savannahs, verdant and well-watered, and ornamented with clumps of evergreens and other trees and shrubs. The lower sides of these savannahs are often joined by a great cane swamp, dotted with coppices and hummocks variously wooded. The northern half of the state is a hilly region, blessed with a strong and productive soil and mild climate; "fertile and delightful, continually replenished by innumerable rivulets, either coursing about the fragrant hills, or springing from the rocky precipices in many cascades, invigorating by their purity and coolness the hot and sultry air." Into this section the Blue Ridge enters from North Carolina, and, suddenly changing its general course, runs nearly east and west into Alabama. The largest rivers of Georgia are the Savannah, which divides it from South Carolina, the Altamaha, and the Chattahoochee. Along the Florida border, between the headwaters of the Suwanee and the St. Mary's, there is an extensive series of swamps, the Okefinokee, covered with a thick growth of bay-trees, vines, and underwood, presenting in the wet season the appearance of wide lakes, with islands of rich high land. The Creeks had a tradition that somewhere in this wilderness dwelt a race whose women were incomparably beautiful; they called them the daughters of the sun. Some of the Creek hunters, when lost among the labyrinth of bogs, had been relieved by these charming maids; but all search for the blissful island was in vain.

On the low islands that line the Georgia coast is grown the long-staple cotton, thence called Sea-island cotton, whose value exceeds that



of any other in the market. Rice is the other great agricultural staple. Tar, pitch, turpentine, and lumber, yielded by the broad forests of pine, are prominent exports. The mineral resources are imperfectly known: iron ores are abundant, and much gold has been found.

Georgia was colonized in 1732 by a private company, and the colony named in honor of George II. In 1733 Gen. Oglethorpe founded the town of Savannah. The colony was intended as an asylum to relieve the distresses of the poor in England, and to secure the frontiers of South Carolina from the Indians and Spaniards. Several bodies of Germans and Highlanders were brought over soon afterward. The lands were held on a military tenure. In 1752 it became a royal government, and in 1755 a provincial legislature was established. It joined its sister colonies in the Revolution, but from 1778 till the close of the war was occupied by a British force. Its territory originally included the present states of Alabama and Mississippi. The Creeks and Cherokees, whose home was here, have been removed beyond the Mississippi.

Georgia seceded, Jan. 19, 1861, and was throughout one of the most important bases of the rebellion, as the main rebel railroad systems centered at Atlanta, and her financial and agricultural resources were a principal source of supplies. She also suffered severely, especially during that long course of tremendous operations which included Chicamunga, Chattanooga, the advance on Atlanta, the fall of that place and Sherman's great march from Atlanta to the sea. During

this same period, several destructive forays were made into the state by Union cavalry.

Milledgeville, the capital of the state, is pleasantly situated at the head of steamboat navigation on the Oconee, in the centre of a rich cotton district; population in 1850, 2,216. Savannah is finely placed for a commercial town, accessible to large ships from the sea, and communicating with the interior by the noble river on which it stands. It is built on a plain about fifty feet above the water, from which it is a fine sight, with its spacious and regular streets, many public squares, handsome buildings, and frequent groves of trees. The former unhealthiness has been done away by judicious drainage. Savannah is one of the most flourishing cities in the South, and the great commercial depot of Georgia; population in 1860, 22,292. It suffered a severe blow in 1820 by a conflagration whose loss was set down at \$4,000,000. It was taken by the British in 1778, and held until 1782. The great interior emporium of Georgia is Augusta, at the head of steam navigation on the Savannah, well laid out and built, and the market of an extensive and populous country; population 12,493, in 1860. Macon, on the Ocmulgee, consisted in 1822 of a single cabin; in 1853 it had 7,000 inhabitants, and its trade is rapidly growing. Columbus stands upon a plain about sixty feet above the Chattahoochee, just below the falls; population 7,000 in 1853. The banks of the river are here very beautiful, and a spacious and regular town stands where in 1828 the solitude of the primeval forest lay. Athens, on the Oconee, is

the seat of Franklin College, originally incorporated as the University of Georgia. Atlanta, the junction of three great railways, has grown rapidly of late.

GEORGIA, a rich country of Asia, south of the Caucasus, between the Black Sea and the Caspian, now belonging to Russia. The beauty and grace of its women have long been famous. The Caucasian country is the seat of a great variety of tribes, differing in speech, habits, and many physical characteristics. The Georgians are the purest specimens of the Caucasian type, which the old ethnologists made the highest class of the human race. The Assetes have a marked affinity in habits and customs with the ancient Germans. Here are the Yezidis, who worship the evil spirit, Armenians, Tartars, &c. In the same village, Armenians, Georgians, and Tartars dwell together, yet rarely intermix; each people preserving its own rites, traditions, customs, and dress. All the races who have passed through this country have left memorials. Here are the dwellings of the Troglodytes, entire cities cut out of the rock; the colossal ruins of aqueducts and canals that date to the times of the great monarchies of Babylon, Assyria, and Persia; with Greek and Roman edifices, and castles of the middle ages. It is very remarkable that the prophet Elijah is a particular object of adoration among almost all the Caucasian tribes, whether Mohammedan or heathen. There are caverns consecrated to him, where the inhabitants assemble on certain days to offer sacrifices. If one is struck dead by lightning, they say that he was killed by the prophet Elijah, and his relatives rejoice.

GERMANICUS CÆSAR, a son of Claudius Drusus Nero, and Antonia, the virtuous niece of Augustus. He was adopted by his uncle Tiberius, and raised to the highest offices of state. At the time of the death of Augustus, he was employed in a war with Germany, but Tiberius, jealous of the hero, recalled him, although he permitted him to celebrate a triumph for his victories. He then sent him to the east with sovereign authority, but saw his successes with a jealous eye. Germanicus died near Antioch, A.D. 19, in the thirty-fourth year of his age, not without suspicion of poison.

GERMANTOWN, a town of Pennsylvania, seven miles north-west of Philadelphia, mem-

orable for a battle fought here on the 4th of October, 1777, between the Americans, under Washington, and the British, to the disadvantage of the former. Victory was once within the grasp of the Americans, when, in the bewildering fog that enveloped the field, the cry that the British were gathering in their rear, threw them into disastrous panic. The loss of the enemy was 71 killed, 415 wounded, and 14 missing; that of the Americans, 150 killed, 521 wounded, and 400 made prisoners.

GERMANY is bounded west by the Netherlands, Belgium, and France; south by Switzerland and the Austrian territories in Italy; east by the kingdoms of Hungary, Galicia, Poland, and Prussia; and north by the Baltic. Its area is estimated at 284,000 square miles. The following are the states which form the Germanic confederation: Austria, Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Hanover, Wurtemberg, Baden, Hesse Cassel, Hesse Darmstadt, Lauenburg, Luxemburg, Brunswick, Mecklenburg Schwerin, Nassau, Saxe Weimar, Saxe Coburg and Gotha, Saxe Meiningen Hildburghausen, Saxe Altenburg, Mecklenburg Strelitz, Oldenburg, Anhalt Dessau, Anhalt Bernburg, Anhalt Köthen, Schwarzburg Sondershausen, Schwarzburg Rudolstadt, Liechtenstein, Waldeck, Reuss, Schauenburg Lippe, Lippe Detmold, Hesse Homburg, Lübeck, Frankfurt, Bremen, and Hamburg.

Germany, like Gaul, was anciently occupied by numerous tribes, some of which only were subjugated by the Romans, after a very fierce and prolonged resistance. It was afterward conquered by Charlemagne, who fixed his imperial residence in Germany. The posterity of Charlemagne inherited this country until 911. Otho the Illustrious, Duke of Saxony, having declined the royal dignity on account of his great age, Conrad I., first duke of Franconia, was unanimously elected to fill the vacant throne in 912. Thence, until 1806, the empire of Germany was an elective monarchy. Frederick Barbarossa ascended the throne in 1152, and during his splendid reign was formed the famous league of the Hanseatic towns for the protection of commerce. Frederick II. was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1212. He did much for the encouragement of arts and literature.

The princes of the empire, assembled in diet at Frankfort, elected Rodolph of Haps-

burg to the imperial throne in 1272. He swayed the imperial sceptre with ability for about eighteen years, and died, after a short illness, in the seventy-third year of his age. Albert I. of Austria was invested with the diadem at Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1298. Under his harsh administration, the Swiss revolted, and the foundation of the Helvetic republic was laid.

Henry VII. of Luxemburg was elected in 1308, and now commenced the celebrated division of Guelphs and Ghibellines in the contests between the emperors and popes. On his death, Louis of Bavaria was recognized as lawful possessor of the throne in 1330. Charles IV., King of Bohemia, received the imperial diadem in 1347. His reign was prosperous, and under his sway a spirit of opposition to the corrupt clergy began to manifest itself. At the diet of Nuremberg, 1356, he proclaimed the famous Golden Bull, which became the fundamental law of the empire. This regulated the rights, privileges, and duties of the electors; the manner of the election and coronation of an emperor; the coinage, customs, and other matters of commerce; the rights and obligations of the free imperial cities, &c.

Sigismund ascended the throne in 1411. He concurred with the pope in convoking the famous council of Constance, by which the reformer Huss was condemned; the war of the Hussites followed. Albert II. died in a short time, and, in 1440, the electors placed upon the imperial throne Frederick III., Duke of Austria. During his long reign, science and learning made great advance, and many universities were founded throughout Germany. His son Maximilian was elected king of the Romans, and invested with the supreme dignity in 1493. He was an active and enterprising prince. He ended many abuses which had desolated the empire, particularly private feuds. He improved the courts, introduced a system of police, and established a post in 1516. He organized the army anew and better. During his reign the Reformation began. [See REFORMATION.] At the death of Maximilian, Francis I. of France, Henry VIII. of England, and Charles of Spain sought the imperial crown. The latter was preferred. [See CHARLES V.] Ferdinand, the brother of Charles, succeeded him at his abdication.

Then came Maximilian II., the son of Ferdinand, who had already received the crown of Bohemia, and had been elected king of the Romans. On the demise of this illustrious prince, his eldest son, who had been elected king of the Romans, and acknowledged as his successor to the crown of Hungary and Bohemia, succeeded to the empire by the name of Rodolph II., in 1576. The emperor ceded Bohemia to his brother Matthias, who succeeded him in 1612. On the demise of Matthias, Ferdinand was declared emperor in 1619, but, on account of his fanaticism, the Protestants renounced allegiance to him, and the 'thirty years' war' was waged with sanguinary animosity by both parties. Ferdinand was at first triumphant, and Germany began to tremble with the apprehension of slavish subjection; Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, rushing with impetuosity into the empire, defeated the imperialists, but was slain on the plain of Lutzen.

On the death of Ferdinand II., his son, Ferdinand III., ascended the imperial throne in 1637, at a critical period, and succeeded in tranquilizing Germany, although the flames of war yet rolled unabated. France, Sweden, Denmark, England, and some of the German states were confederated against Spain and the house of Austria. At length a treaty was concluded, in 1648, since known as the peace of Westphalia. By this treaty, the religious and political liberties of the Germans were firmly secured against misrule. On the death of Ferdinand, Leopold I. of Hungary and Bohemia was declared duly elected to the imperial throne in 1658. Scarcely were the troubles in the north composed, when a war with Turkey broke out, while Louis XIV. of France took this opportunity of marching against the German monarch. But notwithstanding his perplexities and embarrassments, Leopold found means to render the crown of Hungary hereditary in his family, an object which had long been desired. The Archduke Joseph was chosen sovereign of Hungary, elected king of the Romans, and ascended the imperial throne in 1705. He governed with stern inflexibility, and continued the Spanish war. The Archduke Charles was elevated to the imperial throne, by the name of Charles VI., in 1711. Anne of England having expressed her pacific intentions, he had to sus-

tain the whole weight of a war with France and Spain, unless he accepted the terms of Louis. At length, however, negotiations were commenced, and the treaty of Utrecht re-established the general peace. Charles died in the twenty-ninth year of his age. He was the author of the 'pragmatic sanction,' which secured all the possessions of the house of Austria to his daughter the Archduchess Maria Theresa, and which was guaranteed by the states of the empire, and by all the great powers of Europe.

The death of Charles, in 1740, was followed by very serious commotions, but the pragmatic sanction was preserved, and the treaty of Fussen and Aix-la-Chapelle terminated the war of the Austrian succession in favor of Maria Theresa. Two years after the conclusion of 'the seven years' war' by the treaty of Hubertsburg, the Emperor Francis, husband of Maria Theresa, died in the twenty-first year of his reign. He was succeeded by his son Joseph II. Joseph joined with Russia and Prussia in the base dismemberment of Poland, but this did not prevent hostilities from being commenced between Austria and Prussia, on account of the succession to the electorate of Bavaria. Maria Theresa, Empress of Germany, Queen of Hungary and Bohemia, and Archduchess of Austria, died in 1780. Joseph II. promulgated a decree in favor of the liberty of the press, which had been hitherto much circumscribed in the Austrian dominions. In 1783 he published an edict for the total abolition of villanage and slavery in Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia; and similar measures were taken soon after for the relief of the peasants of Austrian Poland. He also abolished the use of torture in his hereditary dominions. He was succeeded by his brother, Leopold II., Grand-duke of Tuscany, in 1790.

The French revolution now attracting the attention of all the European powers, a conference was held at Pilnitz between the emperor, the King of Prussia, and the Elector of Saxony; but, instead of advising an immediate attack upon France, Leopold acted with his accustomed moderation, and merely wished to oppose an effectual security against the hurricane which threatened Europe. He was afterward persuaded to commence hos-

tilities, but his designs were soon terminated by his death, in the second year of his reign.

Francis II. succeeded his father in 1792. At the instigation of the King of Prussia, he resolved to use his utmost endeavors for the restoration of the monarchy in France; but the attempts of the allies were so unfortunate in the first campaign, that they commenced the second with altered views, and a feeling of insecurity in consequence of previous losses. The second campaign proved more successful, but that of 1794 was disastrous to the allies. The fourth campaign again raised the hopes of the Austrians. In 1796, from altered views of expediency, the French turned their arms upon the Austrian possessions in Italy, where the victories of Bonaparte soon spread the terror of his name.

At length the court of Vienna, finding that all expectations of effectual opposition to the French were totally unfounded, concluded in 1797 the treaty of Campo-Formio, by which the emperor ceded to France the whole of the Netherlands, and all his former territory in Italy, but received in return the city of Venice, Istria, Dalmatia, and the Venetian islands in the Adriatic. However, the war was renewed with great vigor on both sides, and, in 1799, the Austrians compelled the French to evacuate nearly the whole of Italy. The brilliant successes of the Archduke Charles in Germany, also, reanimated the court of Vienna, and contributed to break off the conferences at Rastadt. In the mean time, Bonaparte having returned from Egypt, and been chosen first consul of the French republic, the war with Austria was destined to take a new turn. That general, at the head of an army of reserve, marched toward Italy, with inconceivable labor crossed the Alps, and advanced to Milan. After reducing Pavia, and defeating the Austrians in the battle of Montebello, the French marched to the plain of Marengo. Both the French and imperialists exhibited extraordinary skill and resolution. At length the first consul, availing himself of an error which had been committed, compelled his enemies to retreat. In Germany the French had opened the campaign with similar success; and General Moreau, after defeating the imperialists in several engagements, formed a junction with

the army of Italy, and obliged the Austrians to conclude an armistice.

Soon after, preliminaries of peace were signed at Paris; but as Bonaparte refused to negotiate with England, the emperor would not ratify them. Hostilities were therefore re-commenced, and the Austrians were defeated by Moreau in the decisive battle of Hohenlinden. This was followed in 1801 by the treaty of Luneville, by which the emperor ceded to France the Belgic provinces and the whole of the country on the left side of the Rhine. In 1805, the court of Vienna entered into an alliance with Russia, against France. Preparation was made for war. Without waiting for the arrival of the Russian troops, the Austrians marched toward the banks of the Danube, where hostilities commenced, and the French, under Bonaparte, after a severe contest, succeeded in defeating the imperialists with great loss. The Austrians retreated, and Bonaparte advanced to Munich. From this time, partial engagements took place, in which the Austrians, though they fought with bravery, were uniformly defeated. The whole Austrian army in Suabia now concentrated itself in and near Ulm; and everything seemed to indicate the approach of a general and decisive battle. However, to the astonishment and concern of all Europe, Gen. Mack, who was in Ulm with 33,000 men, without striking a blow agreed to the terms of capitulation offered by Bonaparte, evacuated that important fortress, and surrendered himself and his troops prisoners of war. Bonaparte was everywhere victorious, and the decisive battle of Austerlitz compelled an armistice, speedily followed by the treaty of Presburg.

In 1806, sixteen German princes renounced their connection with the German empire, and signed at Paris the Confederation of the Rhine, by which they acknowledged Napoleon as their protector. This was followed, on the 6th of August, by the renunciation of the title of Emperor of Germany, by Francis, who assumed that of Emperor of Austria, and publicly absolved all the German provinces and states from their reciprocal duties toward the German empire. In 1809, Francis, smarting under sacrifices already made, and dreading farther encroachments, resolved to try again the chance of war, at a time when a large

proportion of the military force of France was employed in completing the subjugation of Spain. War was declared, in proclamations from the Archduke Charles and the Emperor Francis, and these were followed by a manifesto, stating the provocations and causes of alarm which had been given by France to Austria.

The Austrians were defeated in two battles, one at Abensburg by Napoleon in person, and the other at Eckmühl; and after these defeats, Vienna surrendered to the French emperor. But in the battle of Aspern, which followed soon after, Napoleon experienced the severest check which his career had yet received. After the decisive battle of Wagram, an armistice was concluded. This was followed by a peace between Austria and France, by which Francis ceded to Napoleon all those parts of his territory which bordered on the Adriatic. Other cessions were also made. By a secret article in this treaty, the Emperor Francis agreed to give his daughter, the Archduchess Maria Louisa, in marriage to Napoleon. After the disastrous consequences of the Russian campaign, Austria declared war against France, a declaration which was followed by a treaty of amity and defensive alliance between the courts of Vienna and Petersburg. Russia and Prussia had previously formed treaties with Great Britain. Sweden had also joined the allies, and the accession of Bavaria to the common cause proved the general concurrence of Germany to throw off the yoke of Napoleon. The battle of Leipzig decided the fate of Germany.

After Napoleon abdicated the throne of France in 1814, the allied powers concluded a treaty at Paris by which the German states were to be independent, and united by a federal league. As the Austrian or Catholic Netherlands were unable to secure their independence, Belgium was annexed to the Netherlands, forming a single state, under the sovereignty of the house of Orange. After the battle of Waterloo, in 1815, a congress of the allied powers was held at Vienna, at which the future tranquillity of Germany was provided for by a solemn act of confederation, signed by its sovereigns and free cities, including the Emperor of Austria and the King of Prussia, for those of their possessions formerly appertaining to the German empire,

the King of Denmark for Holstein, and the King of the Netherlands for Luxemburg.

In 1848 a closer union of the German people was proposed. The Prussian king, egged on by the violent excitement then prevalent, urged the German princes and people to abandon their local names and independence, and unite under one guiding hand. This guide he offered himself to be, and he formally 'fused and dissolved the name of Prussia in that of Germany.' A national constitutional assembly was convoked at Frankfort. Austria and Prussia struggled for the ascendancy in the proposed empire, and the result was naught.

EMPERORS OF GERMANY.

CARLOVINGIANS.

- 800. Charlemagne.
- 814. Louis the Debonair, King of France.
- 840. Lothaire, his son; died in a monastery at Treves.
- 855. Louis II., his son.
- 875. Charles the Bald, King of France.
- 877. [Interregnum.]
- 880. Charles the Fat, of France; crowned King of Italy; deposed.
- 887. Arnulf, or Arnoul, his nephew; crowned emperor at Rome in 896.
- 899. Louis III., called IV., his infant son, the last of the Carolingian line in Germany.

THE SAXON DYNASTY.

- 911. Conrad I., Duke of Franconia.
- 918. Henry I., the Fowler, son of Otho, Duke of Saxony.
- 936. Otho I., the Great, his son; crowned by Pope John XII. in 962.
- 973. Otho II., the Bloody; massacred his chief nobility; wounded by a poisoned arrow.
- 983. Otho III., the Red, his son, not of age; poisoned.
- 1002. Henry II., the Saint, Duke of Bavaria.
- 1024. Conrad II., the Salique.
- 1039. Henry III., the Black, his son.
- 1050. Henry IV., his son; excommunicated by Pope Pascal II.; deposed by his son.
- 1106. Henry V.; married Maud, or Matilda, daughter of Henry I. of England.
- 1125. Lothaire II., the Saxon.
- 1138. [Interregnum.]
- 1138. Conrad III., Duke of Franconia.
- 1152. Frederick Barbarossa.
- 1190. Henry VI., the Sharp, his son; he detained Richard I. of England in captivity.
- 1198. Philip, brother to Henry; assassinated.
- 1208. Otho IV., the Superb; excommunicated and deposed.
- 1112. Frederick II., King of Sicily, son of Henry VI.; deposed, and Henry, Landgrave of Thuringia, elected. Frederick died

in 1250, naming his son Conrad his successor, but the pope gave the imperial title to William, Earl of Holland.

- 1250. Conrad IV., son of Frederick.
- 1250. William, Earl of Holland; died in December, 1255. The electors could not agree upon a successor.
- 1256. [Interregnum.]

HOUSES OF HAPSBURG, LUXEMBURG, AND BAVARIA.

- 1273. Rodolph of Hapsburg.
- 1291. [Interregnum.]
- 1292. Adolphus, Count of Nassau, to the exclusion of Albert, Rodolph's son; deposed, and slain at the battle of Spire.
- 1298. Albert, Duke of Austria, son of Rodolph; assassinated by his nephew.
- 1308. Henry VII. of Luxemburg.
- 1313. [Interregnum.]
- 1314. Louis IV., of Bavaria, and Frederick III., of Austria, son of Albert, rival emperors. Frederick died in 1330.
- 1347. Charles IV., of Luxemburg.
- 1378. Wenceslaus, King of Bohemia, his son.
- 1400. Frederick, Duke of Brunswick; murdered as soon as elected.
- 1400. Rupert, Count Palatine of the Rhine.
- 1410. Jossus, Marquess of Moravia; chosen by one party of the electors; died 1411.
- 1410. Sigismund, King of Hungary; elected by another party; King of Bohemia in 1419.

HOUSE OF AUSTRIA.

- 1438. Albert II., the Great, Duke of Austria, and King of Hungary and Bohemia.
- 1439. [Interregnum.]
- 1440. Frederick IV., the Pacific.
- 1493. Maximilian, his son.
- 1519. Charles V. (I. of Spain), his grandson; son of Joan of Castile and Philip of Austria; abdicated.
- 1558. Ferdinand I., King of Hungary, brother of Charles.
- 1564. Maximilian II., his son, King of Bohemia and Hungary.
- 1576. Rodolph II., his son.
- 1612. Matthias, brother of Rodolph.
- 1619. Ferdinand II., cousin of Rodolph, son of the Archduke Charles, King of Hungary.
- 1637. Ferdinand III., son of Ferdinand II.
- 1658. Leopold I., his son.
- 1705. Joseph I., his son.
- 1711. Charles VI., brother of Joseph; succeeded by his daughter.
- 1740. Maria Theresa, Queen of Hungary and Bohemia, whose right to the empire was sustained by England.
- 1742. Charles VII., Elector of Bavaria, whose claim was supported by France. The crown contested in a general war. Charles died in January, 1745.
- 1745. Francis I., of Lorraine, Grand-Duke of Tuscany, consort of Maria Theresa.
- 1765. Joseph II., their son.
- 1790. Leopold II., his brother.
- 1792. Francis II., his son. In 1804 this prince took the title of Emperor of Austria only.

GERRY, ELBRIDGE, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, and afterward vice-president of the United States, was born at Marblehead, Mass., July 17th, 1744. He was graduated at Harvard College, 1762, and afterward, by his success in commercial pursuits, acquired considerable property. From his warm patriotism, he was elected a member of the Massachusetts general court, and to the continental congress in 1775. He held the front rank in that body on naval and commercial matters, and rendered important aid as an able financier. In 1797 he accompanied Gen. Pinckney and Mr. Marshall on a special mission to France, and upon his return was elected governor of Massachusetts for several successive years. In 1809 and 1810 he was again raised to the executive. In 1812 he was elected vice-president, over Jared Ingersoll of Pennsylvania, and died in office at Washington, November, 1814.

During his last year of office as governor of Massachusetts, his party friends perpetrated a glaring iniquity in forming senatorial districts, which gave an expressive word to the political vocabulary of the country. The object was to get a majority of the legislature out of a minority of the votes of the people. As an instance, in the old, rich, populous county of Essex, it was necessary to cut a rim in a zigzag course almost completely around the county somewhat in the shape of a horse-shoe. An ingenious wag drew a map of the county with this rim of democratic towns painted in different colors, resembling some monster animal with many short legs and claws—a sort of sea-serpent, ending with a horrible head and open jaws at Cape Ann, and a tail at Marblehead. The party trick was called the *gerrymander*, and similar unfairness since in various states, has kept the word in use.

GHENT. A city of Belgium [see BELGIUM], where a treaty of peace between Great Britain and the United States was signed, Dec. 24th, 1814.

GIBBON, EDWARD, an eminent English historian, born at Putney, in 1737. He resided much abroad, chiefly at Lausanne, but was engaged at home in political life for some time. He conceived the idea of his great work, the "Decline and Fall of the Roman

Empire," at Rome, in 1764, as he sat amidst the ruins of the Capitol, "while the bare-footed friars were singing vespers in the temple of Jupiter;" and he has eloquently recorded the mixed emotions with which, one moonlight night of June, 1787, in a summer-house in his garden at Lausanne, he wrote the last sentences of the task which had so long been his occupation and pleasure. He died in England, on the 16th of January, 1794.

GIBRALTAR, a fortified rock in Andalusia, at the entrance of the Mediterranean, rising about 1,600 feet above the sea. This rock, under its ancient name of Calpe, and Mt. Abyla (now Centa) opposite on the African coast, were called by the ancients the Pillars of Hercules. In the early part of the eighth century an army of Saracens from Africa, commanded by Tarif, or Tarek, landed near here. They erected a castle, and called the rock Gibel-Tarif, 'the mountain of Tarif.' At the downfall of the Moors the rock fell into the hands of the Spaniards, by whom it was fortified till it was thought impregnable. But, on the 24th of July, 1704, it was taken after a dreadful cannonade, by an English and Dutch fleet commanded by Sir George Rooke and the Prince of Hesse Darmstadt. Since then it has been possessed by the British, although many attempts have been made to regain it. It was besieged by the Spaniards and French, Oct. 11th, 1704; by the Spaniards in 1720 and 1727. But the most memorable siege was that by the Spaniards and French from July, 1779, to February, 1783. The British garrison numbered only 7,000. The assailants had an army of 40,000 men, a thousand pieces of artillery, and a mighty fleet of three-deckers, frigates, floating batteries, gunboats, &c. For weeks, six thousand shells a day were thrown into the town. Yet this great armament was beaten off, and wholly overthrown by the brave garrison, who were commanded by Gen. Elliot.

GIBSON, GEORGE, a native of Lancaster, Penn., settled early in life at Pittsburg, joined the Revolutionary army as a colonel, and served to the end of 1778. In the war with the Indian tribes, Colonel Gibson again commanded a regiment, and shared the fatal dan-

gers of St. Clair's defeat, in which he received a mortal wound, at Fort Jefferson, Dec. 11th, 1794.

GIBSON, JOHN, uncle of the above, born at Lancaster, Penn., May 23d, 1740, served under Gen. Forbes when that officer took Fort du Quesne; entered the Revolutionary army as a colonel early in the war, and continued through it; died at Braddock's Field, near Pittsburg, April 10th, 1822.

GIFFORD, WILLIAM, born in April, 1756, and early left an orphan, was apprenticed to a shoemaker. Industry and perseverance raised him to a prominent rank in English literature as a satirical poet, a translator, and a critic. He was editor of the *Quarterly Review* from its start in 1808 till within two years of his death, which took place Dec. 31st, 1826.

GILBERT, Sir HUMPHREY, half-brother to Sir Walter Raleigh, and one of the earliest English adventurers who attempted to form a colony in America, born in 1539; in 1576, published "A Treatise to prove a Passage by the North-west to the East Indies." In 1578 he obtained a patent to make a settlement in North America, and in that year made a voyage to Newfoundland, returned to Europe, and in 1583, on his homeward-bound voyage, in a barque of only ten tons, from another trip to America, was lost with all his crew.

GILPIN, BERNARD, the 'apostle of the north,' was born in Westmoreland in 1517, and educated in Catholicism. His inquiries turned him to the reformed faith. He became rector of Houghton in Durham, a parish containing no less than fourteen villages, shrouded in ignorance and superstition. He was arrested by order of Bishop Bonner, but the death of bloody Mary saved him from the stake, and he returned to his zealous work of good. His labors were not confined to his own parish. Every year he visited diverse neglected districts in Northumberland, Yorkshire, Cheshire, Westmoreland, and Cumberland; and that his own flock might not suffer, he was at the expense of a constant assistant. In all his journeys he did not fail to visit the gaols and places of confinement; and by his labors and affectionate manner of behavior, he is said to have reformed many abandoned persons in those abodes of human misery. He had set times and places of

preaching, in the different parts of the country, which were as regularly attended as the assizes. If there was a church in the place, he made use of it; if not, of barns or any other large buildings. He had an enthusiastic warmth in his addresses, which turned many to a sense of religion, who had never thought of anything serious before. Danger and fatigue were in his estimation abundantly compensated by advantage accruing to his uninstructed fellow-creatures. This good man is said to have amassed, by unwearied application, a vast stock of knowledge; to have been ignorant of no part of learning in esteem at that time; to have been more than usually skilled in the classic languages, history, and poetry: but everything he made subservient to the nobility and benefit of his Christian ministry. He established and sustained excellent schools; generous bounty was dispensed by his hand; and his door was ever open to the poor or the stranger. Lord Burleigh's offer of a bishopric he refused: his ambition worked itself out in good deeds. "Meanwhile age began to grow upon him. After his lean body was quite worn out with diversity of pains-taking, at the last even, feeling beforehand the approach of death, he commanded the poor to be called together, unto whom he made a speech, and took his leave of them. Afterwards he did the like to others. He used many exhortations to his schollers, to his servants, and divers others, and fell asleep in great peace in the sixty-sixth year of his age, in the year of our Lord 1583."

GLAUBER, JOHN RODOLPH, a German chemist, and dabler in alchemy; he discovered the sulphate of soda, now known as Glauber's salt; flourished 1640-1660.

GLENCOE, MASSACRE OF. In August, 1691, a proclamation was issued by William III. of England, offering indemnity to such insurgents as should take the oath of allegiance to the king and queen on or before the last day of the year; and the chiefs of such clans as had been in arms for James II. soon embraced the offer. But Macdonald of Glencoe was prevented by accident, not design, from tendering his submission within the limited time. He did not reach Inverary till the new year had come in. The sheriff, however, yielding to the importunities and

even tears of the aged chieftain, administered to him the oath of allegiance then, and sent an explanation of the circumstances to the privy council at Edinburgh. But Stair and Breadalbane were the enemies of Macdonald; they persuaded William that the Macdonalds were great obstacles to the pacification of the Highlands; and the royal command was obtained "for the good and saftie of the Countrie, that thes miscriants be cut off root and branch." Capt. Campbell, of Argyll's regiment, repaired to Glencoe with a hundred and twenty men. He was the uncle of young Macdonald's wife, and he and his troops were received by the unsuspecting Highlanders with the utmost hospitality. The orders were "to fall upon the rebels the Macdonalds of Glencoe, and put all to the sword under seventy:" yet for several days this dread intent was concealed, and butchers' and victims dwelt in peace with one another. The mask dropped on the night of Feb. 13th, 1691. Macdonald was shot dead at his bedside. His aged wife was stripped naked by the soldiers, who tore the rings from her fingers with their teeth. Neither age nor sex was spared. Thirty-eight persons were massacred, and several who fled among the mountains perished by starvation and exposure. The hamlet was laid in ashes.

GLENDOWER, OWEN, a celebrated Welsh chieftain, born in 1354. He was the determined foe of Henry IV., and for a long time kept up a marauding warfare which was highly annoying to the English. He died, unsubdued, Feb. 24th, 1416.

GLISSON, FRANCIS, president of the college of Physicians, London, died in 1677, aged eighty. He was one of the founders of the Royal Society, and was eulogized by Boerhaave and Haller.

GLUCK, CHRISTOPHER, the Chevalier, an eminent German musical composer, died at Vienna, 1787, aged seventy-one.

GOBELIN, GILES, famous as a dyer of scarlet in the reign of Francis I. of France, and the founder of the works where the beautiful Gobelin tapestry has been produced.

GODFREY of BOUILLOX, Marquis of Anvers and Duke of Brabant, was the son of Eustace II., Count of Boulogne, and was born about the middle of the eleventh century. He served with distinction under Henry IV.,

Emperor of Germany, but acquired an imperishable fame in the first crusade. At Nice, Elessa, and Antioch, he particularly distinguished himself, and in July, 1099, he took Jerusalem, after a siege of five weeks. On taking possession of the city, he threw off his armor, clothed himself in a mantle, and, with bare head and naked feet, went to the Church of the Sepulchre. On the foundation of the Latin kingdom of Jerusalem, in the same year, Godfrey's virtues were declared to be pre-eminent; the princes conducted him to the church which covered the tomb of Christ, and offered him a crown. But he refused to wear a diadem of gold where his Saviour wore a crown of thorns; and modestly claimed only the honor of being the defender of the Holy Sepulchre. He enjoyed it but a short time, for he died July 18th, 1100, just one year after the taking of Jerusalem.

GODFREY, THOMAS, inventor of the quadrant commonly called Hadley's, by whom he was cheated out of the credit of the invention; born in Philadelphia, where he died in December, 1749.

GODMAN, JOHN D., an eminent American naturalist, was born at Annapolis, Md., and at an early age was apprenticed to a printer. Disliking his business, he shipped as a sailor on board the Chesapeake flotilla, in the war of 1813. Having afterward studied medicine, he settled in New York, and was offered the professorship of anatomy in Rutgers Medical College. The state of his health, however, rendered traveling necessary, and he went to Vera Cruz, but without experiencing the relief which he hoped. He died in Philadelphia, April 17th, 1830, in the thirty-second year of his age. His "Natural History of American Quadrupeds," and his "Rambles of a Naturalist" were deservedly popular.

GODOLPHIN, SIDNEY, Earl of, and lord high treasurer of England, was born in Cornwall, and educated at Oxford. He was employed in the reigns of Charles II. and James II., although he had voted for the exclusion of the latter in 1680. He was placed at the head of the treasury on the accession of Queen Anne, but was obliged to retire from office in 1710. He died in 1712.

GODWIN, WILLIAM, the author of "Caleb Williams," was born in 1756, and died in

1836. He was a voluminous writer, a warm republican in politics, and an eccentric and remarkable man.

GOETHE, JOHN WOLFGANG VON, born Aug. 28th, 1749, at Frankfort on the Maine. He displayed an early fondness for literature and the arts, which increased with his years. His studies embraced the whole circle of the sciences. In 1771 he took the degree of doctor of laws. About the year 1776, on the invitation of the grand-duke, he went to Weimar, where he passed the rest of his life, loaded by his patron with honors, ennobled, made a privy counselor, and for many years prime minister. Owing in part to the liberal patronage of the grand-duke, the little court of Weimar was a distinguished focus of German literature; and in the early years of the present century, this place reckoned among its residents more than twenty writers of note, at the head of whom were Goethe, Schiller, Wieland, Herder, and for a time Kotzebue.

The following particulars of the life of this celebrated man were written not long before his death. "It would be difficult to find a man who had arrived at the age of eighty-one with fewer infirmities than Goethe. The prodigious activity of his mind seems not to have worn out his body, although the latter, it is said, was put to the proof by his juvenile irregularities. His elevated form, the striking regularity of his features, his imposing and noble bearing, the athletic proportions of his body, seem to have suffered no injury from age; he holds himself as upright as a young man of eighteen; no apparent infirmity accompanies his years, and the wrinkles of his face hardly indicate a man of sixty. There is in his behavior and countenance something cold and reserved, which adds to the emotion which is felt in beholding him. He rarely determines, in the interviews which he grants to strangers, to display the resources of his genius; and visitors are sorry to observe that these hours of audience are only moments of repose for his spirit, perhaps of annoyance. It is said that this reserve always disappears in favor of strangers who arrive at Weimar preceded by a literary reputation. Goethe has felt obliged to impose this reserve upon himself to avoid the unhappy consequences of frankness which

once distinguished him, and it is said that English travelers have not a little contributed to it by the indiscretion they have shown in publishing in their journals incorrect fragments of their conversation with him.

"The life which Goethe leads at present bears the impress of that vigor of mind and body, which he has succeeded in preserving. With a freshness and activity of mind that eighty years of a laborious life have not impaired, he knows how to profit by every moment of the day. By six o'clock in the morning he is at work, and he permits no interruption until the hour of noon. During these long mornings he writes letters, composes, reviews his complete works, and arranges his correspondence with Schiller, of which the first volume has been published some months. At noon strangers are admitted. After dinner, he assembles at his house, about four or five o'clock, the limited number of the elect who have the happiness to live in habits of intimacy with him. The evenings of Goethe are consecrated to reading; he reads with a prodigious rapidity, which would be but a defect, were it not accompanied by an astonishing memory and an extraordinary faculty of analysis. He is but seldom seen at the theatre, and the theatre of Weimar feels this abandonment but too sensibly. Goethe was formerly the manager, perhaps we may call him the creator of it: it was he who, aided by Schiller, formed all the actors who, for more than a quarter of a century, shone in the first rank upon the German stage, and made the little theatre of Weimar the true school of the dramatic art in Germany."

Goethe died at Weimar, March 22d, 1832, aged eighty-two. He was an eminent author and a romantic poet, held in great repute by his countrymen and admirers, and styled the patriarch of German literature; according to a writer in the *Foreign Quarterly Review*, "the first man of his nation and time;" and according to Prince Puckler Muskau, "the third in the great triumvirate with Homer and Shakspeare." Among the most celebrated of the productions of Goethe are the "Sorrows of Werther," "Faust," and "Wilhelm Meister's Apprenticeship." He maintained for many years a tranquil empire over the literature of his country, which was implicitly

acquiesced in by the candidates for literary fame; yet many of his voluminous works have been much complained of, as characterized by unintelligible mysticism, and as of irreligious and immoral tendency.

GOFFE, WILLIAM, one of the judges of Charles I., and a general under Cromwell. When the Stuarts were restored, he, with Whalley, another of the regicides, came to New England, and found concealment at New Haven, Hadley, and elsewhere. Sept. 1st, 1675, Hadley was attacked by Indians. The savages were repelled by an aged man, who suddenly appeared and headed the inhabitants, and disappeared as suddenly after the victory. This man, regarded as an angel at the time, was afterward discovered to be Goffe, who for many years was secreted there. He is supposed to have died in 1680.

GOLDSMITH, OLIVER, an eminent poet and miscellaneous writer, born in Ireland, Nov. 10th, 1728. His father was a poor curate. He studied at Dublin, Edinburgh, and Leyden, and took a doctor's degree at Padua, a maternal uncle defraying part of the expenses. Having made the tour of Europe on foot, supporting himself by flute-playing, he reached London, after a long absence, with but a few pence in his pocket. Here he sustained himself by his pen, and compiled many works, besides composing those which have rendered his name immortal. His poem of "The Traveller" gained him an enviable poetical reputation. His fame was established on a firm basis by "The Deserted Village." Improvident, like many men of genius, he was about to marry his landlady to cancel a debt he owed her, when the sale of the manuscript of his novel "The Vicar of Wakefield," which met the approbation of Dr. Johnson, afforded him a temporary relief. An adventure of his own formed the groundwork of his highly successful comedy, "She Stoops to Conquer." He put up at the house of a gentleman, mistaking it for an inn, and amused the inmates by calling out lustily for whatever he wanted, ordering the servants, slapping his host upon the back, and asking to see the bill of fare; his mortification, on discovering his mistake, can easily be imagined. He died April 4th, 1774. He was eccentric even to absurdity, and in society showed the simplicity of La Fontaine.

Garrick, in some extemporaneous verses, spoke of him as

"Noll,
Who wrote like an angel, but talked—like poor Poll."

The debts he left amounted to £2,000. "Was ever poet so trusted before?" said Dr. Johnson. "No man," said the doctor also, "was wiser when he had a pen in his hand, or more foolish when he had not."

GONZALVO, HERNANDEZ Y AGUILAR, of Cordova, commonly called the 'great captain,' was born in 1443. This celebrated Spaniard served under Ferdinand and Isabella in the conquest of Grenada, where he took several strong places from the Moors. Ferdinand gave him command of the forces which he sent into the kingdom of Naples to succor Frederick and Alphonso. After having gained his purpose, he returned to Spain, and then, serving against the Turks, wrested Zante and Cephalonia from them. He was afterward, in consequence of his various victories, appointed viceroy of Naples, with unlimited powers. He died in 1515.

GOOKIN, DANIEL, major-general of Massachusetts from 1681 to 1687, the year of his death. He was an Englishman, but came to Virginia in 1621, and in 1644 removed to New England that he might enjoy freedom of worship. He was the author of "Historical Collections of the Indians in New England," and a zealous coadjutor of the Rev. John Eliot.

GORDIUS, a king of Phrygia, who fastened the pole of his chariot with so ingenious a knot that the oracle promised the empire of Persia to the man who should loose it. Alexander the Great cut it with his sword.

GORE, CHRISTOPHER, a governor of Massachusetts, born in Boston in 1758, was the son of a mechanic. His education was completed at Harvard University; he studied law and practiced it with success. He was the first United States district attorney for Massachusetts, and was one of the commissioners to settle the claims on England for the spoiliations committed by her upon the property of the Americans. In 1809 he was chosen governor of Massachusetts, but remained in office only one year. In 1814 he was chosen United States senator. He died in retirement, March 1st, 1827.

GORE, JOHN, the friend and companion of Capt. Cook, born in Virginia, 1735, entered the British navy early in life, and made his first voyage round the world with Commodore Byron. In 1768, he was appointed second lieutenant of the *Endeavor*, under Captain Cook, and again circumnavigated the earth. In 1776, he was appointed first lieutenant of the *Resolution*, and, by the successive deaths of Captains Cook and Clerke, returned to Europe, October, 1780, commander of the squadron. He ended his days as one of the captains of Greenwich Hospital, Aug. 10th, 1790, aged fifty-five.

GOTHS, an ancient barbarous tribe, whose origin is very uncertain. They were said to come from Scandinavia. For a long time they resided in Germany, whence they finally forced their way and made themselves formidable to the Romans. Under Alaric, they took and plundered Rome. The Goths of the east were called Ostrogoths, and those of the west Visigoths.

GRACCHUS, TIBERIUS SEMPRONIUS and **CAIUS**, the sons of the celebrated Cornelia, lost their lives in attempting to reform the republic. With a winning eloquence, affected moderation, and uncommon popularity, Tiberius began to revive the agrarian law, which had already caused dissensions among the Romans. His proposition passed into a law, but he was killed in the midst of a tumult, for happening to raise his hand to his head, his enemies declared that he signified a desire for a crown, and he was slain in the outbreak of popular fury which ensued. His brother Caius supported the cause of the people with more vehemence and less moderation than Tiberius, and his success animated his resentment against the nobles. With the privileges of a tribune, he treated the patricians with contempt, and this behavior hastened his ruin. He fled with a large number of his adherents, but the consul Opinius attacked and defeated them, and slew their leader, B.C. 121, about thirteen years after the unfortunate end of Tiberius.

GRAHAM, SYLVESTER, the untiring advocate of a vegetarian system of dietetics in America, died at Northampton, Mass., Sept. 11th, 1851, aged fifty-five. He was a native of Suffield, Conn.

GRATTAN, HENRY, was born about 1750

in Dublin. He was elected into the Irish parliament in 1775, and by his powerful remonstrances obtained for his country a participation in the commerce of Britain, for which he was rewarded by a vote of £50,000. In 1790 he was returned for the city of Dublin, and from that time was the active leader of the opposition till the union with England, which measure he resisted with all his eloquence. When it was effected, he accepted a seat in the House of Commons for Malton. In the French wars he supported government; but his principal exertions were called forth in advocating the claims of the Catholics, to which cause he fell a martyr, by leaving Ireland in an exhausted state, to carry the petition with which he was intrusted to England. He died, soon after his arrival, May 14th, 1820; and his remains were interred in Westminster Abbey. No government ever dismayed him; the world could not bribe him. He only thought of Ireland; lived for no other object; dedicated to her his beautiful fancy, his elegant wit, his manly courage, and all the splendor of his astonishing eloquence. He was so born, and so gifted, that all the attainments of human genius were within his reach; but he thought the noblest occupation of man was to make other men happy and free; and in that straight line he went on for fifty years, without one side look, without one yielding thought, without one motive in his heart which he might not have laid open to the view of God and man.

GRAY, THOMAS, an English poet, born in London in 1716. After completing the course of education at Eton and Cambridge, he made the tour of Europe with his friend Horace Walpole, returning in 1741. The remainder of his life was passed in literary retirement. He was forever laying gigantic literary plans, which he wanted the perseverance to execute. He wrote little, and published only after mature deliberation. His "Ode on a Distant Prospect of Eton College," "Hymn to Adversity," "The Bard," and "Elegy in a Country Church-yard," are inimitable. This distinguished poet died of a gout in the stomach, July 30th, 1771.

GREECE. Ancient Greece contained about 22,121 square miles. It was bounded on the west by the Ionian Sea, south by the Mediterranean, east by the Ægean, and north by

Illyria and Macedonia. This country has been esteemed superior to every other part of the earth, on account of the salubrity of the air, the temperature of the climate, the fertility of the soil, and, above all, the fame, learning, and arts of its inhabitants. It is severed by the Gulf of Corinth. The northern part contained Thessaly, Epirus, Acarnania, Ætolia, Locris, Doris, Phocis, Boeotia, Megaris, and Attica. The southern part, called the Peloponnesus, contained Laconia, Messenia, Arcadia, Elis, Argolis, Achaia, Sicyonia, and Corinth. Sketches of these distinct states are given elsewhere.

The history of Greece is darkened, in its primitive ages, by the mists of fable. The inhabitants believed that they were the original dwellers in the country, and sprang from the earth whereon they dwelt; and they heard with contempt the probable conjectures which traced their origin to the inhabitants of Asia and the colonies of Egypt. In the first periods of their history, the Greeks were governed by monarchs; and there were as many kings as there were cities. The monarchical power gradually decreased; the love of liberty established the republican governments; till no part of Greece remained in the hands of an absolute sovereign. The expedition of the Argonauts first rendered the Greeks respectable among their neighbors; in the succeeding age, the wars of Thebes and Troy gave opportunity to their heroes to display their valor in the field of battle. The simplicity of the ancient Greeks rendered them virtuous; and the establishment of the Olympic games in particular, where the only reward of the conqueror was a laurel crown, contributed to their aggrandizement, making them ambitious of fame, and not the slaves of riches.

The austerity of their laws, and the education of their youth, particularly in Lacedæmon, rendered them brave and active, insensible to bodily pain, fearless and intrepid in the hour of danger. The celebrated battles of Marathon, Thermopylæ, Salamis, Plataea, and Mycale sufficiently show what superiority a well trained though small army possesses over millions of undisciplined barbarians. After many signal victories over the Persians, the Greeks became elated with their success, and when they found no one able

to dispute their power abroad, they turned their arms against each other, and leagued with foreign states to destroy the most flourishing of their cities. The Messenian and Peloponnesian wars are examples of the dreadful calamities which arise from civil discord and long prosperity; and the ease with which the gold and sword of Philip of Macedon corrupted and enslaved Greece, fatally proved that when a nation becomes indolent and luxurious at home, it ceases to be respectable in the eyes of neighboring states. The annals of Greece, however, abound with singular proof of heroism and resolution. While the Greeks rendered themselves so illustrious by their military exploits, the arts and sciences were assisted by conquest, and received fresh lustre from the liberal patronage bestowed on them.

From the dominion of Macedon, Greece passed under the yoke of Rome. From the fifteenth century until a recent period, Greece was subject to the Turkish government. Although degraded, changed from what she was, there was yet something in modern Greece to remind the world of former days of glory. Ere the storm of the revolution broke forth, the bard could sing:

“On Suli’s rock, and Parga’s shore,
Exists the remnant of a line
Such as the Doric mothers bore,
And there, perhaps, some seed is sown,
That Heracleidan blood might own.”

The Greek revolution broke out at a village of Achaia, March 23d, 1821. At length England took the part of the Greeks, and a Russian, French, and British squadron, under Admiral Sir Edward Codrington, destroyed the Turkish-Egyptian armada of 110 ships, in the bay of Navarino, Oct. 20th, 1827. In 1828, the war between Russia and Turkey broke out, and the interference of foreign power produced the pacification of Greece in 1829. The Turks were compelled to yield their grasp. A monarchy was finally established and Otho of Bavaria was called to the throne in 1833. After a troubled, inefficient and unprosperous reign, Otho absconded from Athens, Oct. 13, 1862; six days afterwards a revolution broke out to secure a change of dynasty; a provisional government was formed which continued until June, 1863, when the youngest son of the King of Den-

mark accepted the throne, and became king by the title of George I.

Modern Greece has an area of 19,250 square miles; population in 1861, 1,330,933.

GREENE, Col. CHRISTOPHER, a relation of Gen. Nathaniel Greene, and a native of Warwick, Rhode Island, was born 1737, and in May, 1775, entered the service as a lieutenant. He was with Montgomery at Quebec, where he became a prisoner. Soon after his exchange in 1777, he was placed in command of Fort Mercer, at Red Bank, N. J., which he gallantly defended against the British. He fell May 22d, 1781, in an action with some Tories near New York.

GREENE, NATHANIEL, was born of Quaker parentage at Warwick, R. I., May 22d, 1742. He early evinced an attachment to learning and a fondness for a martial life. He took up arms for his country's defense when he heard of the affair at Lexington; the Quakers disowned him. He was among the first brigadier-generals commissioned by Congress, rose to the rank of major-general, and was in the battles of Trenton, Princeton, Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth. In December, 1780, he took the command of the army in the South, where he continued till the close of the war. In 1785 he went to Georgia to look after an estate which he had purchased there, and died from a sun-stroke near Savannah, June 19th, 1786. He was one of the ablest of Washington's generals, and one of his most attached and faithful friends.

GREENLAND, an extensive country of North America, belonging to Denmark. The natives belong to the Esquimaux family, and are rude in their manners, and confined in their ideas. They are of diminutive size, clothed in skins, and subsisting by hunting and fishing. Their religious notions are rude and primitive. There are several settlements upon the coast of Greenland, many of them being made by the Moravian missionaries. Greenland was discovered at the end of the tenth century, and soon colonized from Iceland. It is said that in 1406 there were almost two hundred villages, but the colony was suddenly lost to the world: vast flocks of ice blockaded the coast, and shut out all supplies. Davis rediscovered Greenland in 1586. The Northmen called this country Greenland because its verdure was so much

more luxurious than that of Iceland. A wonderful change has taken place in this land. The reindeer and the hare have both disappeared; fields once fertile are now occupied by enormous glaciers; the shores, too, are beset with immense fields of ice, which forbid the approach of the inquiring mariner; and of the once flourishing Scandinavian settlements, nothing remains but vague intimations. History forgot them nearly five hundred years ago and recorded nothing of their fate.

GREENOUGH, HORATIO, a sculptor of eminence, was born in Boston in 1805, passed much time in the pursuit of his art in Italy, and died in Boston, Dec. 18th, 1852.

GREENVILLE, Sir BEVIL, grandson of Admiral Greenville, was born 1596, and slain in the battle of Lansdown, near Bath, 1643, fighting for King Charles.

GREENVILLE, Sir RICHARD, commander of the first English colony sent to North America, was born in 1540. Greenville shared with Howard, Drake, Raleigh, Hawkins, Frobisher, the renown of defeating the Spanish Armada. In 1591 he was made vice-admiral of a squadron sent out to the West Indies. In this expedition he fell in with a superior force, and in the action his ship was taken and himself mortally wounded.

GREGORY. Sixteen popes have born this name. GREGORY I., surnamed the Great, succeeded Pelagius II., in 590, and introduced many of the present ceremonies of the Romish church. He was of a noble family and induced to take monastic vows by a disgust of worldly affairs. He died in 604. GREGORY VII. is better known by his original name of Hildebrand. [See HILDEBRAND.] GREGORY XIII., the greatest civilian and canonist of his time, to whom we owe the reformation of the calendar, born 1502, reigned from 1572 to 1585. [See TIME.]

GRENVILLE, GEORGE, born in 1722, entered parliament in 1750, and took a prominent part in the public affairs of Great Britain. During his ministry the stamp act was brought forward. He died Nov. 13th, 1770. He married the daughter of Sir William Wyndham. Richard, his brother, Earl Temple (1711-1779), was also a leading statesman, though neither so honest nor capable. George's third son, William Wyndham,

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afterward Lord Grenville, was a distinguished and powerful statesman, and was the nominal head of the 'all-the-talents' ministry, which came in upon Mr. Pitt's death, and was soon shattered by the death of Mr. Fox.

The secret of the authorship of "Junius" was said to have been intrusted to Lord Grenville, and the rumor was that it would be disclosed after his death; the office of making the disclosure, some have supposed, was confided to his nephew, Lord Nugent. He died at his seat, Dropmore, in Buckinghamshire, on the 12th of January, 1834, aged seventy-four.

GREY, Lady JANE, an unfortunate and most amiable lady, the daughter of Henry Grey, Marquis of Dorset, by Lady Frances Brandon, daughter of the Duke of Suffolk, was of royal descent on both sides. She was born in 1537, at Bradgate Hall, her father's seat in Leicestershire, and early in life gave proofs of uncommon genius. She worked admirably with her needle; wrote an elegant hand; played well on several instruments; and was well versed in Greek and Latin, besides being conversant with French and Italian. Roger Ascham, "the schoolmaster of princes," has given a beautiful and affecting narrative of his interview with her at Bradgate Hall, where he found her reading Plato's *Phædon* in Greek, while the family were amusing themselves in the park.

In 1551, her father was created Duke of Suffolk; and at this time Lady Jane Grey was much at court, where the ambitious Duke of Northumberland projected a marriage between her and his son, Lord Guilford Dudley, which took place at the end of May, 1553. Soon after this Edward VI. died, having been prevailed upon, in his last illness, to settle the crown upon the Lady Jane, who, against her will, was proclaimed with great pomp. The splendor of royalty, however, endured but a short time. The nation was dissatisfied, and the nobility incensed at the presumption of Northumberland, so that Mary was not long in obtaining the victory, and with an indignant spirit she determined on revenge. Lady Jane and her husband, after having been confined in the Tower some months, were arraigned and condemned to death, Nov. 3d, 1553. The sentence was not carried into execution until the 12th of February in the fol-

lowing year, when Lord Guilford first suffered, and his wife immediately afterward, on the same scaffold. She died with the firmness and meekness of a martyr; and such no doubt she was, since her Protestant principles were more offensive to the queen than the part she had been compelled to act. On the evening previous to her death she sent a letter written in Greek to her sister; and even after seeing the headless body of her husband carried to the chapel, she wrote three sentences, in Greek, Latin, and English, in a table book, which she presented to the lieutenant of the Tower.

GRIDLEY, JEREMIAH, a distinguished lawyer, who was born in 1705, and flourished in Massachusetts before the revolution. Although a warm opponent of the British ministry, he accepted the office of attorney-general of the province of Massachusetts Bay, and defended the writs of assistance, but was completely refuted by James Otis, who had studied law in his office. He died in Boston, Sept. 7th, 1767.

GRIMSTON, Sir HARBOTTLE. An English lawyer of much repute, lived (notwithstanding his name) almost ninety years, dying in 1683.

GRISWOLD, ROGER, a governor of Connecticut, was the son of Gov. Matthew Griswold, and born at Lyme in that state in 1762. He was educated at Yale College, and chosen member of Congress in 1794. In 1807 he accepted the office of judge of the supreme court of Connecticut, and, after serving as lieutenant-governor, in 1811 was chosen governor. He died at Norwich, Oct. 12th, 1812.

GROTIUS, or DE GROOT, Hugo, a famous scholar and statesman, born at Delft, April 10th, 1583. So precocious were his powers, that he had a European reputation at fifteen. Grotius, having espoused the cause of a religious sect called the Remonstrants, was condemned to imprisonment for life in the fortress of Louvenstein, but having concealed himself in a chest in which his wife had sent him some books, he was carried out of the castle unsuspected. After wandering about in several countries, having been banished forever from his own, he went to Stockholm in 1634, and was appointed counselor of state, and ambassador to the French court. Although personally obnoxious to Cardinal Richelieu, he held this office for ten years, and then returned to

Sweden, passing through his native country, where his reception was most flattering. He solicited his dismissal from the Queen of Sweden; after leaving her court, he was taken sick at Rostock, in Pomerania, and died there, August 28th, 1645. He was a profound and elegant scholar, and a powerful writer upon international law.

GROUCHY, EMANUEL, Count, a marshal of France, born at Paris in 1766, and known as a brave and successful soldier in the wars of Napoleon, is memorable for his singular conduct at Waterloo. With thirty-five thousand men and eighty pieces of artillery under his orders, he remained immovable either by the prayers or the threats of the other generals, in a position which could only be justified by the strict letter of his instructions. It is not certain that he intended to betray the cause of Napoleon, but his culpable indecision contributed decidedly to the result of the conflict. He was restored to his military rank on the accession of Louis Philippe, and died in 1847.

GUATEMALA, the largest and most northern of the five republics of Central America, has a territory of 59,000 square miles and a population of 1,100,000. The resources of this fertile country wait for the magic touch of enterprise and industry. Many of the aboriginal tribes are yet in the perfect independence of barbarian life. Guatemala la Nueva, the seat of government, was founded in 1775, and contains 40,000 inhabitants. It is situated on the river Vacas, twenty-six miles from the Pacific.

GUELPHS, one of the two great factions which divided Europe in the middle ages, during the contest between the papal and imperial power. The Guelphs sustained the pope, the Ghibellines the emperor. Guelph is the family name of the dynasty now upon the British throne.

GUESCLIN, BERTRAND DU, constable of France, and one of her most renowned generals, born in 1314, at the castle of Motte Broom, near Rennes. At the age of seventeen years, he won a prize in a tournament. After the battle of Poitiers, and the losses of Charles, Du Guesclin came forward and redeemed the honor of his country, wresting from the hands of the English almost all their possessions. He died, in the midst of triumph, before Chateau-neuf-de-Raudon, July 13th, 1380. He

had nothing pleasing or noble in his person, and owed his honors wholly to his own exertions.

GUIANA, a country of South America, formerly of vast extent. At present, what was formerly Spanish Guiana belongs to Venezuela, and Portuguese Guiana to Brazil. The remaining portions are divided between the English, Dutch, and French. Parts of Guiana are yet wild and imperfectly known, and in its interior the El Dorado of the Spaniards was formerly believed to exist.

French Guiana, or Cayenne, is an alluvial, swampy region, covered with forests whose trees are as prodigious in size as they are various in species. Here thrive fine aromatics unknown to other regions of the west. The Cayenne is the most pungent and delicate of peppers. But a serious obstacle to settlement is presented by the pestilential vapors steaming from the woods and marshes. The French colonized Cayenne in 1625. After having fallen into the hands of the English and the Dutch, it revolted to its original possessors in 1677. In a settlement on a great scale attempted in 1763, there perished 13,000 persons: so that during the revolution, deportation to Cayenne was considered almost as fatal as sentence of death. Within the last few years, many Frenchmen have been banished to this poisonous spot as a penalty for their opposition to the despotism of Louis Napoleon.

Surinam, or Dutch Guiana, is the most important of the Dutch possessions in this western world. The colonies of Demerara, Berbice, and Essequibo formerly belonged to Holland, but were conquered by the English, and since 1814 have constituted British Guiana. The industry of the new owners, with the fertility of the soil, has rendered this one of the most productive regions on the continent.

GUIDO RENI, commonly called GUIDO, was born at Bologna in 1575. His father was a musician, and he was intended for the same calling. But at an early age he evinced a decided taste for painting, and he became one of the most distinguished pupils of the Caracci. Guido resided some twenty years in Rome, and came away abruptly, during the pontificate of Urban VIII., in consequence of an offensive reprimand from Cardinal Spinola. He had been commissioned to paint one of the

altar-pieces of St. Peter's, and had received four hundred scudi in advance; but after a few years not having even commenced the picture, the cardinal rather harshly reminded him of the money advanced for which he had done nothing. Guide at once restored the four hundred scudi, and in a few days left Rome: all attempts to induce his return were vain. He lived in great splendor at Bologna, where he died Aug. 18th, 1642, and was interred with great pomp in the church of San Domenico. Notwithstanding the princely income that he received for many years, his habits of gaming and profuse liberality embarrassed his circumstances, and he died in debt. It was during the latter unhappy period of his career, that he sold his time for so much an hour to certain dealers, one of whom tasked the painter so rigidly as to stand by him, watch in hand, while he worked.

GUILFORD, BATTLE OF. A battle was fought between the British under Cornwallis and the Americans under Greene, March 13th, 1781, near Guilford Court House, N. C. The combat lasted two hours. The American force was twice that of the British, and was very advantageously posted. No battle in the course of the war reflected more honor on the courage of the royal troops. The panic and flight of the North Carolina militia turned the scale against Gen. Greene; the British gained a nominal victory, the Americans retreating in good order. The loss on the side of Cornwallis was more than 600 killed and wounded; that of Greene's army was over 400, and many of the militia were reported missing, having forsaken the field for their firesides.

GUILLOTIN, JOSEPH IGNATIUS, an eminent physician, born in 1738, was the inventor (about 1785) of the instrument of death called by his name. His humane design was to render capital punishment less painful by decapitation, and he was greatly annoyed that the guillotine should be named after him. He was imprisoned during the revolutionary troubles, and ran some hazard of suffering the fatal stroke of his own invention. But he escaped, and lived till 1814, greatly respected. An engine called the *maiden*, somewhat similar to the guillotine, was in use in Halifax, Yorkshire, in the time of Elizabeth. It was introduced into Scotland by the regent Morton,

for the decapitation of his political opponents, and he himself lost his head under it in 1581.

GUISE, a town and dukedom of France, in Picardy, besieged by the Spaniards in 1528. The Dukes of Guise were very important personages in all the affairs of France, from the reign of Francis I. to that of Henry IV. This family was a branch of the house of Lorraine, promoted by Francis I. in 1528 from Counts of Guise to Dukes. The first thus raised was Claude, the son of René II. One of his daughters wedded James V. of Scotland, and was the mother of Queen Mary. He had eight sons, among whom were Francis, Duke of Guise, Claudius, Duke of Aunale, and René, Marquis of Elbœuf. Francis gallantly defended Metz against Charles V. and took Calais from the English. He was virtually monarch of France. He was the head of the League, and the great opponent of Conde and the Huguenots. He was assassinated in 1563. He was the father of Henry, Duke of Guise, and Charles, Duke of Maine, &c. Henry placing himself at the head of the holy league, was slain in the states of Blois, by the order of King Henry III., in 1588. The Duke of Maine took up arms against Henry IV., till at last, in 1594, he was forced to submit to that victorious prince.

GULF STREAM. One of the most remarkable of all known oceanic phenomena is the mighty current which ceaselessly flows from west to east, across the bosom of the North Atlantic. The fountain-head of this ocean-river, as it may well be termed, is in the Gulf of Mexico. Thence it flows north-easterly along the shores of the United States, until it reaches the banks of Newfoundland; then stretches across the Atlantic to the British islands, where it divides into two parts, one flowing northward to the Arctic Sea, the other southward to the Azores. In the whole world, there is not another so majestic flow of water as this ocean-river. Its current is more rapid than the Amazon or the Mississippi. In the severest droughts it never fails; in the greatest floods it never overflows. Though its banks and bed consist of cold water, yet the river itself is warm; and so great is the want of affinity between these waters, so reluctant are they to mingle with each other, that their line of junction is often distinctly visible to

the eye: one-half of a ship may frequently be perceived floating in the cold ocean water, the other half in this warm current, known to mariners and geographers as the Gulf Stream.

Long before the discovery of America, the Gulf Stream, by carrying nuts, bamboos, and artificially carved pieces of wood to the shores of Europe, indicated the existence of a western continent. Columbus himself was told by a settler in the Azores, that even strange boats had been seen, constructed so that they could not sink, and managed by broad-faced men of foreign appearance. Were these Esquimaux Indians? Wallace, in his "Account of the Islands of Orkney," tells us that in 1682 an Esquimaux was seen in his canoe off the south side of the island of Edda by many persons, who could not succeed in reaching him; and another was seen, in 1684, off the island of Westram. Moreover, he says, "Be the seas never so boisterous, these boats, being made of fish-skins, are so contrived that they can never sink, but are like sea-gulls swimming on the top of the water." Two more of these current-drifted canoes were subsequently found on the shores of the Orkneys; one was sent to Edinburgh, the other hung up in the church of Burra.

As if determined to make its course and existence known to the most unobservant, the Gulf Stream carried the main-mast of the English ship *Tilbury*, that was destroyed by fire off the coast of St. Domingo, during the seven years' war, to the coast of Scotland. But, again, it carried to Scotland a number of casks of palm-oil, that were recognized, by their marks and brands, to be part of the cargo of a ship that had been wrecked near Cape Lopez in Africa. How could this last remarkable drift come to pass? Simply thus: the Gulf Stream, which we have compared to a river, is in reality a part of a great system of oceanic circulation. The branch that turns off from the British islands, southward to the Azores, joins the great equatorial current which, flowing to the westward from the coast of Africa, enters the Caribbean Sea, and emerges from the Straits of Florida as the Gulf Stream. The casks of palm-oil, then, had twice traversed the Atlantic—first from east to west in the equatorial current, and secondly from west to east in the Gulf Stream—before they found a resting-place on the coast of Scotland.

If we were to place little pieces of cork, chaff, or other light bodies, in a basin of water, and give the water a circular motion, the light substances would crowd together in the centre, where there is the least motion. So it is in the great basin of the Atlantic, where the Sargasso Sea forms the centre of the whirl caused by the circular motion of the equatorial current and the Gulf Stream. This sea, situated about midway in the Atlantic, in the triangular space between the Azores, Canaries, and Cape de Verd Islands, covering a space equal in extent to the valley of the Mississippi, is so thickly matted over with a peculiar weed (*Fucus natans*) that the speed of vessels passing through it is often greatly retarded. To the eye, at a short distance, it seems substantial enough to walk upon, and countless hosts of small crustacea dwell on this curious carpet of the ocean. Columbus sailed through it, on his first voyage of discovery, in spite of the terrors of his less adventurous companions, who believed that it marked the limits of navigation; and its position has not altered since that time. This Sargasso, or Sea of Lentils, as the Spaniards first termed it, has a historical interest. In the celebrated bull of Pope Alexander VI. in 1493, when he divided the world between the Spaniards and the Portuguese, he decreed that the Sargasso Sea was to be their mutual boundary to all eternity!

The Gulf Stream preserves its identity in physical characteristics throughout the many thousand miles of its continuous flow; the only change undergone is that of degree. As its waters gradually commingle with those of the clashing sea, their deep blue tint declines, their high temperature diminishes, the speed with which they press forward abates. The maximum of velocity, where the stream quits the narrow channel of Benini, which compresses its egress from the gulf, is about four miles an hour; off Cape Hatteras, where it has gained a breadth of seventy-five miles, the velocity is reduced to three miles. On the parallel of the Newfoundland banks, it is farther reduced to one and a half miles an hour, and this gradual abatement of force is continued across the Atlantic. The highest temperature observed is eighty-five degrees.

The waters of the Gulf Stream do not, in any part of their course, touch the bottom of

the sea. They are everywhere defended from so comparatively good a conductor of heat by a cushion of cold water, one of the best of non-conductors; the genial warmth is carried thousands of miles to fulfill its destined purposes. On a winter-day, the temperature of the stream, as far north as Cape Hatteras, is from twenty to thirty degrees higher than the water of the surrounding ocean. Even after flowing three thousand miles, it preserves in winter the heat of summer. With this temperature it crosses the fortieth degree of north latitude, and there overflowing its liquid banks, spreads itself out, for thousands of square leagues, over the cold waters around, covering the ocean with a mantle of warmth. Moving now more slowly, but dispensing its genial influence more freely, it at last meets the British islands. By these it is divided, one part going into the polar basin of Spitzbergen, the other entering the Bay of Biscay; but each with a warmth considerably above the ocean temperature.

Modern ingenuity has suggested a method of warming buildings by means of hot water. The north-western parts of Europe are warmed in similar manner by the Gulf Stream. The torrid zone is the furnace; the Caribbean Sea and Gulf of Mexico, the boilers; the Gulf Stream, the conducting-pipe; from the banks of Newfoundland to the shores of Europe is the great hot-air chamber, spread out so as to present a large surface. Here the heat, conveyed into this warm-air chamber of mid-ocean, is taken up by the prevailing west winds, and dispensed over Britain and other countries, where it is so much required. Such, in short, is the influence of the Gulf Stream upon the climate, that Ireland is clothed in robes of evergreen grass; while in the same latitude, on the American side of the Atlantic, is the frost-bound coast of Labrador. In 1831 the harbor of St. John's, Newfoundland, was closed with ice so late in the season as June; yet the port of Liverpool, two degrees farther north, has never been closed by frost in the severest winter. The Laplander cultivates barley in a latitude which in every other part of the world is doomed to perpetual sterility. The benefit thus conferred by the Gulf Stream is a remarkable accident. It obviously depends on the Gulf of Mexico continuing to be a gulf, which, however, it might

easily cease to be. A subsidence of the Isthmus of Panama to the extent of a couple of hundred feet (and such subsidences have taken place in geological times all over the world), would allow the equatorial current of the Atlantic to pass through into the Pacific, instead of being reflected back to European coasts. Britain would become a Labrador, and cease to be the seat of a numerous and powerful people.

While the Gulf Stream is covering Europe's shores with verdure, ripening the harvests of England and the vintage of France, its influence is equally beneficial at its fountain-head in the western world. The Caribbean Sea and the Gulf of Mexico are encompassed on one side by the chain of West India Islands, and on the other by the Cordilleras of the Andes, contracting with the Isthmus of Darien, and again expanding over the plains of Central America and Mexico. On the extreme summits of this range are the regions of eternal snow; next in descent is the *tierra templada*, or temperate region; and lower still is what the Spaniards truly and emphatically have termed *tierra caliente*, the burning land. Descending still lower is the level of the sea, where, were it not for this wonderful system of aqueous circulation, the peculiar features of the surrounding country assure us we should find the hottest and most pestilential climate in the world. But as the waters become heated, they are carried off by the Gulf Stream, and replaced by cooler currents entering the Caribbean Sea. The surface-water flowing out is four degrees warmer than the surface-water entering to supply its place.

As in a hot-water apparatus for warming a building, the water cooled in the hot-air chamber flows back to the boiler; so one part of the waters of the Gulf Stream, after giving out their heat, flow toward the equatorial current, the other to the polar basin of Spitzbergen. The secrets of the Arctic regions are hidden by impenetrable ice; but we know that a return-current, bearing immense icebergs, comes down from the dreary north, through Davis's Strait, and meets the Gulf Stream at the banks of Newfoundland. Scoresby counted at one time six hundred icebergs starting off on their southward journey by this current, which, pressing on the waters of the Stream, curves its channel into

a 'bend,' in shape resembling a horse-shoe, and some hundreds of miles in area. This bend is the great receptacle or harbor of the icebergs which drift down from the north, and are here melted by the warm waters of the Gulf Stream. Who dare say that, in the course of ages, the banks of Newfoundland have not been formed by the earth, stones, and gravel carried down to that spot by these very icebergs? Such is the distinctness kept up between the warm and cold water, that, though this northern current forms a large bend or indentation in the Gulf Stream, it does not commingle with it; the former here divides into two parts, one actually under-running the Gulf Stream, the other flowing south-westerly between it and the coast of America.

Though the Gulf Stream was noticed by Sir Humphrey Gilbert in the sixteenth century, we are indebted to Dr. Franklin for the first chart of its course. Being in London in 1770, his attention was called to a memorial which the board of customs at Boston had sent to the lords of the treasury, stating that the Falmouth packets were generally a fortnight longer on their voyage to Boston than common trading-vessels were from London to Rhode Island. They therefore begged that the Falmouth packets should be sent to Providence instead of to Boston. This appeared very strange to Franklin, as the traders were deeply laden and badly manned vessels, to say nothing of the extra distance between London and Falmouth. He consulted a Nantucket whaling-captain named Folger, who happened to be in London at the time. Folger immediately explained the mystery by stating that the Rhode Island trading-captains were acquainted with the course of the Gulf Stream, while those of the English packet-service were not. The latter kept in it, and were set back from sixty to seventy miles per day, while the former merely ran across it. At the request of Franklin, the Nantucket whaler traced the course of the Stream, and the doctor had it engraved, and sent copies to the Falmouth captains, who treated the communication with contempt. This course of the Stream, as laid down by Folger, has been retained in our charts almost to the present day. Who taught this unscientific Nantucket

whaler so accurately the course of this mighty current, then so little known? It was the whales, the gigantic prey he followed in the ocean. The right whale (*Balaena mysticelus*), as seamen term it, never enters the warm water of the Gulf Stream, which, as well as the warm waters of the torrid zone, is as a wall of fire to these creatures. But they delight to congregate, seeking for food, along the edges of the Stream; and thus Folger, through the experience of many voyages, was enabled so correctly to denote its course.

The Gulf Stream of the Atlantic has its counterpart in the Pacific. The latter flows out of the Straits of Malacca, just as the Atlantic current flows out of the Straits of Florida. The coast of China is its United States; the Philippines its Bermudas; the Japanese islands its Newfoundland. The climates of the Asiatic coast correspond with those of America along the Atlantic; and those of Columbia, Washington, and Vancouver are duplicates of those of Western Europe and the British islands; the climate of California resembles that of Spain; and the sandy plains and rainless regions of Lower California remind us of Africa. The course of this Stream has not yet been traced out, but it sets southwardly along the coast of California and Mexico, as the Gulf Stream does along the west coast of Africa to the Cape Verd Islands. This current, too, has its Sargasso Sea; to the west, from California, of the southwardly set, lies the pool in which the drift-wood and sea-weed of the North Pacific are gathered. Inshore of, but counter to, the China stream, along the eastern shores of Asia, is found a current of cold water, resembling that between the Gulf Stream and the American coast. Like its counterpart, it is the nursery of valuable fisheries.

GUNPOWDER PLOT, a conspiracy formed in the beginning of the reign of James I. of England, for the re-establishment of popery. The Roman Catholics had expected great favor and indulgence from James, both because he was a descendant of Mary, a rigid Catholic, and because he had shown some favor to that religion in his youth; but they soon discovered their mistake, and were at once surprised and enraged to find James,

on all occasions, express his resolution of strictly executing the laws enacted against them, and of persevering in the policy of his predecessor. This declaration determined certain desperate men among them to destroy the king and parliament at a blow. They stored, in the vaults under the parliament-house, thirty-six barrels of gunpowder, purchased in Holland, and covered them with coals and fagots. The meaning of a warning but ambiguous letter, received by Lord Montague, was first penetrated by the king. The care of searching the vaults devolved upon the Earl of Suffolk, the lord chamberlain, who purposely delayed the search until the day before the meeting of parliament, Nov. 5th, 1605. He remarked the great piles of fagots which lay in the vault under the house of peers, and seized a man preparing for the terrible enterprise, dressed in a cloak and boots, with a dark lantern in his hand. This was one Guy Fawkes, who had just disposed every part of the train for taking fire the next morning; the matches and other combustibles being found in his pockets. The whole of the design was now discovered; but the atrocity of his guilt, and the despair of pardon, inspiring him with resolution, he told the officers of justice with an undaunted air that had he blown them and himself up together, he had been happy. Before the council he displayed the same intrepid firmness, mixed even with scorn and disdain, refusing to discover his associates, and showing no concern but for the failure of his enterprise. But his bold spirit was at length subdued; after confinement in the Tower for two or three days, on being shown the rack, his courage failed him, and he made a full discovery of his accomplices, to the number of eighty. Catesby and Percy were killed; Sir Everard Digby, Rockwood, Winter, Garnet, a Jesuit, and others, were executed, as was also Guy Fawkes.

GUNTER, EDMUND, an eminent English mathematician, author of the scale and chain which bear his name, died in 1626, aged forty-five.

GUSTAVUS I. of Sweden, commonly called GUSTAVUS VASA, was imprisoned when Christian II. of Denmark sought to enslave his country. Having escaped from prison in 1519, he arrived at Lubeck after meeting

with various difficulties. The father of Gustavus perished in the wholesale slaughter of Swedish nobles by Christian in 1520. Proscribed by the tyrant, he fled into Dalecarlia, where he roused the miners to revenge the wrongs of their country. The young hero found the peasants prepared to receive him with open arms, and to swear to revenge the massacre at Stockholm with the last drop of their blood. The brave Dalecarlians flocked to the standard of Gustavus, who was from this moment irresistible. After the expulsion of the Danes, Gustavus was proclaimed King of Sweden and of the two Gothlands in 1523, and he soon succeeded in establishing the doctrines of Luther in his dominions. In 1531, Christian made preparations for recovering the throne, but his vast armament was defeated with great slaughter. In 1542, Gustavus prevailed on the states to render the crown hereditary in his own family. This valiant, wise, and virtuous hero, the true deliverer of his country, died in 1560, at the age of seventy.

GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS, King of Sweden, succeeded his father, Charles IX., in 1611, at the age of eighteen. Russia, Poland, and Denmark were then enemies of Sweden. Gustavus, having placed the Chancellor Oxenstiern at the head of the administration of civil affairs, took charge himself of the martial operations, and in 1613 prosecuted the war against Denmark with such vigor and success, that, through the mediation of Great Britain and Holland, an advantageous peace was procured, by which the Danish monarch renounced all pretensions to the throne. He was equally successful with the Russians, who ceded to him the fine province of Livonia and part of the province of Novogorod. His hostilities, however, with his cousin Sigismund of Poland, were of longer duration, and were productive of those glorious events which procured him a conspicuous rank among the most distinguished warriors of his time. The King of Poland could not forget the Swedish crown, of which he had been deprived by the impolitic conduct of his father and himself, and formed a plot for seizing on Gustavus, who, however, avoided the snare.

The Swedish monarch, having prepared a numerous fleet, laid siege to Riga in 1621.

Gustavus proved victorious, but allowed the besieged to capitulate on honorable terms. During a series of years he was engaged in constant warfare, which afforded him opportunities of training the Swedes, and forming those intrepid commanders and formidable battalions which long kept Europe in alarm. At length, in 1629, Gustavus gloriously terminated the war with Poland, and obtained large cessions of territory. He did not, however, long enjoy the fruits of his victories in peace.

The war between the Catholics and Protestants, which laid Germany waste in this century, had already commenced. Gustavus Adolphus was looked to as the champion of the reformed faith. This, with the resentment he felt against the emperor for aiding Poland, and his ambition to curb the power of the house of Austria, determined him to march into Germany in 1630. He reduced Frankfort on the Oder, and various other places, and compelled the Elector of Brandenburg to unite his troops with the Swedish battalions. He then invaded Saxony. In 1631, Tilly awaited Gustavus at Leipzig with an army of 40,000 men. The Swedish monarch led his troops to the attack, and after an obstinate conflict obtained a decisive victory. He then penetrated into Bavaria, and levied contributions on the opulent districts of Germany. The battle of Lutzen ensued in 1632, on the fate of which contest that of Europe appeared to depend. The Swedish infantry performed prodigies of valor, broke the line of the imperialists, and seized their cannon. Victory had already declared for the Swedes, when Gustavus was found stretched among the slain. His death plunged Sweden into the greatest affliction, but his triumphant bands for a time supported her military reputation.

GUSTAVUS III. of Sweden, the eldest son of Adolphus Frederick, Duke of Holstein-Gottorp, was born in 1746, and succeeded to the throne on his father's death, Feb. 12th, 1771. The country, which was convulsed throughout, was tranquillized by the prudent measures of Gustavus, who was wise, firm, and accomplished, although fond of pleasure

and ambitions. He determined to take part against the French revolutionists, and thereby gave very general dissatisfaction. A conspiracy was formed against him; the most prominent members were the Counts Horn, Ribbing, and Ankarström, and he was shot by the latter at a masquerade at Stockholm, March 15th, 1792.

GUSTAVUS IV., his son, deposed and banished in 1809, died in Switzerland, after wandering through Europe under various names and the most straitened circumstances.

GWINNETT, BUTTON, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in England in 1732, and came to Charleston, S. C., in 1770. Soon afterward he purchased a large tract of land in Georgia, which he made his permanent residence. He took an active share in the affairs of the Revolution, and was in Congress in 1776. Subsequently he assisted in framing a state constitution for Georgia, and was chosen the first governor under it. He died May 27th, 1777, from a wound received in a duel with Gen. McIntosh.

GYPSIES. These mysterious vagabonds are the most widely diffused yet distinct race on the earth, not excepting even the Jews. They first made their appearance in Europe about 1517, in Bohemia, whence they are sometimes called Bohemians. Their origin has been a matter of much doubt. The common belief was (as some of the earliest hordes in Europe stated, and as the name 'gypsy' implied) that they came from Egypt, being driven forth by the Turks. Their supposed skill in the black art gave them a universal reception in that early age of credulity and superstition. Notwithstanding the persecution and proscription they have so generally met, they are yet found in all parts of Europe, as well as in Asia and Africa, and some even are leading the same wandering life in our own country. Through all their intercourse with other nations, they, like the Jews, have preserved their manners, customs, usage, and appearance unchanged. They have a tongue of their own, which has been traced to an Indian origin. They call themselves Roumani.

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HAHNEMANN, SAMUEL, was born of poor parents at Meissen in Saxony, 1755, and received his diploma as doctor in physic at Heidelberg in 1781. His researches led him to propound a new theory of medical science, now known as homœopathy, in support of which he published numerous treatises. He died at Paris in 1843.

HALE, Sir MATTHEW, one of the most upright judges that ever sat upon the English bench, born in 1609, died in 1676. Richard Baxter said, "I believe he would have lost all he had in the world, rather than do an unjust act."

HALE, NATHAN, the martyr-spy of the American Revolution, was born in Coventry, Conn., June 6th, 1755. He graduated with honor at Yale College in 1775, and was teaching school at New London, when news of the blood spilt at Lexington thrilled through the land. "Let us march immediately," said he, "and never lay down our arms until we obtain our independence." He enrolled at once as a volunteer, and sought the scene of action. After the disastrous battle of Long Island, it was an anxious question with Gen. Washington, what would be the next move of the victorious British against the scanty and ill-appointed patriot army? He directed Colonel Knowlton to select some competent person, who should seek the royal camp and penetrate the veil in which Howe had shrouded his designs. Col. Knowlton applied to various officers, with ill success: men who did not fear the hazard could not bear the ignominy of the task of a spy. Young Hale undertook it, assigning these reasons against the remonstrances of his comrades: "I think I owe to my country the accomplishment of an object so important, and so much desired by the commander of her armies; and I know no other mode of obtaining the information than by assuming a disguise and passing into the enemy's camp. I am sensible of the consequences of discovery and capture in such a situation. But for a year I have been attached to the army and have not rendered any material service, while receiving a compensation for which I

make no return. Yet I am not influenced by the expectation of promotion or pecuniary reward. I wish to be useful, and every kind of service necessary for the public good becomes honorable by being necessary. If the exigencies of my country demand a peculiar service, its claims to the performance of that service are imperious." In the plain costume of a schoolmaster, he crossed the sound from the Connecticut shore, gained the perilous knowledge he sought, reached in safe return the point where he had landed on the Long Island shore, and there was captured. The telltale notes and draughts in which he had put his observations, revealed his errand; he was borne to New York, and sentenced to be hanged the next morning at daybreak. The provost marshal treated the doomed man with an awful cruelty, refusing him the solace of a Bible and the use of writing materials; the intercession of a young lieutenant procured the latter. The calm message home which Hale penned for his mother, was torn in pieces by the wretch, "that the rebels should never know they had a man who could die with such firmness." Injuries and taunts could not shake the firm spirit of the young hero; his dying words were, "I only regret that I have but one life to live for my country!" He was executed September 22d, 1776. The place of his burial is unknown. He was betrothed to a young lady in Connecticut, who survived him many years, dying in 1845. She had wedded and borne children, but her last thoughts on earth were busy with her maiden memories; she murmured, just before death, "*Write to Nathan!*"

HALIDON HILL, BATTLE OF. Fought near Berwick, between the English and Scots, July 19th, 1333. The latter were sorely defeated, 13,000 being slain, while the southron loss was small. After this victory Edward III. placed Edward Baliol on the Scottish throne.

HALIFAX. GEORGE SAVILLE, Marquis of Halifax, a celebrated English statesman, was born in Yorkshire in 1630. He was created a peer for his loyalty at the restora-

tion, and in 1682 was raised to the dignity of a marquis, soon after which he was made lord privy seal. At the beginning of the reign of James II., he was appointed president of the council, but on refusing his consent to the repeal of the test acts, he was dismissed. In the convention parliament, he sat as speaker of the House of Lords, and concurred in all the measures of the Revolution; but afterward he joined the opposition. He died in 1695.

HALL, LYMAN, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Connecticut, in 1731, graduated at Yale, studied medicine, and went to South Carolina in 1752. He was a practicing physician in Georgia on the breaking out of the Revolution. He at once was ready to devote his property and person to the service of his country, and in 1775 he was chosen a delegate to the general congress, then assembled in Philadelphia. He was at the North until after the evacuation of Savannah in 1782, when he returned and found all his property confiscated to the crown. In 1783, he was chosen governor of the state of Georgia, and died in retirement in Burke county in 1790.

HALL, ROBERT, one of the most eloquent of modern preachers, born near Leicester in 1764, was the son of a Baptist clergyman. He learned to read from inscriptions on gravestones, and at an early age was a prodigy of learning. While yet a boy he found his favorite reading in Edwards on the Will and Butler's Analogy. He spent some time at King's college, Aberdeen, where he had for fellow-student and warm friend, Sir James Mackintosh. From their partiality for Greek literature, the twain were dubbed "Plato and Herodotus." The eloquent orations and evangelical discourses wherewith he administered to the Baptist church at Cambridge won him the foremost rank among British preachers. He suffered acute pains from a disease of the spine, and in 1804 he began to be afflicted by occasional insanity, which at last rendered it necessary that his connection with the flock at Cambridge should be severed. He recovered completely, and spent twenty years in useful and brilliant ministry at Leicester, removing in 1826 to Bristol, where he labored till within a fortnight of

his death, which came the 21st of February, 1831.

HALLE, a Prussian city, in the province of Saxony, on the right bank of the Saale, containing 30,000 inhabitants. Its university ranks deservedly very high. It was the scene of an obstinate conflict, Oct. 17th, 1806, three days after the battle of Jena.

HALLEY, EDMUND, an eminent astronomer, born in London, Nov. 8th, 1656, died Jan. 14th, 1742.

HAMBURG, a free city of Germany, situated on the Elbe, about eighty miles from its mouth, containing 229,941 inhabitants. It was founded in the reign of Charlemagne, and was originally a fort called Hammenburg. In 1618, it was admitted into the number of imperial towns, subject to the counts of Holstein. In 1768, however, the subjection was annulled, and Hamburg was confirmed into an independent city. In 1807 it was taken possession of by a large French garrison, and Bonaparte seized a part of its public funds. In 1810, it was incorporated into the French empire; and in 1813, an unsuccessful effort was made to shake off the French yoke. A contribution of \$9,000,000 was then levied upon it, and the most positive orders were given to defend it, at whatever sacrifice, against the allies. This led to incalculable distress, to the destruction of the houses on the ramparts, to the seizure of considerable merchandise, and, finally, of the bank funds, by Davoust. At last, the city was evacuated, in May, 1814, and a part of the bank funds were restored by the Bourbons. Thrift and energy insured a return of prosperity. Hamburg was smitten by a mighty conflagration in May, 1842, which left twenty thousand people houseless. The territory of Hamburg is about 150 square miles, and the total population 217,000, the most of whom are Lutherans.

HAMILTON, ALEXANDER, was born in the island of Nevis, W. I., in 1757. At the age of sixteen, he entered Columbia College, New York, in which institution he greatly distinguished himself. At the age of seventeen he published political essays in favor of the colonial cause, so powerful and brilliant that they were at first attributed to Mr. Jay, then in the prime of life. At nineteen, eager to



HAMILTON'S MONUMENT IN TRINITY CHURCH-YARD, NEW YORK.

peril his life for liberty, Hamilton entered the army; he soon rose to the rank of captain of artillery, and Washington appointed him his aid-de-camp, ranking as lieutenant-colonel, when he was but twenty years of age. At the siege of Yorktown, he was in the hottest of the fire, and headed an assault which carried one of the outworks. After the war he commenced the study of the law in New York, and was speedily admitted to practice. In 1783 he was chosen member of Congress, and distinguished himself by his ability, unwearied industry, and patriotism. He was a member of the convention which met at Philadelphia for the purpose of framing the federal constitution. The essays which, with Jay and Madison, he published under the title of "The Federalist," contributed very essentially to render the constitution popular. As secretary of the treasury, to which office he was appointed in 1789, he gained the reputation of one of the greatest financiers of the age. In 1795 he retired into private life, but in 1798, as inspector-general, he organized the army intended to repel the threat-

ened invasion of the French, and in 1799, on the death of Washington, he succeeded to the chief command. June 11th, 1804, in consequence of a dispute between Colonel Burr and General Hamilton, the parties met at Hoboken, and Hamilton was killed at the first shot, standing on the fatal spot where his eldest son had recently been slain in a similar rencontre. Hamilton married Elizabeth, daughter of Gen. Schuyler. She died in 1854, at the advanced age of ninety-six.

HAMILTON, Sir WILLIAM, a distinguished metaphysician, professor in the University of Edinburgh, died in 1857.

HAMPDEN, JOHN, was born at London in 1594. He belonged to one of the worshipful and ancient country families of England, as did most of the parliamentary leaders in the great contest with the crown. He sat in the earlier parliaments of Charles I., but took no prominent part till he so manfully stood forth against the unauthorized tax for ship money in 1636. The king unsuccessfully sought his impeachment. When resort to arms became necessary, Hampden raised a

regiment from his tenantry, and brought to the field the same courage and capacity he had shown in discussion. He was killed in an engagement with Prince Rupert, June 8th, 1643.

HANAU, a province of Hesse-Cassel, the capital of which, Hanau, on the Kinzig, contains about 16,000 inhabitants. In 1792, Hanau was attacked, but not occupied, by the French. October 30th, 1813, an Austrian and Bavarian corps opposed here the great army of the French, in their retreat from Leipsic: a sanguinary conflict took place, in which the former were forced to retire.

HANCOCK, JOHN, was born at Quincy, in Massachusetts. Having lost his parents early, he was sent to Harvard College, where he graduated in 1754, by his uncle, a rich and benevolent merchant of Boston, to whose wealth and business he succeeded in 1764. After the battle of Lexington, when pardon was offered to the rebels in case of submission to the royal authority, Hancock and Adams were the only Americans excepted by Gage from the offer of mercy. After having been president of the provincial congress of Massachusetts, Hancock was sent to the general congress at Philadelphia in 1775, and filled the presidential chair of that body until 1779, when sickness compelled him to relinquish it. He was annually chosen governor of Massachusetts from 1780 till 1785. In 1787 he was re-elected, and filled the post until his death, Oct. 8th, 1793, at the age of fifty-six years. As the president of Congress, he was the first to sign the Declaration of Independence.

HANDEL, GEORGE FREDERIC, a native of Saxony, born February 24th, 1684. He produced his earliest operas at Hamburg. In 1710, he visited England, and his fame and fortune were there established. In 1741, he brought out his master-piece, the oratorio of "The Messiah." Toward the latter part of his life he was afflicted with total blindness. He died April 13th, 1759, leaving a fortune of £20,000. His appetites were coarse, his person ungainly, and his temper violent, although an external roughness was compensated by a humane and generous heart.

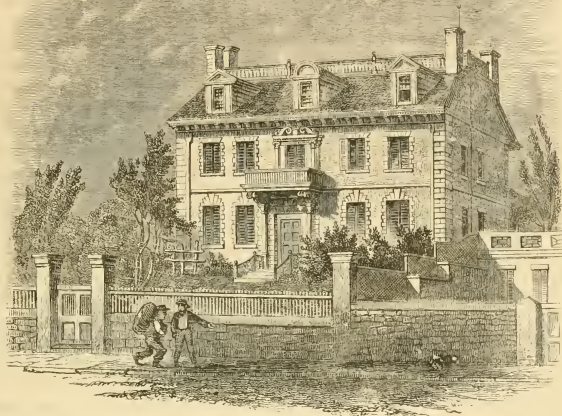
The following anecdote strikingly illustrates his manners and his peculiar humor. Dr. Greene, a personal friend, as well as a

warm admirer of Handel, brought to the great German an anthem of his own composition, requesting the favor of his opinion and remarks upon it. Handel readily received the production, promised to examine it immediately, and invited the doctor to breakfast with him the next day. Dr. Greene accordingly waited on the illustrious musician. Handel received him with cordiality, gave him an elegant breakfast, treated him with every politeness, but constantly continued to evade his visitor's questions respecting his opinion of the anthem. Greene, at length, too impatient to wait any longer for the great composer's decision on the merits of his piece, exclaimed vehemently, "My dearest friend, keep me no longer in suspense—tell me, I pray you—tell me what do you think of my anthem?" Handel, who had found it scientifically written, but very deficient in melody, answered, "Oh, it is ver fine, my dear doctor, ver fine indeed; only it do vant air, and so I flung it out of de window."

The publisher of one of Handel's operas cleared £1,500 by it; this caused the composer to say, "My dear sir, as it is only right that we should be upon an equal footing, *you* shall compose the next opera, and *I* will sell it."

HANNIBAL, son of Hamilcar Barcas, born B.C. 247, was a celebrated Carthaginian general. He was educated in his father's camp, and inured from his early years to the labors of the field, having passed into Spain when nine years old. Before leaving Carthage Hamilcar swore him to eternal enmity to the Romans. After his father's death, he had the command of the cavalry in Spain, and some time after, upon the death of Hasdrubal, he was invested with the command of all the armies of Carthage, though not yet in the twenty-fifth year of his age. In three years of continual success, he subdued all the nations of Spain which opposed the Carthaginian power, and took Saguntum after a siege of eight months. This city was in alliance with Rome, and its fall was the cause of the second Punic war, which Hannibal prepared to support with all the courage and prudence of a finished general. The army with which he entered Italy amounted, by the largest computation, to 100,000 foot and 20,000 horse. With this overwhelming force he

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THE HANCOCK HOUSE IN BOSTON.

passed the Alps, conquered his opponents, crossed the Apennines, invaded Etruria, defeated Flaminius at the lake Thrasymentum, and Caius Terentius and L. Æmilius in the fatal battle of Cannæ. Had Hannibal, immediately after this battle, marched his army to the gates of Rome, it must have yielded amidst the general consternation; but his delay continued so long that the Romans recovered their hopes, and when he finally approached the walls, he was informed that the piece of ground on which his army then stood, was being sold at a high price in the Roman forum. He then, after some time, retired to Capua, the luxuries of which enervated his troops, and unfitted them for action; this gave rise to the saying that "Capua was a Cannæ to Hannibal." Marcellus, who succeeded the cautious Fabius in the field, first taught the Romans that Hannibal was not invincible. Scipio having passed over into Africa, the Carthaginians now recalled Hannibal to combat the adventurous Romans. After sixteen years of flattering triumph, the Carthaginian general left Italy, met Scipio at

Zama, was defeated, and fled to Acrumetum. The Carthaginians procured peace on favorable terms, and Hannibal fled to Syria, but he was pursued from place to place by the animosity of the Romans, and at length killed himself at the court of Prusias, King of Bithynia, B.C. 183, aged sixty-four years.

HANNO, a Carthaginian general of high reputation, who was conquered by Scipio in Spain. He is not to be confounded with the great navigator, who lived three or four centuries earlier.

HANOVER, in the north of Germany, was erected into a kingdom in 1814. It contains 14,800 square miles, and 1,819,777 inhabitants. The Hartz mountains contain silver, iron, copper, lead, &c. When Napoleon had obtained dominion over almost the whole continent in 1811, Hanover became an integral part of the kingdom of Westphalia, which had been formed of provinces ceded by Prussia and others to France, and of which Jerome Bonaparte, brother of Napoleon, was the sovereign. Hanover, its capital, suffered severely during its occupation by the French

from 1803 to 1813; but was relieved from their presence by the arrival of Bernadotte, with an allied force, on the 6th of November of the latter year. The city of Hanover, capital of the kingdom, has 40,000 inhabitants. Gottingen, a city on the Leine, contains 10,000 inhabitants, and is famous for its university, founded by George II. in 1734.

HANOVER, HOUSE OF. Elizabeth, daughter of James I. of England, married with Frederick, the Elector-Palatine of Bohemia. Their daughter Sophia became the wife of Ernest Augustus, Duke of Brunswick Lunenburg, and first Elector of Hanover. In 1701 the English parliament limited the succession of the crown, after William III. and Queen Anne, if the latter had no issue, to the Princess Sophia of Hanover, and the heirs of her body, being Protestants. Accordingly, upon the death of Anne, Sophia's son George Lewis, Elector of Hanover and Duke of Brunswick Lunenburg, became also King of Great Britain as **GEORGE I.** He was born May 28th, 1660, and had married his cousin Sophia, heiress of Brunswick Zell. He was proclaimed King of England, Aug. 1st, 1714, and landed at Greenwich in the following month. At the commencement of his reign, the Whigs had the ascendancy, both in and out of parliament. In 1715 a revolution broke out in Scotland in favor of the Pretender, but was quelled without much trouble, although there were many who were decidedly opposed to the existing government. In 1715 the bill for septennial parliaments was brought into the house of lords by the Duke of Devonshire, and passed both houses. In 1718 a quadruple alliance of England, Holland, France, and Germany, was formed against Spain, and the Spanish were defeated by Sir George Byng on the coast of Sicily. In 1720 was started the celebrated South Sea scheme, which involved thousands of families in ruin. In 1721 Bishop Atterbury was seized and conveyed to the Tower, and afterward banished on suspicion of treason; the Duke of Norfolk, the Earl of Orrery, and others were imprisoned for participation in the plot. In 1725 the treaty of Hanover was signed to counteract the first treaty of Vienna. In 1727 the king visited his electoral dominions at Hanover, but being seized with a paralytic disorder on the road from Hanover to Hol-

land, he was conveyed to Osnaburgh, June 11th, 1727, where he died, in the thirteenth year of his reign. The disaffection toward the Elector of Hanover, on his arrival in England, was very great, and the populace gave no equivocal signs of it. One time a noisy mob surrounded a carriage which contained some German ladies of the court, and assailed their ears with epithets of abuse more fluent than elegant. One of the foreigners, putting her head out of the carriage-window, said, in her broken English, "My good peoples, we ish come for all your goods." "Yes," replied a surly fellow in the crowd, "and for all our chattels too."

George Augustus, the first George's son, came to the throne as **GEORGE II.** He was born Oct. 30th, 1683, and was created Prince of Wales, Oct. 4th, 1714. In 1704 he married Wilhelmina Caroline Dorothea, of Brandenburg-Anspach, and in 1727 succeeded his father. In 1729 the peace of Seville was concluded with Spain, but the war with that country was renewed in 1739. In 1742 Sir Robert Walpole resigned, after having been minister for nearly twenty years, and in the same year, the king, espousing the cause of Maria Theresa, marched against the French, whom he defeated in the battle of Dettingen, but without gaining much advantage. In 1745 Charles Edward, the young Pretender, landed in Scotland, but was finally defeated at Culloden. The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle was concluded in 1748. In 1754 the encroachments of the French in America brought on that war which resulted happily for Great Britain, and some of the successes of which in America are attributable to the bravery of the provincial troops. In the midst of general prosperity, George II. died at Kensington, Oct. 25th, 1760, in the seventy-seventh year of his age and thirty-third of his reign. He possessed no shining qualities, and despised learning.

Quarrels between the monarch and the heir apparent marked this dynasty. Thus George II. while Prince of Wales had not been on the best of terms with his father. Similar disagreement sundered him in turn from his son Frederick. The houses in London to which George Augustus, and afterward Frederick, retired when in disfavor at St. James's, were familiarly known as 'pouting

houses.' Frederick died before his father, and the grandson, GEORGE III., was heir to the crown. His long and eventful reign we have mentioned in our sketch of England. His mother was the Princess Augusta of Saxe Gotha, who gave him birth June 4th, 1738. He succeeded his grandfather, George II., Oct. 25th, 1760; married Charlotte Sophia, Princess of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, Sept. 8th, 1761; and both were crowned Sept. 22d in the same year. He was deranged in mind from October, 1788, to March, 1789. On the 24th of April, 1789, he went in procession to St. Paul's, to offer thanks for his recovery. The malady returned in 1801, and afflicted him till 1804; he relapsed in 1810, and died in Windsor Castle, Jan. 29th, 1820, in the eighty-second year of his age, and the sixtieth of his reign. Queen Charlotte died in 1818. George III. was a virtuous man, a good husband and father. Before his time the English court had the licentiousness of France with the coarseness of Germany. Under the influence of George and his excellent consort, decency was restored. But his virtue was not shared by all his numerous offspring; the Duke of York and the Duke of Cumberland were notoriously profligate; they were outdone in vice and shame by their eldest brother, GEORGE IV.

He was born Aug. 12th, 1762. Well educated and talented, he abused the gifts bestowed upon him, and in his youth plunged into the guiltiest excesses. Loaded with debt, he at length adopted a system of retrenchment, sold his splendid racing-stud, and reduced his whole establishment. With the assistance of parliament, he extricated himself from his difficulties. The indignation excited by a nefarious transaction of his, which was exposed by the Jockey Club, compelled him to abandon the turf. The fat young debauchee became enamored with Mrs. Fitzherbert, a brilliant and lovely widow of twenty-five. His heart, he declared, was now seriously affected; the fair widow divided his affection with the bottle; and his wooing was as assiduous as was her avoidance of him. She remained obdurate to all entreaty, till one day several gentlemen of the prince's household arrived at her house in the utmost consternation, informing her that the life of the prince was in imminent danger; that he

had stabbed himself, and that only *her* immediate presence could save him. There probably never was a man more ridiculous when playing the part of a lover than this Prince of Wales. To have himself bled, in order that he might look pale and interesting in the eyes of the Cynthia of the minute, was with him no unusual trick. On this occasion, however, it was positively declared that he had stabbed himself, and the emissaries besought the young widow to hasten and heal the wound. She proceeded to Carlton House, under the very proper guardianship of the Duchess of Devonshire. She found the prince pale and covered with blood. "The sight," we are told, "so overpowered her faculties that she was deprived almost of all consciousness. The prince told her that nothing could induce him to live, unless she promised to become his wife, and permitted him to put a ring round her finger." She repented, however, of her betrothal, fled beyond the sea, and remained a year on the continent, endeavoring to avoid the perilous suit. Couriers with ardent dispatches followed her with such speed and in such numbers that the suspicious French government at last began to clap them in prison. George once wrote her a love-letter of seven and thirty pages, in which he assured her that his father would connive at the union. She returned to England, and was privately married to the prince. But she was wife and yet no wife. Public attention was turned to the match; parliament began to inquire into the matter; and Mr. Fox was authorized by the princely liar to deny that he was married. The pressure of his ill-gotten debts induced him, in 1795, to marry Caroline Amelia Augusta, daughter of the Duke of Brunswick. Her sufferings and persecution excited the world's indignation against her heartless husband. One daughter, the Princess Charlotte, was the only offspring of this unhappy and unhallowed union. This lovely and virtuous girl wedded Prince Leopold, afterward King of the Belgians; the hope of the nation was turned to lamentation by her death in childbed, Nov. 5th, 1817, at the early age of twenty-one. Her injured mother died in 1821, shortly after her husband ascended the throne.

George IV. had been regent during the long insanity of his father. His reign as king

was not long. He died July 26th, 1830. On his death-bed he received a touching note from Maria Fitzherbert, long separated from him, as from a wife offering her services to her husband. She died in March, 1837. George was succeeded by his brother William, Duke of Clarence, who had spent much of his life in the naval service. The sailor king had his errors, but what with comparison to his brother, and his own bluff good nature, he was very popular. His queen was Adelaide, sister of the Duke of Saxe-Meinengen, who survived him some twenty years. William IV. died June 20th, 1837. The kingdom of Hanover was subject to the Salique law, by which a woman can not hold the sceptre. Victoria, a girl of eighteen, the daughter of the Duke of Kent, was the heir to the British crown. The throne of Hanover therefore fell to the Duke of Cumberland, her uncle, and Victoria became Queen of Great Britain and Ireland. She was married Feb. 10th, 1840, to her cousin, Prince Albert, of Saxe-Coburg. The crown is not likely to lack an heir in the direct line; Victoria and Albert are blessed with nine children: Victoria Adelaide Mary Louisa, Princess Royal, born Nov. 21st, 1840; married to Prince Frederick William of Prussia, January, 1858. Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, born Nov. 9th, 1841. Alice Maud Mary, born April 25th, 1843. Alfred Ernest, born Aug. 6th, 1844. Helena Augusta Victoria, born May 25th, 1846. Louisa Carolina Alberta, born March 18th, 1848. Arthur Patrick Albert, born May 1st, 1850. Leopold George Duncan Albert, born April 7th, 1853. Beatrice Mary Victoria Feodore, born April 17th, 1857.

There were thirteen children born from the marriage of George III. with Queen Charlotte; and yet, of this numerous family there are singularly few legitimate descendants in the present generation. The sons were seven: George, Prince of Wales, afterward George IV.; Frederick, Duke of York; William, Duke of Clarence, afterward William IV.; Edward, Duke of Kent; Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, afterward King of Hanover; Augustus, Duke of Sussex, and Adolphus, the Duke of Cambridge. Of the six daughters, the names in the order of birth stand thus: the Princess Royal, Charlotte Augusta,

who was married to the King of Wurtemberg; the Princess Augusta, who died unmarried; the Princess Elizabeth, who was married to the Prince of Hesse Homburg; the Princess Mary, who was married to her cousin, the Duke of Gloucester; and the Princesses Sophia and Amelia, both of whom died unmarried. The last of these children on earth was Mary, Duchess of Gloucester, who expired April 30th, 1857, at the age of eighty-one. Queen Victoria, daughter of the Duke of Kent; the King of Hanover, son of the Duke of Cumberland; and the three children of the late Duke of Cambridge,—these are the only lawful grand-children of the third George that survive; and the Princess Charlotte, daughter of George IV., is the only one who has passed away.

HANSEATIC LEAGUE. In the middle of the thirteenth century, the sea and land were infested with pirates and robbers. The German trade being exposed to accidents by land and sea, Hamburg and Lubeck, in the year 1241, entered into a confederacy in which they agreed to defend each other from all attacks and from every act of violence. This league was soon after joined by Brunswick; it was named by way of eminence, the *Hanse*, meaning a league for mutual defense. Many other towns joined in a short time. In 1260 a meeting of the members was held at Lubeck, and continued there every three years. In the fourteenth century, this league attained everywhere a high political importance, and enjoyed extensive and uncommon privileges, till at last it became the mistress of lands and seas and crowns. So it continued for a length of time, till the traveling becoming more secure, and the circumstances that gave it rise being changed, the Hanseatic League began to fall. The last diet was held at Lubeck in 1630. The largest number of the Hanse towns was eighty-five.

HARDICANUTE, son of Canute and Emma, and the opponent of Harold, filled the thrones of England and Denmark for a short time. He made himself odious by the imposition of taxes, and died of repletion at the nuptials of a Danish lord in 1041.

HARLEY, ROBERT, Earl of Oxford and Mortimer, a distinguished statesman in the time of Queen Anne, was born in 1661. He was impeached in 1715, on suspicion of favor-

ing the restoration of the exiled Stuarts, and was confined in the Tower a couple of years. He was finally set free, and died May 21st, 1724. He was a great patron of literature, and by him the Harleian Library, now in the British Museum, was brought together.

HAROLD I., of England, was the son of Canute, by Alfwen, daughter of the Earl of Southampton. He was proclaimed King of England on the death of Canute in 1035, and was supported by the Danes, in opposition to Earl Godwin of Kent, who favored Hardicanute. He died in 1039.

HAROLD II., son of Earl Godwin, usurped the English throne against Edgar, after the death of Edward the Confessor, 1066. He was defeated and slain in the fatal battle of Hastings, Oct. 14th, 1066.

HAROUN AL RASCHID was one of the most celebrated of the Saracenic caliphs; the territories which he governed extended from Egypt to Khorassan. He was no less distinguished for his taste, and the encouragement he afforded to literature and the arts, than for his power. He was the second son of the Caliph Mahadi, and succeeded his elder brother, Hadi, A.D. 786. He differed in so many respects from the despots of the east, that he obtained the name of *al Raschid*, 'the just.' The caliph was fond of personally ascertaining the condition of his people, when, rid of the dazzling attributes of rank, he feared no concealment on their part. Many instances of the wisdom and justice of his decisions have come down to us. A merchant, having lost a purse containing a large sum of money, caused the loss to be proclaimed, with an accurate description of the purse and the value of its contents, offering a large reward to the person who should find and restore it. After some days had elapsed, a poor laborer presented himself before a magistrate with the purse, and claimed of the merchant (who was summoned) the reward which belonged to him. The merchant, rejoiced at finding his money, thought to avoid payment of the reward by declaring that the purse contained, in addition to the money, an emerald of great value, which the finder must be compelled to restore. The poor laborer was overwhelmed by this assertion, and the magistrate appeared at a loss, but the caliph, who was present in disguise, advanced and decided the case:

"Since," said he, "the merchant declares that the purse which he lost contained a sum of money and an emerald, and since the finder of this purse swears, and the seal upon the purse proves, that he has taken no precious gem, this can not be the purse which the merchant has lost. Let, then, its present holder endeavor to discover the real owner, and, failing to do so, appropriate the prize; and let the merchant make diligent search for the money and the emerald which he has lost; the present property being, as he has proved, none of his."

Haroun was an ardent lover of learning, and caused it to be disseminated throughout his realms. He was a warm admirer of the ancient classics, and translations of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, with other works of antiquity, made his people acquainted with the beauties of Greek and Roman literature. He invaded the Greek empire no fewer than eight times, conquering in 802 the Emperor Nicephorus, who had refused to pay him the customary tribute. The Greek monarch was compelled to pay a heavier tribute to the caliph, and promise not to rebuild the frontier towns which had been ruined and plundered. The caliph's destruction of the family of the Barmecides displays the stern resolution of a despot. He had experienced the care of Yahia, the head of the Barmecide family, who had superintended his education; the eldest of Yahia's sons was a general who had served his country well; the second was Giafar, the caliph's prime vizier, and the two other sons were in responsible and dignified stations. The Barmecides were in favor with all classes, and Giafar stood high in the graces of the caliph. Indeed, so warmly attached was the latter to the vizier, that, for the sake of enjoying his company with that of his beloved sister Abassa, he united them in marriage, but placed capricious restrictions upon their intimacy. On the disobedience of the pair, all the violent passions of the caliph were aroused. He publicly sacrificed Giafar to his resentment, and impoverished the whole family. Haroun, at the height of splendor and fame, sent an embassy to the Emperor Charlemagne, bearing, among other presents, a water-clock, an elephant, and the keys of the holy sepulchre at Jerusalem. The caliph was seized with a mortal illness while preparing

to depart upon a military expedition, and died at Tous, in Khorassan, A.D. 809, in the forty-seventh year of his age, and the twenty-third of his reign. No other of the Saracenic caliphs ever attained the height of power and popularity which Haroun al Raschid gained, and although some of his acts are inexcusable, yet considering the examples furnished by his age, and the preceding, we can not withhold from him a large share of praise. Haroun is one of those characters which are equally the delight of history and romance, and while the graver acts of his reign employ the pen of the rigid annalist, his varied adventures are themes for the gay eloquence of such works as the "Arabian Nights' Entertainments."

HARPER, ROBERT GOODLOE, was born near Fredericksburg, Va., of poor parents. He served a short time in a troop of light horse, but he soon withdrew from the service for the purpose of completing his education. He entered Princeton College, and while distinguishing himself in the upper classes, he was employed in the instruction of the lower. After leaving college he went to Charleston, S. C., where he studied law, but soon retired to an interior district to practice. Some essays in a newspaper gave a favorable idea of his talents and principles; he was elected to the legislature, and soon after to Congress. In 1801 he resumed the practice of law in Baltimore, having married the daughter of Charles Carroll of Carrollton. He defended Judge Chase on his impeachment. He was afterward senator in Congress, but his professional duties compelled him to resign. He died suddenly on the 15th of January, 1825, aged sixty.

HARRIS, JOHN, the first compiler of a dictionary of arts and sciences in England, died a beggar, 1719, aged forty-nine.

HARRISON, BENJAMIN, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, born in Berkeley, Virginia. He was educated at William and Mary College, and began his public career in the Virginia assembly in 1764. From 1774 to 1777 he was a delegate to Congress, chairman of the board of war, speaker of the house of burgesses, and governor of Virginia from 1782 to 1784; he was extremely popular and useful. He died in April, 1791.

HARRISON, WILLIAM HENRY, the youngest

son of Benjamin Harrison (above), was born on the 9th of February, 1773, at Berkeley in Charles City county, Virginia, about twenty-five miles below Richmond. His father was a descendant of the great General Harrison who held a commission under Cromwell. His mother was Elizabeth Bassett, a niece of the wife of General Washington. At the time of Benjamin Harrison's death, in 1791, his estate having become embarrassed in the public service, William Henry was at Hampden Sidney College, qualifying himself for the study of medicine, but when the news of the Indian outrages on the frontiers reached Virginia, he determined to enter the army. This resolution, which was opposed by his guardian, the celebrated financier Robert Morris, was warmly approved by the illustrious Washington, who gave him the commission of ensign in the first regiment of artillery, then stationed at Fort Washington on the Ohio, near the spot where Cincinnati now stands. Just after he arrived at the post, the news of Gen. St. Clair's defeat by the Indians on the Wabash reached it, and though he was urged to relinquish his new profession, on the grounds of the extreme hardships and deprivations of the service, and his youth and apparently slender constitution, he promptly and decidedly rejected the advice. Soon after, he was intrusted with the command of the escort of a train of pack-horses, destined to furnish supplies to Fort Hamilton on the Miami, twenty or thirty miles north of Fort Washington. This service required especial prudence and sagacity, and was performed by him, though a mere youth, in such a manner as to obtain the warm commendation of Gen. St. Clair.

Judge Burnet, in his "Transactions of the Historical Society of Ohio," speaks thus of this circumstance: "Soon after the battle and defeat of St. Clair, which was on the 4th of November, 1791, General Harrison, then a subaltern, was sent in command of a small detachment from Fort Washington to Forts Hamilton and Jefferson. It was in the midst of one of the severest winters ever known in this country. Subalterns, as you know, were not permitted to march on horseback. Of course this youthful hero, not then twenty years of age, marched on foot, through the snow, at the head of his detachment, with

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his knapsack on his back; and although the woods were swarming with Indians, who had been released from the necessity of watching the army, he marched to the place of his destination in safety, after as severe an exposure to frost, fatigue, and danger as was endured at any time during the war."

From this time forward, the best years of his life were devoted to his country. In 1792 he was made a lieutenant, and in 1793 Gen. Wayne appointed him one of his aids, which he continued to be during the war. On the 20th of August, 1794, in marching down the Maumee, Gen. Wayne with 900 men was attacked by Indians to the number of 2,000, and put them to flight. In his official account he mentions that his "faithful and gallant aid, Lieutenant Harrison, rendered most essential service, by communicating orders in every direction, and by his conduct and bravery exciting the troops to press for victory." In August, 1795, peace was concluded at Greenville. Soon after, Harrison was promoted to the rank of captain, and placed in command of Fort Washington.

When Gen. Wayne died in 1797, Capt. Harrison resigned his commission, and was made secretary of the North-western Territory, and *ex officio* lieutenant-governor, Gen. St. Clair being governor. This office he filled with so much approbation, that he was chosen by the inhabitants their first delegate to Congress. His popularity was increased by his wish that the public lands should be sold in small quantities to actual settlers, instead of permitting speculators to purchase them in large ones, which object he accomplished, as well as a reform in the method of locating military land-warrants. The North-west Territory being divided into two, Ohio and Indiana, he was made governor of the latter in 1799, in which office his power was very extended, including that of superintendent of Indian affairs, and commissioner for treating with the Indians. The territory included the present states of Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin; the seat of government was at Vincennes, a village on the Wabash. Harrison's conduct as governor was held in high estimation, and Adams, Jefferson, and Madison successively appointed him for a period of thirteen years.

In 1806, through the intrigues of two

celebrated chiefs of the Shawnee tribe, Tecumseh and his brother the Prophet, the Indians began again to be troublesome. Their hostile demonstrations gradually increased. Gov. Harrison endeavored, unsuccessfully, to conciliate them. The brothers, incited by British emissaries, were untiring in their endeavors for a league of all the tribes against the whites, till they had about them a thousand warriors. These committed atrocious depredations along the frontier, till even the governor's house was scarcely considered safe from their attacks. In September, 1809, a council convened at Fort Wayne, at which Gov. Harrison negotiated with the Miamies, Delawares, Pottawatomies, and Kickapoos, a large purchase of land. Tecumseh was much dissatisfied with this treaty when he heard of it, and he threatened the lives of some of the chiefs by whom it had been concluded. Hearing this, Harrison invited him to come to Vincennes, stipulating that he should not bring with him more than thirty warriors. But, alleging suspicion of treachery from the Americans, he came with more than four hundred, armed. He also refused to hold the conference at the appointed place, which was under the portico of the governor's house, insisting that it should be in a neighboring grove. The council was held August 12th, 1810. Tecumseh complained of injustice that Indians had received. To an explanation from Harrison, he fiercely shouted, "It is false!" His warriors sprang to their feet and brandished their clubs and tomahawks. They eyed the governor with ferocious gaze. His military escort numbered but twelve men, and they were cut off from him by the threatening Indians. They advanced, and would have fired upon the maddened savages, had not Harrison restrained them. The moment was perilous, but the cool bravery of the governor was equal to it. In a calm, firm voice, he said to Tecumseh, "You are a bad man: I will have no further talk with you. You must now take your departure from these settlements, and hasten immediately to your camp." Tecumseh was cowed by the governor's dauntless bearing, and the next day he apologized for his insolence. No satisfactory result came of the council; and Tecumseh withdrew to Tippecanoe, the residence of

the Prophet, and the brothers continued their machinations. A blow against the ruthless marauders became unavoidable, and the forbearance of the American government was at last exhausted. The next year Gov. Harrison received orders to march against the Prophet's town. Hastily assembling a force of 900 men, he advanced, and on the 9th of November, 1811, the famous battle of Tippecanoe was fought. In this fierce contest, the cool courage of Harrison was gallantly conspicuous; victory crowned the bravery of himself and his men. Notwithstanding this decisive blow, Tecumseh and the Prophet continued busy in mischief, and when war broke out with England in 1812, their activity was redoubled. Gov. Harrison received a brigadier-general's commission in the army of the United States, and President Madison invested him with the command of the north-western army, nominally consisting of ten thousand men, but undisciplined, destitute, and scattered over a wide region. The trust was as trying as it was important. The marked points of the campaign of 1813 under his direction, were the glorious defense of Fort Meigs, and the important and decisive victory won in the battle of the Thames, the 5th of October, in which Tecumseh fell, and by which the north-western frontier was relieved from danger. Harrison had received the promotion of major-general. The jealousy of Gen. Armstrong, the secretary of war, ousted him from active service, and led him to tender his resignation early in 1814.

From 1816 to 1819 he was a representative in Congress from Ohio. He was earnest for the recognition of the South American republics. He assiduously and successfully labored for the relief of the veterans who had served in the war of the Revolution, as well as those who had been wounded or otherwise disabled in the late war with Great Britain. In 1825 he took his seat as United States senator from Ohio. He supported the administration of John Quincy Adams, and in 1828 that president appointed him minister to the South American republic of Colombia. His mission was cut short by the accession of Gen. Jackson, one of whose first acts was his recall. After his return he led a quiet life upon his little farm at North Bend, on the Ohio River a few miles below Cincinnati. He had

given his life to his country's service, not to the accumulation of fortune, and his means were small. He took the office of clerk to the court of Hamilton county, and this modest station he held till 1840, when the people called him to the highest office in their gift.

The joy with which his elevation to the executive was hailed soon changed to a nation's mourning. The cares of office, and the devotion with which he entered into its onerous duties, wore heavily upon him; a severe cold was followed by an attack of bilious pleurisy that baffled medical skill, and his useful and honorable life closed April 4th, 1841, just one month from the day of his inauguration. Party distinctions were merged in sorrow for his untimely decease, and throughout the land funeral honors were paid to his memory. Minute guns were fired, bells were tolled, and resolutions expressive of the most profound regret were adopted in almost every town and village throughout the Union. It being the first instance of the death of a chief magistrate while occupying the presidential chair, the impression made was doubly strong. The funeral ceremonies at Washington were very impressive. Mr. Tyler, who as vice-president succeeded to the office of chief magistrate, issued a recommendation to the people of the Union to observe the 14th of May as a day of fasting and humiliation, in consequence of the affliction the nation had sustained. It was almost unanimously observed, and very few clergymen in the country failed to improve the opportunity to impress upon the minds of their hearers the weight of our national sins, and the solemn lesson given them of the vanity of all earthly distinctions and honors. Ohio could not relinquish her claim to the remains of one who, from the age of nineteen, had been devoted to her best interests. A committee of her most respectable inhabitants went on to Washington, and were permitted to convey them to North Bend, where, on the mound under which they are deposited, a modest tomb denotes to the eye of the traveler sailing upon the Ohio, the spot where rests the patriot, hero, and Christian.

In person General Harrison was tall and slender. Although his constitution was not the most robust, habitual activity and tem-

perance secured him a bodily vigor seldom surpassed. He was of generous disposition, and easy and unostentatious in manners. At the age of twenty-one, while stationed as a captain at Fort Washington (where the queenly city of Cincinnati now stands), he married Anna, the daughter of John Cleves Symmes, the founder of the Miami settlements. Four sons and a daughter died before him; Mrs. Harrison, a son, and three daughters survived.

HART, JOHN, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Hopewell, N. J., about 1715. He tilled the earth, and his mind was strong, though little cultivated by letters. He was a member of the congress of 1774, and soon after signing the Declaration of Independence retired from that body. When New Jersey became the theatre of war, he suffered much loss at the hands of the loyalists. He died in 1780, and was buried at Rahway, N. J.

HARTLEY, DAVID, an eminent English metaphysician, died in 1757, aged fifty-three.

HARVEY, WILLIAM, M. D., the discoverer of the circulation of the blood, born at Folkestone in 1578, died in London, June 3d, 1657.

HASTINGS, a borough, market town, and cinque-port in Sussex, memorable for the battle fought in its vicinity, Oct. 14th, 1066, which gave the English crown to William the Conqueror.

HASTINGS, WARREN, was born Dec. 6th, 1732, near Daylesford, in Worcestershire, and was sent to India, as a writer in the company's service, in 1750. He diligently applied himself to the duties of his station, and in his leisure studied the oriental languages. After fourteen years' residence in Bengal he returned to England; but in 1769 he went out again, as second in council at Madras, where he remained about two years, and then removed to the presidency at Calcutta. He held the post of governor-general till 1785. For his bold and unscrupulous measures against Hyder Ali, and in the various dangerous exigencies of his administration, grave charges of injustice, cruelty, and oppression were brought against him in parliament, supported by such men as Fox, Burke, and Sheridan. He returned to England in 1786, and an impeachment followed.

The trial began on the 13th of February,

1788; in the words of Macaulay, the high court of parliament was to sit according to forms handed down from the days of the Plantagenets, on an Englishman accused of exercising tyranny over the lord of the holy city of Benares, and the ladies of the princely house of Oude. The place was worthy of such a trial. It was the great hall of William Rufus; the hall which had resounded with acclamations at the inauguration of thirty kings; the hall which had witnessed the just sentence of Bacon, and the just absolution of Somers; the hall where the eloquence of Strafford had for a moment awed and melted a victorious party, inflamed with just resentment; the hall where Charles had confronted the high court of justice, with the placid courage that has half redeemed his fame. Neither military nor civil pomp was wanting. The avenues were lined with grenadiers. The streets were kept clear by cavalry. The peers, robed in gold and ermine, were marshaled by garter king-at-arms. The judges, in their vestments of state, attended to give advice on points of law. Near a hundred and seventy lords, three-fourths of the upper house, walked in solemn order from their usual place of assembling to the tribunal. The junior baron present led the way, George Eliot, Lord Heathfield, recently ennobled for his memorable defense of Gibraltar against the fleets and armies of France and Spain. The long procession was closed by the Duke of Norfolk, earl marshal of the realm, by the great dignitaries, and by the brothers and sons of the king.

The gray old walls were hung with scarlet. The long galleries were crowded by an audience such as has rarely excited the fears or the emulation of an orator. There were gathered together from all parts of a great, free, enlightened, and prosperous empire, grace and female loveliness, wit and learning, the representatives of every science and of every art. There were seated round the queen the fair-haired young daughters of the house of Brunswick. There the ambassadors of great kings and commonwealths gazed with admiration on a spectacle which no other country in the world could present. There Siddons, in the prime of her majestic beauty, looked with emotion on a scene surpassing all the imitations of the stage. There Gib-

bon, the historian of the Roman empire, thought of the days when Cicero pleaded the cause of Sicily against Verres, and when, before a senate that still retained some show of freedom, Tacitus thundered against the oppressor of Africa. The spectacle had allured Reynolds from that easel which has preserved the thoughtful foreheads of so many writers and statesmen, and the sweet smiles of so many noble matrons. There appeared the voluptuous charms of Mrs. Fitzherbert, to whom the heir of the throne had in secret plighted his faith. There were the members of that brilliant society which quoted, criticised, and exchanged repartees, under the rich peacock hangings of Mrs. Montague. And there the ladies, whose lips, more persuasive than those of Fox himself, had carried the Westminster election against palace and treasury, shone round Georgiana, Duchess of Devonshire.

The serjeants made proclamation. Hastings advanced to the bar, and bent his knee. The culprit was indeed not unworthy of that great presence. He had ruled an extensive and populous country, had made laws and treaties, had sent forth armies, had set up and pulled down princes. And in his high place he had so borne himself, that all had feared him, that most had loved him, and that hatred itself could deny him no title to glory, except virtue. He looked like a great man, and not like a bad man. A person small and emaciated; yet deriving dignity from a carriage which, while it indicated deference to the court, indicated also habitual self-possession and self-respect; a high and intellectual forehead; a brow pensive, but not gloomy; a mouth of inflexible decision; a face pale and worn, but serene,—such was the aspect with which the great proconsul presented himself to his judges. His counsel accompanied him; men all of whom were afterward raised by their talents and learning to the highest posts in their profession—the bold and strong-minded Law, afterward chief-justice of the king's bench; the more humane and eloquent Dallas, afterward chief-justice of the common pleas; and Plomer, who, nearly twenty years later, successfully conducted in the same high court the defense of Lord Melville, and subsequently became vice-chancellor and master of the rolls.

But neither the culprit nor his advocates attracted so much notice as his accusers. In the midst of the blaze of red drapery, a space had been fitted up with green benches and tables for the Commons. The managers, with Burke at their head, appeared in full dress. The collectors of gossip did not fail to remark that even Fox, generally so regardless of his appearance, had paid to the illustrious tribunal the compliment of wearing a bag and sword. Pitt had refused to be one of the conductors of the impeachment; and his commanding, copious, and sonorous eloquence was wanting to that great muster of various talents. Age and blindness had unfitted Lord North for the duties of a public prosecutor; and his friends were left without his excellent sense, his tact, and his urbanity. But in spite of the absence of these two distinguished members of the lower house, the box in which the managers stood contained an array of speakers such as perhaps had not appeared together since the great age of Athenian eloquence. There were Fox and Sheridan, the English Demosthenes and the English Hyperides. There was Burke, ignorant, indeed, or negligent, of the art of adapting his reasonings and his style to the capacity and taste of his hearers, but in amplitude of comprehension and richness of imagination superior to every other orator, ancient or modern. There, with eyes reverently fixed on Burke, appeared the finest gentleman of the age, his form developed by every manly exercise, his face beaming with intelligence and spirit—the ingenious, the chivalrous, the high-souled Windham.

The charges and the answers of Hastings were first read. The ceremony occupied two whole days, and was rendered less tedious than it would otherwise have been, by the silver voice and just emphasis of Cowper, the clerk of the court, a near relation to the amiable poet. On the third day, Burke rose. Four sittings were occupied by his opening speech, which was intended to be a general introduction to all the charges. With an exuberance of thought and a splendor of diction which more than satisfied the highly raised expectation of the audience, he described the character and institutions of the natives of India, recounted the circumstances in which the Asiatic empire of Britain had

originated, and set forth the constitution of the company and of the English presidencies. Having thus attempted to communicate to his hearers an idea of eastern society as vivid as that which existed in his own mind, he proceeded to arraign the administration of Hastings, as systematically conducted in defiance of morality and public law. The energy and pathos of the great orator extorted expressions of unwonted admiration from the stern and hostile chancellor [Lord Thurlow], and, for a moment, seemed to pierce the resolute heart of the defendant. The ladies in the galleries, unaccustomed to such displays of eloquence, excited by the solemnity of the occasion, and perhaps not unwilling to display their taste and sensibility, were in a state of uncontrollable emotion. Handkerchiefs were pulled out; smelling-bottles were handed round; hysterical cries and sobs were heard; and Mrs. Sheridan was carried out in a fit. At length the orator concluded. Raising his voice, till the old arches of Irish oak resounded, "Therefore," said he, "hath it with all confidence been ordered by the Commons of Great Britain, that I impeach Warren Hastings of high crimes and misdemeanors. I impeach him in the name of the Commons' house of parliament, whose trust he has betrayed. I impeach him in the name of the English nation, whose ancient honors he has sullied. I impeach him in the name of the people of India, whose rights he has trodden under foot, and whose country he has turned into a desert. Lastly, in the name of human nature itself, in the name of both sexes, in the name of every age, in the name of every rank, I impeach the common oppressor of all."

The trial thus strikingly commenced was for a time the great event of interest for the English public. With the brilliant speech of Sheridan in June, the excitement culminated; he occupied two whole days, and the hall was crowded to suffocation, some paying even fifty guineas for a place to hear him. The spectacle had now lost the charm of novelty; the great displays of rhetoric were over; there remained only dry details of evidence, and bickerings between the managers of the impeachment and the counsel for the defense. More stirring occurrences diverted attention from Indian affairs, and at times

the impeachment was almost forgotten. A well constituted tribunal, sitting regularly six days in the week, would have finished the trial in less than three months. But it was impracticable for the house of lords to give more than a few days to the impeachment, during each session of parliament; the trial was not terminated till the spring of 1795. Hastings was then acquitted. But he was a ruined man; the legal expenses of his defense had been enormous, the other outlays perhaps still larger. He was partially reimbursed by an annuity which his friends in the East India Company settled upon him, and by other reward that they bestowed upon him. The last twenty-four years of his life were chiefly spent in retirement at Daylesford, the manor of his ancestors, which, from boyhood, it had been his desire to recover. He died Aug. 22d, 1818.

HAUSER, CASPAR, a personage whose history is enveloped in mystery, died at Anspach, Bavaria, of wounds inflicted by an unknown assassin, Dec. 17th, 1833. On the 26th of May, 1828, a youth, apparently about sixteen or seventeen years of age, was found at one of the gates of Nuremberg; he was unable to give any account of himself, nor could it be discovered who brought him there, whence he came, or who he was. He was four feet and nine inches in height; was very pale; had a short delicate beard on his chin and upper lip; his limbs were slender; his feet bore no marks of having been confined in shoes; he scarcely knew how to use his fingers or hands; and his attempts to walk resembled the first efforts of a child. He understood nothing that was said to him, and only replied in a few words of unintelligible gibberish; his countenance was expressive of gross stupidity. He held in his hand a letter addressed to the captain of one of the cavalry companies of Nuremberg, dated "Bavarian frontiers; place nameless." Its purport was that the bearer had been left with the writer, who was a poor laborer, in October, 1812, and who, not knowing his parents, had brought him up in his house, without allowing him to stir out of it. A note accompanying the letter contained these words: "His father was one of the light cavalry; send him, when he is seventeen years old, to Nuremberg, for his father was stationed there. He was born

April 30th, 1812. I am a poor girl, and can not support him; his father is dead." A pen being put into his hands, he wrote in plain letters *Caspar Hauser*. He appeared to be hungry and thirsty, but manifested great aversion to eating or drinking anything that was offered to him except bread and water. He fell into the hands of persons who treated him kindly, and taught him the use of language; and he manifested the most amiable and grateful disposition. But he could give no account of himself, except that, as far back as he could remember, he had always inhabited a small cell, continually seated on the ground, with his feet naked, and having no covering except a shirt and trousers, and he had never seen the sky. When he awoke from sleep he was accustomed to find near him some bread and a pitcher of water; but he never saw the face of the person who brought them; and it was at Nuremberg that he first learnt there were other living creatures besides himself and the man with whom he had always been. Previous to his death Hauser resided at Anspach, where he had a little employment in the registrar-office, and Lord Stanhope had also provided for his support. Some time before his assassination, an ineffectual attempt had been made upon his life, by the same assassin, it is supposed, that finally inflicted the fatal blow with a dagger.

HAVELOCK, Sir HENRY, was born at Bishopwearmouth in 1795, and educated at the Charter House. About 1813, in consequence of adverse fortune, Ingress Park, his father's property in Kent, was sold to government; Havelock was entered at the Middle Temple, and attended the lectures of Chitty, the eminent special pleader, where his most intimate associate was Sir Thomas Talfourd, the author of "Ion." An elder brother had distinguished himself in the Peninsular war and at Waterloo, and Henry, yielding to the military propensities of his family, endeavored to obtain a commission. A month after Waterloo, he was appointed second lieutenant in the rifle brigade.

Havelock served for eight years in England, Scotland, and Ireland, and embarked for India in 1823. Next year the first Burmese war broke out; he was present at the actions of Napadce, Patanagoh, and Paglian. At the close of the war he was associated with Cap-

tain Lumsden and Dr. Knox on a mission to the court of Ava, and had an audience of the "Golden Foot," when the treaty of Yandaboo was signed. In 1827 he published the "History of the Ava Campaigns." In 1838 he was promoted to a captaincy, after having served twenty-three years as a subaltern. An army was now collected for the invasion of Afghanistan, and Havelock accompanied it on the staff of Sir Willoughby Cotton. He went through the first Afghan campaign, was present at the storming of Ghuznee and the occupation of Cabul, and then returned to India with Sir Willoughby Cotton. Having obtained leave to visit the presidency, he prepared a "Memoir of the Afghan Campaign," which was soon after printed in London. He returned to the Punjab in charge of a detachment, and was placed on the staff of Gen. Elphinstone, as Persian interpreter.

When the Eastern Ghilzies, having risen, blockaded Cabul, Havelock was sent to join Sir Robert Sale, then marching back to India, and was present at the forcing of the Khoord Cabul pass, at the action of Tezeen, and all the other engagements of that force till it reached Jellalabad. In the final attack on Mahomed Akbar, in April, 1842, which obliged that chief to raise the siege, Havelock commanded the right column, and defeated him before the other columns could come up. For this he was promoted to a brevet majority, and was made companion of the bath. He was then nominated Persian interpreter to General Pollock, and was present at the action of Mamoo Keil, and the second engagement at Tezeen. He proceeded with Sir John McCaskill's force into the Kohistan, and had an important share in the brilliant affair at Istaliff. Next year he was promoted to a regimental majority, and nominated Persian interpreter to the commander-in-chief, Sir Hugh Gough. At the close of 1843 he accompanied the army to Gwalior, and was engaged in the battle of Maharajore. In 1844 he was promoted to the rank of lieutenant-colonel by brevet. In 1845 he proceeded with the army to meet the invasion of the Sikhs, and was actively engaged in the battles of Moodkee, Ferozeshah, and Soobraon. On the conclusion of the Sutlej campaign he was appointed deputy adjutant-general of the queen's troops at Bombay. The second Sikh war now broke out, and his elder

brother, Col. William Havelock, was killed at Kaninuggur. His own regiment having been ordered into the field, he quitted his staff employment at Bombay, in order to join it, and had proceeded as far as Indore when his further progress was countermanded, and he returned to his post.

Twenty-five years of incessant and laborious service now began to tell on his constitution, and his medical adviser in 1849 sent him to Europe for two years, for the restoration of his health. He returned to Bombay in 1851, and was soon after made brevet-colonel, and appointed, through the kindness of Lord Hardinge, by whose side he had fought in the three battles of the Sutlej, quartermaster-general, and then adjutant-general, of the queen's troops in India. On the dispatch of the expedition to Persia, he was appointed to the second division, and commanded the troops at Mohammerah, the glory of which action was, however, reserved for the naval force. On the conclusion of peace he returned to Bombay, and embarked in the *Erin* for Calcutta, in which vessel he was wrecked, in 1857, off the coast of Ceylon. Five days after, he obtained a passage in the *Fire Queen*, and on reaching Calcutta, was immediately sent up to Allahabad as brigadier-general, to command the movable column, to act against the insurgent sepoys.

He first attacked the mutineers at Futty-pore, on the 12th of July; on the 15th, at Asung, and at Pandoo Nuddee; on the 16th at Cawnpore, he had a horse shot under him, and the enemy lost twenty-three guns. Advancing from Cawnpore on the 29th, he captured Oonao, Busserut Gunge, and nineteen guns. This position he was obliged to give up, but he retook it on the 5th of August, inflicting great slaughter. On the 12th of August he again defeated the mutineers, and on the 16th attacked them at Bithoor. Eventually receiving reinforcements under Sir James Outram, he entered Lucknow on the 25th of September, and held his ground there until the garrison was finally relieved by Sir Colin Campbell on the 17th of November. The severe toils of the campaign had told upon the gallant general's health; he died on the 24th of November, 1857. Havelock was as conspicuous for his piety as for his bravery.

HAWKE, Lord EDWARD, a gallant English

admiral, the son of a barrister, was born in 1713, and entered the naval service as a midshipman at the age of twelve. In 1744 he distinguished himself in the action of Toulon. November 20th, 1759, he gained a great victory over the French fleet commanded by Conflans in Quiberon Bay, though it was a lee shore, and the sea ran high in the midst of a storm. The projected invasion of England was thus defeated. He was raised to the peerage in 1776, a few years after he had been appointed first lord of the admiralty. He died Oct. 14th, 1781.

HAYDN, FRANCIS JOSEPH, an eminent composer, the author of the great oratorio of the "Creation," was born near Vienna, in March, 1732. He visited England, but spent most of his life at Vienna, near which place he died, May 31st, 1809.

HAYNE, ISAAC, a native of South Carolina, distinguished himself by his services during the Revolution. After the capture of Charleston, he took an oath of allegiance to Great Britain, with the express stipulation that he should not bear arms against his country. When, in violation of British promises, he was summoned to join the British standard, he refused, and was in consequence condemned by a court of inquiry, and hanged, on the 4th of August, 1781.

HAYTI is one of the largest of the West Indian islands, lying between Jamaica and Porto Rico, having an area of 29,000 square miles. It is sometimes called St. Domingo and sometimes Hispaniola. In the centre rises a lofty mountain range, its sides covered with vegetation, and noble woods, and leaping streams that fertilize the plains below. The principal productions of the island are coffee, the sugar-cane (for making rum), cotton, cattle, and some tobacco. Here Columbus founded his first colony, under the name of Hispaniola. After the rapacity of the Spaniards had drained the gold-mines, and their cruelty had extirpated the natives, St. Domingo was neglected for the richer lands of Peru and Mexico. In the time of Louis XIV. the French gained the western third of the island, which in their hands attained a prosperity and opulence surpassing not only the Spanish part, but the whole Spanish West Indies.

When in 1791 the French revolution declared all men free and equal, the slaves of St.

Domingo carried the doctrine out for themselves: they drove out their former taskmasters with dreadful slaughter. Toussaint l'Ouverture established a republic in 1801. After he had been treacherously borne off to France, the negroes rallied under Dessalines, who set up a military despotism and called himself James I. Dessalines restored the name of Hayti, by which the natives called the island when Columbus discovered it. After his murder in 1806, French Hispaniola was divided into two states: the northern coast was formed into a negro republic under Christophe, who in 1811 took the title of Emperor Henry I.; the plains about Port au Prince became a mulatto republic under Petion. Continual war subsisted between these two states. Boyer in 1813 succeeded Petion as president: Christophe committed suicide in 1820, and Boyer subjected not only his empire, but Spanish Hispaniola also. Boyer was deposed in 1844, and a struggle for power ensued, which terminated in March, 1847, by the election of Gen. Faustin Soulouque as president. He declared himself, in Aug. 1849, emperor. Gen. Fabre Geffrard proclaimed a republic at Gonaives, Dec. 22, 1808, and Faustin was forced to abdicate. Geffrard has since been president. The capital is Port-au-Prince. The eastern part of the island made itself an independent republic (of San Domingo) under Gen. Santana, Feb. 27, 1844, who, however, being gained over by Spain, proclaimed, March 16, 1861, that San Domingo was re-united to Spain. Hostilities followed, but in 1865, the Spanish forces were obliged to evacuate the island and it was left still free.

HAZLITT, WILLIAM, an able critic on poetry, the drama, and the fine arts, was the son of a Unitarian minister in Shropshire. He died in London, Sept. 18th, 1830, at the age of fifty-two.

HEATH, WILLIAM, born at Roxbury, Massachusetts, in 1737, and died in his native place, Jan. 24th, 1814, aged seventy-seven. Amongst the first to take up arms in favor of his insulted country, he was appointed by the provincial congress of Massachusetts, in 1775, a brigadier-general, and was by the continental congress, in 1776, raised to the rank of major-general. He commanded on the Hudson in 1779. He was the last sur-

vivor of the major-generals of the Revolution.

HEBER, REGINALD, was the son of a clergyman in Cheshire. At Brazenose, Oxford, he ranked high for his scholastic attainments and poetical abilities. He relinquished tempting prospects at home to accept the arduous bishopric of Calcutta, in 1823. His earnest labors were cut short by an apoplectic stroke, April 1st, 1826, in the forty-third year of his age.

HECTOR, the brave son of Priam, King of Troy, killed by Achilles.

HECUBA, daughter of Dymas, King of Thrace, and second wife of Priam. She survived the fall of Troy but a short time, and was stoned to death by the Greeks, who were exasperated at her bitter reproaches.

HEGEL, GEORGE WILLIAM FREDERICK, an eminent German metaphysician, born at Stuttgart 1770, died at Berlin, Nov. 14th, 1831.

HEGIRA, the flight of Mohammed from Mecca to Medina, from which era the Mohammedans begin their computation of time. They fix it on the 16th of July, A.D. 622.

HELEN, the beautiful daughter of Leda, wife of Tyndarus, as it is fabled, by Jupiter, who introduced himself to her notice in the form of a swan. She married Menelaus, whom she forsook for Paris, son of Priam, who bore her to Troy, and thus kindled the flame of war between the Greeks and Trojans. She was received by Menelaus after the fall of Troy, but on his death was murdered by Polyxo of Argos, the widow of one of the warriors killed before Troy.

HELOGABALUS. MARCUS AURELIUS ANTONINUS, a Roman emperor, son of Varius Marcellus, was called Heliogabalus, from having been a priest of the sun in Phoenicia. At the age of fourteen he was invested with the purple on the death of Macrinus, but his cruelty and licentiousness were such that his subjects rose against him, and his head was severed from his body, March 10th, A.D. 222, in the eighteenth year of his age. He burdened his subjects with the most oppressive taxes; his halls were covered with carpets of gold and silver tissue; his mats were made with the down of hares and the soft feathers found under the wings of partridges. He often invited the lowest of the people to share

his banquets, and made them sit down on large bellows full of wind, which, by suddenly emptying themselves, threw the guests on the ground, and left them a prey to wild beasts. He tied some of his favorites to a large wheel, and was particularly delighted to see them whirled round like Ixion, alternately suspended in the air and plunged beneath the water.

HELLE, in fable, a daughter of Athamas and Nephece, who, to escape from the persecution of her step-mother Ino, trusted herself to the back of a golden ram, from which she fell and was drowned in that part of the sea called the Hellespont, now the Dardanelles.

HEMANS. FELICIA DOROTHEA BROWNE was born at Liverpool, September 25th, 1793. Her union with Capt. Hemans in 1812 proved an unhappy one, and they separated in 1818. Her poems are marked by beautiful purity of sentiment and gentle pathos. The graceful poetess died at Dublin, May 16th, 1835.

HENGIST, the first Saxon king of Kent, about the end of the fifth century. He was invited to the aid of the Britons against the Scots and Picts, and received from the hands of Vortigern the whole of Kent, for which he gave his daughter in marriage. However, he leagued with the enemies of Britain, and committed great ravages beyond the limits of his territory. He died in the year 488.

HENRY I. of France. Constance his mother endeavored to set his younger brother, Robert, upon the throne; but, with the assistance of Robert II., Duke of Normandy, Henry defeated the queen's army, and obliged his brother to content himself with the dukedom of Burgundy. In his time Pope Leo IX. held a council at Rheims in France, and the Normans headed by Robert Guiscard, took Naples and Sicily from the Saracens. He died Aug. 4th, 1060.

HENRY IV. of France, called the Great, born in 1553, was son of Anthony of Bourbon, Duke of Vendome, and Jeanne d'Albret, Queen of Navarre. After the massacre of St. Bartholomew, he signalized himself against the leaguers, and on the death of Henry III. succeeded to the throne, taking the title of King of France and Navarre. His enemies endeavored in vain to make the old Cardinal de Bourbon king under the title of Charles X. Henry was victorious at Arques, Ivry,

and elsewhere. Although, to make sure of his crown, he embraced Catholicism, he secured the Huguenots by the edict of Nantes. With the aid of his able minister, the Duke of Sully, he did much to raise the country from the plight into which misrule and contention had plunged it. The Duke de Biron's execution, in 1602, was the only example of severity in his reign; and France had enjoyed peace for sixteen years, when the fanatic Ravaillac, with a knife, stabbed the king in his coach at Paris, May 14th, 1610, when on the eve of marching to fight on the side of the Protestant princes of Germany. Henry was an able and popular prince. Amours were the great blemishes upon his character, and he set a pernicious example that his subjects were but too ready to follow. His first wife was Margaret de Valois, sister of Charles IX.; after her divorce he wedded Marie de Medicis, who was regent after his death.

HENRY I., Emperor of Germany, son of Otho, Duke of Saxony, succeeded Conrad, his brother-in-law, in 919. He reduced Arnold, Duke of Bavaria, and vanquished the Hungarians, Bohemians, Slavonians, and Danes. He took the kingdom of Lorraine from Charles the Simple, defeated the Hungarians a second time, and killed 8,000 of their number. He died of an apoplexy in 936.

HENRY III. of Franconia, surnamed the Black, succeeded Conrad II. in 1039. He defeated the Bohemians (that denied him tribute) in his second campaign, and restored Peter to the throne of Hungary, whence his subjects had driven him in 1043; reduced the petty princes of Italy, and made war on the Hungarians. He died at Bothfeld in Saxony, in 1056.

HENRY I. of England, the youngest son of William the Conqueror, was born in 1068. Upon the death of his brother William Rufus in 1100, he hastened to Winchester, secured the royal treasure, and usurped the crown. He removed the odious restrictions of the curfew; his marriage with Matilda, daughter of Malcolm, King of Scotland, and also a descendant of the ancient Saxon line, still further ingratiated him with the common people. Robert, the eldest son of the Conqueror, having returned from Palestine to his duchy of Normandy, difficulties arose between the brothers; Henry invaded Robert's domain, and in the battle of Tinchebray (1106) the

latter was defeated and captured. Henry reigned over Normandy, and Robert, for the remaining eight and twenty years of his life, lay imprisoned in Cardiff Castle. Queen Matilda died May 1st, 1119; she had borne the king one daughter, Maud, or Matilda, who had wedded Henry V. of Germany, and one son, Prince William. In 1120 Henry passed over to Normandy with his son, that the barons of the duchy might pay their homage to the young prince. On the voyage home, the crew of Prince William's vessel were in liquor; she struck upon the rocks near Barfleur; only one of the many lives on board was spared, that of a butcher of Rouen. Prince William, his newly married bride, his bastard brother Richard, his fair cousin Lucia, and the throng of gay nobles composing his retinue,—all were drowned. King Henry, some say, never smiled again. In 1129 he married Adelais, daughter of Godfrey, Earl of Louvaine; she survived him. Henry died Dec. 1st, 1135, of a surfeit of lampreys, a fish of which he was inordinately fond. This king's scholarship so far surpassed the ordinary attainments of his time that he was surnamed Beauclore.

HENRY II., III., IV., V., VI., Kings of England. [See PLANTAGENET.]

HENRY VII., VIII., Kings of England. [See TUDOR.]

HENRY, MATTHEW, the celebrated commentator on the Scriptures, was born in 1662 in Flintshire, whither his parents had retired after his father, Rev. Philip Henry, was ejected from his parish for nonconforming. Matthew became a dissenting minister at Chester, where he continued with great usefulness for twenty-five years. In 1712 he removed to Hackney, near London. Of several theological works put forth by this excellent divine, the largest and best known is his Commentary on the Bible, which he did not live to complete. He died of apoplexy in June, 1714.

HENRY, PATRICK, son of John Henry, was born in the colony of Virginia, May 29th, 1736. Passionately addicted to field sports, and averse to toil of any kind, even the elements of education were mastered by him with distaste, although he had a strong mind and a retentive memory. At the age of eighteen he married Miss Skelton, and settled on

a farm; but agricultural as well as mercantile pursuits, in which he had previously embarked, possessed no charm for him, and he was unsuccessful. As a final effort, he resolved to attempt the law, and was licensed to practice after *six weeks'* preparatory study. For several years his practice was limited and the wants of his family extreme. The first argument that he made was in 1763, in opposition to the clergy's tobacco stipend. His eloquence electrified his hearers, gained his cause, and put him at once in the front rank of his profession. In 1765 he was elected member of the house of burgesses, and introduced his celebrated resolutions on the stamp act. In the midst of the debate on this occasion, he exclaimed, "Cæsar had his Brutus, Charles the First his Cromwell, and George the Third"—"Treason!" cried the speaker—"Treason, treason!" echoed from every part of the house. Henry faltered not for an instant, but, taking a loftier attitude, and fixing on the speaker an eye of fire, he added—"may profit by their example. If this be treason, make the most of it." Henry served his country in various posts, was sent to the congress at Philadelphia in 1774, took the field, and was elected governor of the commonwealth of Virginia. In 1791 he retired from public life, and died June 6th, 1799. His eloquence was manly and convincing, and his voice powerful and musical.

The following was his language in 1775:

"It is vain, sir, to extenuate the matter. Gentlemen may cry, *peace, peace*—but there is *no* peace. The war is actually begun.

"The next gale that sweeps from the north will bring to our ears the clash of resounding arms! Our brethren are already in the field! Why stand we here idle? What is it that gentlemen wish? What would they have? Is life so dear, or peace so sweet, as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? Forbid it, Almighty God!—I know not what course others may take, but as for me, give me *liberty* or give me *death*!"

He took his seat. No murmur of applause was heard. The effect was too deep. After the trance of a moment, several members started from their seats. The cry, "To arms," seemed to quiver on every lip, and gleam from every eye! Richard Henry Lee arose and supported Mr. Henry with his usual

spirit and elegance. But his melody was lost amidst the agitations of that ocean which the master spirit of the storm had lifted up on high. That supernatural voice still sounded in their ears and shivered along their arteries. They heard, in every pause, the cry of liberty or death. They became impatient of speech; their souls were on fire for action.

HERCULANEUM, an ancient city not far from Naples, which was buried by an eruption of Vesuvius, in the reign of Titus, Aug. 24th, A.D. 79. It has been excavated, and presents a most curious and interesting spectacle. The same eruption destroyed Pompeii.

HERCULES, a fabulous Grecian hero, the son of Jupiter and Alcmena, the wife of Amphitryon, king of Thebes. In vain did the jealous Juno send two serpents to kill the young hero in his cradle: he strangled them both, and thus displayed to all the divinity of his origin. He had to combat for a long time the enmity of Juno, who exacted of him twelve labors, independently of other signal actions which he performed. 1. He killed the Nemean lion, to deliver the kingdom of Mycene, and wore his skin in the remainder of his exploits. 2. He slew the Lernean hydra, whose heads multiplied sevenfold on being severed. 3. He brought to Eurystheus upon his shoulders, the Erymanthean boar, an animal of a prodigious size. 4. He subdued the golden-horned and brazen-hoofed stag of Diana. 5. He destroyed with his arrows the foul Stymphalian birds of extraordinary size and voracity. 6. He cleansed the Augæan stables. 7. He tamed the furious bull of Crete. 8. He gave Diomedes to be devoured by his own horses, which had been fed on human flesh. 9. He vanquished the Amazons, whose queen, Hippolyta, he gave in marriage to his friend Theseus. 10. He brought the oxen of Geryon, king of Spain, to Greece. This was only effected by killing this monarch, formidable for his triple head. 11. He obtained the golden apples of the garden of the Hesperides, by killing the dragon with a hundred heads that guarded them. 12. He dragged away Cerberus, the three-headed dog that watched the gate of hell, into which he descended twice, once with his friend Theseus, and afterward to seek the queen Alceste, who devoted herself to death for her husband Admetus.

The centaur Nessus having insulted Dejanira, the wife of Hercules, the hero killed him with an arrow, the barb of which was poisoned with the blood of the Lernean hydra. The dying centaur persuaded Dejanira to give a tunic dipped in his blood to her husband, in token of reconciliation. Hercules had no sooner clothed himself in this garment than he perceived that he was poisoned by it. He accordingly, with the help of Philoctetes, built a funeral pile on Mount Œta, and expired in the flames. But Jupiter received him in the ranks of the gods, and gave him in marriage Hebe, the beautiful goddess of youth. Hercules is generally represented as a robust man, leaning on his club. On his shoulders he wears the skin of the Nemean lion, and in his hands he holds the Hesperian fruit.

Abyla, a mountain of Africa, and Calpe (now Gibraltar) directly opposite, were formerly called the Pillars of Hercules, from a tradition that this Samson of the Greeks forced them asunder to form a junction between the waters of the Atlantic and Mediterranean. In this tale we perceive the reminiscence of a great convulsion of nature that separated Europe and Africa.

HERO AND LEANDER. Their amour is famous. Their fidelity was so great, and their love so ardent, that Leander frequently, in the night, eluded the vigilance of his family, and swam the Hellespont from Abydos to Sestos, while Hero, a beautiful priestess of Venus, held a burning torch as a beacon to guide his course. After many stolen trysts, thus obtained, Leander was drowned one stormy night; and Hero, in despair, threw herself from her tower, and perished in the sea, 627 B.C. The Hellespont is now called the strait of the Dardanelles. [See *ABYDOS*.]

HERMANN, the deliverer of Germany from the Roman yoke, was born 18 B.C. He was educated at Rome, and honored by Augustus with the knighthood, and the rights of citizenship. But from attachment to the land of his birth, he instigated the Germans to revolt. After various fortunes he was assassinated in the thirty-seventh year of his age.

HEROD, surnamed the Great, was born at Ascalon, Judea, B.C. 71. He reigned in Judea as a vassal of the Romans, and ren-

dered himself odious by his tyranny. As he knew that the day of his death would become a day of mirth and festivity, he ordered the most illustrious of his subjects to be confined and murdered the very instant he expired, that every eye in the kingdom might seem to shed tears at the death of Herod. This order was never executed. He died a dreadful death in the seventieth year of his age, after a reign of forty years, which was rendered memorable by the birth of Christ.

HERODOTUS, 'the Father of History,' born at Halicarnassus in Caria, B.C. 484, flourished B.C. 440; time of his death unknown. His history includes a period of 234 years, from B.C. 713 to 479.

HERRINGS, BATTLE OF THE. This battle was fought in 1429, when the English were besieging Orleans. The Duc de Bourbon, trying to cut off a convoy from the English camp, was severely beaten. The convoy being laden with herrings, the battle thence had its ludicrous name.

HERSCHEL, Sir **WILLIAM**, born in Hanover, November 15th, 1738, came to England in 1757, and was at first a humble musician. Love of science led him to the study of mathematics and astronomy. Too poor to purchase a telescope, he constructed one with his own hands, grinding and polishing the specula himself. He completed in 1774 a five feet Newtonian reflector with which he could see the satellites of Jupiter and the belt of Saturn. He discovered the planet Uranus in 1781. He died August 25th, 1822.

HESSE-CASSEL, an electorate, and a member of the Germanic confederacy, containing 736,392 inhabitants in 1855. The sovereigns of Hesse-Cassel formerly filled their coffers by hiring out their subjects as mercenaries in foreign wars. Several thousand Hessians were employed by the British in the American Revolution. The grand duchy of **HESSE DARMSTADT** has 854,314 inhabitants, and the little landgraviate of **HESSE HOEBURG**, 25,000.

HEWES, JOSEPH, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Kingston, N. J., in 1730. He was educated at Princeton, became a merchant, and at the age of thirty settled in North Carolina. After sitting several years in the colonial assembly, he was

elected to Congress in 1774. He was compelled by sickness to leave his seat in 1779, and died Nov. 10th of that year.

HEYWARD, THOMAS, JR., a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was a native of St. Luke's, S. C., born in 1746. Having studied law at the Temple in London, he practiced his profession in his native state, and soon entered upon political life. He was elected to Congress in 1775, and left that body in 1778 to fill a judicial station at home. He commanded a battalion of militia during the siege of Charleston, was made prisoner upon the surrender, and sent with others to St. Augustine. He retired from public life in 1778, and died in March, 1809.

HIERO I., a king of Syracuse after his brother Gelon, rendered himself odious by his tyranny in the beginning of his reign. He made war against Theron, the tyrant of Agrigentum, and took Himera. He obtained three different crowns at the Olympic games, two in horse-races, and one in a chariot-race. The first Olympic ode of Pindar is inscribed to him, and mention is made of his horse Phrenicus, by which he was the winner of the Olympic crown. The ancient races were somewhat different from the modern; at the former, honor alone was the reward of the winner, and no one lost either his character or his money. In the latter part of his reign, the conversation of Simonides, Epicharmus, Pindar, &c., softened the roughness of Hiero's manners and the severity of his government, and tended to render him the patron of learning, genius, and merit. He died after a reign of eighteen years, B.C. 467, leaving the crown to his brother Thrasylbus, who disgraced it by his tyranny.

HIERO II., a descendant of Gelon, reigned about two hundred years after the preceding. He was appointed to carry on the war against the Carthaginians. He joined his enemies in besieging Messina, which had surrendered to the Romans; but he was beaten by Appius Claudius, the Roman consul, and obliged to retire to Syracuse, where he was soon blocked up. Seeing all hopes of victory lost, he made peace with the Romans and proved so faithful to his engagements, during the fifty-nine years of his reign, that the Romans never had a more firm or attached ally. He died in the ninety-fourth year of his age, about 225



HIEROGLYPHICS.

B.C. He was universally regretted, and all the Sicilians showed by their lamentations that they had lost a common father and a friend. He liberally patronized the learned, and employed the talents of Archimedes for the good of his country.

HIEROGLYPHICS, or 'sacred engraving,' was the name given first to the sculptures and inscriptions on the monuments of Egypt; it is now often used to denote simply picture writing, which is seen in its rudest state upon the buffalo skins of our North American Indians, &c. A new charm was given to similar sculptures, and indeed to the study of antiquity in general, by Champollion's discovery of the key to these so long inexplicable mysteries. This indefatigable scholar, after many years of toil, at last succeeded in deciphering every inscription presented to

him! He discovered that these hieroglyphics were usually employed as mere alphabetic letters; that when thus read, they yield regular compositions in the Coptic or old Egyptian language.

The hieroglyphic writing is eminently monumental. It is, from the nature of the signs which it employs, a species of painting, and it presents a various and picturesque aspect which distinguishes it essentially from every other method of writing. The hieroglyphic characters do in fact exhibit images of almost every material object in creation: celestial bodies, human figures in various positions, human limbs taken separately, wild and domestic quadrupeds, limbs of animals, birds, fishes, reptiles, insects, vegetables, plants, flowers, and fruits, buildings, furniture, coverings for feet and legs, head-

dressess, weapons, ornaments and sceptres, tools and instruments of various sorts, vases, cups, and the like, geometrical figures, and fantastic forms. The figures are arranged in columns, vertical or horizontal, and grouped together, as circumstances required, so as to leave no spaces unnecessarily vacant. We can not go into a detailed account of the various methods of Egyptian writing, but give a familiar specimen of the phonetic and alphabetic, an illustration of which is presented on the preceding page. To write the word 'Boston' (see cut, A), for 'b' the Egyptians would look for some familiar object, the name of which began with 'b,' say a censer, which is called in Egyptian *berbe*, and the engraving would be the more appropriate to use, from the church-going character of the inhabitants of Boston; in looking round for an object whose name begins with 'o,' the literary character of the city would suggest the reed, an instrument of writing anciently, and now so used in the East; this, in Egyptian, is *oke*; for 's' take a star, *sion*; for 't' a hand, *tot*; for 'o,' again, to have a variety, instead of the Egyptian tufted reed, as above, they might take an abbreviation of it, the curled line; for 'n,' we have the vulture, *noure*, or, better, the sign for inundation, *neph*. Fig. B gives an Egyptian specimen of the symbolical style, in what is generally called an anaglyph. It is a female winged sphinx, founded on a block of black granite. The sphinx was an emblem of strength and wisdom, the body being that of a lion, and the head human. The name *Tmauhmot* (daughter of Horus, a king of the eighteenth dynasty of Egypt) is read in the oval. This, then, is a symbolical image of the queen herself; and the flowers of lotus, underneath, are evidently, though emblematically, taken for the Nile, and for the whole country of Egypt. The sphinx, instead of a paw, has a hand, raised in the attitude of protection. The whole, then, seems to be in praise of a monarch, and to signify "a monument raised to the memory of Queen Tmauhmot, styled the guardian and protectress of the land of Egypt, by her wisdom and strength."

HILDEBRAND succeeded Alexander II. as pope in the year 1073, taking the name of Gregory VII. Being advanced by the suf-

frages of the cardinals without the emperor's authority, the better to confirm himself in the pontificate he abolished the imperial power of conferring investiture upon bishops and clergymen, and became an inveterate enemy of the Emperor Henry IV. He prevailed upon Rodolph, Duke of Suabia, to assume the title of emperor and take up arms against Henry; but Rodolph being overthrown and slain, Henry marched directly into Italy, besieged Rome, took the city, and established Clement III. upon the papal throne. Gregory fled to Salerno, and there died, after having enjoyed the papal dignity twelve years. He was the first who bore the exclusive title of pope, which theretofore had been common to other bishops.

HILL, ROWLAND, son of Sir Rowland Hill, was born at Hawkestone, Shropshire, in 1745, and educated at Eton and Cambridge. He was a Calvinistic Methodist, and took Whitfield for his model. His discourses were singular, being sometimes crowded with puns and stories, while at others their solemnity was unbroken. Some of his straits are mentioned in his diary. "1767, Jan. 1st, preached at Chesterton; we had the honor of a mob; no other harm was done than the windows broke." "Thursday, in a barn, for the first time, with much comfort. God send, if I am to live, this may not be my last barn. Some gownsmen were there, but they were not permitted to do more than gnash their teeth." Mr. Hill used to be circum-spect in receiving recruits. To a person who had a great desire to preach, and talked about hiding his talents, he replied that "the closer he hid them the better." Robert Hall once replied to a shoemaker, who expressed a similar reluctance to hide his talents in a napkin, "The smallest pocket-handkerchief you have will do, sir." Mr. Hill, in his "field campaigns," used to go to large towns on market-days, and address the assemblage in the market-houses. When he heard of a fair or a revel, he preached there in spite of the violence with which he was assailed, and often with success. His favorite text was "Come ye out from among them." The freshness and originality of his addresses attracted crowds to hear him. He preached on Calton Hill in Edinburgh to an audience of ten thousand. Nor was he admired by a

vulgar and uneducated class only; Sheridan used to say, "I often go to hear Rowland Hill, because his ideas come red-hot from the heart." The eccentricities of manner, the quaintness of expression, the anecdotes and witticisms in the pulpit, were forgotten by his regular hearers, in the rich vein of sterling piety and spiritual instruction that marked the service. He died April 11th, 1833.

HILLHOUSE, JAMES, a man very highly respected for his private virtues, and his great and long continued public services, was born at Montville, Conn., Oct. 21st, 1754, and died at New Haven, Dec. 29th, 1832. He was a member of the senate from 1796 to 1810.

HIPPIAS AND HIPPARCHUS, two sons of Pisistratus, tyrant of Athens, whom they succeeded 527 B.C. Hipparchus was slain in a conspiracy, 512 B.C., by Harmodius and Aristogiton, who had devoted themselves to their country. Hippias alone now held the reins of government, but he became odious, and on the siege of Athens by the Lacedæmonians, he surrendered the city and retired to Ligeum, on the Hellespont, 509 B.C. Thus Athens once more recovered its liberty. An attempt was afterward made to restore Hippias to the government of Athens. By some authors he is said to have perished at the battle of Marathon; but others assert that he died at Lemnos in poverty and distress.

HIPPOCRATES, a celebrated Greek physician, born 460 B.C. He is called the Father of Medicine. The time of his death is unknown.

HOADLEY, BENJAMIN, an eminent English divine, Bishop of Bangor and of Winchester, died in 1761, aged eighty-five.

HOBBES, THOMAS, a celebrated English philosopher, died in 1769, aged ninety-one.

HOCHE, LAZARE, born in 1768, was a brave and skillful general in the French revolutionary army. He accomplished the pacification of La Vendee and Brittany; headed the expedition against Ireland in 1796, which was dispersed by storms; and in 1797 was put in command of the army of the Sambre and the Meuse. He died in this year, after a short illness.

HOCHKIRCHEN, BATTLE OF, between the

Prussians under Frederick the Great, and the Austrians under Count Daun, Oct. 14th, 1758. Frederick was taken unawares, and was defeated.

HOFER, ANDREW, the Tell of the Tyrol, a heroic Tyrolese who headed an insurrection of his countrymen on the 10th of April, 1809. His resistance to the French was chivalric, and successful on many occasions. After he found farther resistance useless, he concealed himself, but was betrayed by a priest, conveyed to Mantua, and shot, February 20th, 1810. He met his fate with firmness, rejoicing that he had done his duty.

HOGARTH, WILLIAM, was born in London, Dec. 10th, 1697. He was apprenticed at an early age to a silversmith, but at the expiration of his time, in 1718, he took to engraving in copper for the booksellers. In 1730 he married the only daughter of Sir James Thornhill, against the father's will, and set up as a portrait painter with considerable success. He now commenced his remarkable series of satirical paintings reflecting on the social abuses of the time; producing "The Harlot's Progress" in 1734, "The Rake's Progress" in 1735, and "Marriage à la Mode" in 1745. In 1753 he appeared as an author in his "Analysis of Beauty." In 1757 he was appointed serjeant painter to the king. He died in London, Oct. 26th, 1764, and was buried at Chiswick.

HOGG, JAMES (commonly called 'the Ettrick Shepherd'), was born Jan. 25th, 1772; he greatly prided himself that his birth-day was the anniversary of that of Burns. He was a native of Ettrick Vale, in picturesque Selkirkshire. A love of romance and poetry, he inherited from his mother, whose memory was thickly stored with the ancient legends and ballads of Scotland; and his solitary watches over his flocks on the hills and among the glens heightened his imagination. The "Queen's Wake" established his fame as an author; it consists of a collection of tales and ballads supposed to be sung to Mary Queen of Scots by the native bards of Scotland, assembled at a royal wake at Holyrood, in order that the fair monarch might prove the wondrous powers of Scottish song. The worldly schemes of the Shepherd were seldom successful; he

made two disastrous attempts at farming; and his sole support, for the latter years of his life, was the remuneration afforded by his literary labors. He lived in a cottage which he had built at Altrive, on a piece of moorland presented to him by the Duchess of Buccleuch. His love of angling and field sports amounted to a passion, and when he could no longer fish or hunt, he declared his belief that his death must be near. In the autumn of 1835 he was attacked with a dropsical complaint; and on the 21st of November of that year, after some days of insensibility, he breathed his last as calmly, and with as little pain, as he ever fell asleep in his gray plaid on the hillside. His death was deeply mourned in the vale of Ettrick, for all rejoiced in his fame, and, notwithstanding his personal foibles, the Shepherd was generous, kind-hearted, and charitable far beyond his means.

HOHENLINDEN, a village of Bavaria, eighteen miles east of Munich, remarkable for the great defeat which the Austrian army sustained here on the 3d of November, 1800, from the French under Moreau.

HOLBEIN, HANS, an eminent Swiss painter, died in London, 1554, aged fifty-six. He was the favorite artist of Henry VIII.

HOLLAND. [See NETHERLANDS.]

HOLSTEIN, a duchy in the north of Germany, belonging to Denmark. It contains 3,259 square miles, and 479,000 inhabitants, mostly Lutherans. Almost the whole of the country is fruitful. The King of Denmark is Duke of Holstein, by virtue of which he has a place in the German confederation. War subsisted between Denmark and the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein in 1849 and 1850. The matters of difference were patched up by the intervention of Austria and Prussia.

HOLT, Sir JOHN, an eminent English lawyer and judge, died in 1709, aged sixty-seven. He was a firm opponent of the oppressions of the crown.

HOLWELL, JOHN ZEPHANIAH, was one of the few survivors of the party of 146 English, who were confined by the Nabob of Bengal in 1756, in what was called the Black Hole at Calcutta. Mr. Holwell wrote an account of this dreadful affair, which he survived forty-two years, dying in 1798, aged eighty-nine. [See BLACK HOLE.]

HOLYOKE, EDWARD AUGUSTUS, M. D., son of the Rev. Edward Holyoke, president of Harvard College, was born Aug. 1st, 1728, in Essex county, Mass. He was graduated at Harvard in 1746, and commenced the practice of medicine at Salem in 1749. He was distinguished in his profession, and published several scientific disquisitions. He died the 31st of March, 1829, being then over one hundred years of age.

HOMER, the most celebrated poet of antiquity, was, according to common tradition, born on the river Meles, not far from Smyrna. His father's name was Mæon, and his mother's Critheis. Seven cities contended for the honor of being his birth-place: Smyrna, Colophon, Chios, Argos, Athens, Rhodes, and Salamis. It is doubtful whether he lived in the tenth, ninth, or eighth century before Christ. Little is known of Homer. He has



HOMER.

been represented as blind, but this must have been a misfortune occurring in his latter days, for his descriptions could only have been given by a man possessed of sight. He wandered about singing his poems, which were handed down from mouth to mouth, and from generation to generation, after his death, until they were finally transmitted to paper, and thus preserved from oblivion. The poems attributed to Homer are the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*: the subject of the *Iliad* is the revenge taken by Achilles on Agamemnon for depriving him of his mistress, Briseis, during the siege of Troy, and the evils which in consequence befell the Greeks: the *Odyssey* nar-

rates the adventures of Ulysses, returning from Troy to Ithaca, his native island.

HONORIUS, the first emperor of the Western empire of Rome, succeeded his father Theodosius the Great, with his brother Arcadius, A.D. 395. He was neither bold nor vicious, but he was of a modest and timid disposition, unfit for enterprise, and fearful of danger. He conquered his enemies by means of his generals, and suffered himself and his people to be governed by ministers who took advantage of their imperial master's indolence and inactivity. He died of the dropsy, in the thirty-ninth year of his age, Aug. 15th, A.D. 423.

HOOD, ROBIN, an outlaw in the time of Richard I., who dwelt chiefly in Sherwood Forest, Nottinghamshire, and was the most romantic and courteous of bandits, as well as the most powerful. He took from the rich, but he gave to the poor. It is said that he was bled to death by a nun, to whom he applied for phlebotomy, in the year 1247.

HOOD, SAMUEL, Viscount, was the eldest son of the Rev. Samuel Hood, vicar of Thorncombe, in Devonshire; at which place he was born in 1724. He went to sea at the age of sixteen, and, for his gallantry in taking a fifty-gun ship, was made a post-captain in 1759. In 1780, with the rank of admiral, he sailed to the West Indies, where he defeated the attempt made upon St. Christopher's by the Comte de Grasse. He also had an active part in the victory obtained over that commander on the 12th of April, 1782; for which he was created Baron Hood of Catherington, in the kingdom of Ireland. In 1784 he was elected into parliament for Westminster; he vacated his seat, on being named one of the lords of the admiralty, in 1787. In 1793 he was appointed to command in the Mediterranean, where he distinguished himself by taking possession of Toulon, and, when it was no longer tenable, destroying the arsenal, dock-yard, and shipping. After this he made himself master of Corsica, and then returned to England, where he was made a viscount, and governor of Greenwich Hospital. He died at Bath, January 27th, 1816.

HOOD, THOMAS, a poet and prose-writer of the utmost humor and pathos, died in 1845, aged forty-seven. His lot was lifelong toil, threatened by poverty, and embittered by ill health.

HOOKE, RICHARD, author of "Ecclesiastical Polity," died in 1600, aged forty-seven. This learned theologian having occasion to visit London, and arriving from Oxford wet and weary, received so much kindness and attention from his hostess that she completely won his confidence. The good man came to be persuaded by her that his constitution was tender; that it was best for him to have a wife, who might prove a nurse to him, such a one as might both prolong his life and make it comfortable; and such a one she could and would provide for him, if he thought fit to marry. The helpmate she provided was her own daughter, silly, clownish, and withal a perfect Xantippe. Hooker married her, however, according to his promise, and had an especial occasion to practice the spirit of resignation during his seventeen years of wedlock, the remnant of his life.

HOOPER, WILLIAM, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Boston, Mass., June 17th, 1742, the son of a Scotch clergyman, and was educated at Harvard. He studied law under James Otis, and commenced practice at Wilmington, N. C., in 1767. He was a member of the colonial legislature in 1773, and the next year was sent to the continental congress, where he served till 1777, when he resigned and returned home. In 1786 he was elected a judge, and in October, 1790, he departed from life. He advocated the cause of liberty both with pen and voice, and was its active champion. Among the documents from his pen was an address to the people of Jamaica in 1775.

HOPKINS, STEPHEN, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Scituate, R. I., March 7th, 1707. He was chosen speaker of the general assembly in 1741. In 1751 he was appointed chief-justice of the superior court of Rhode Island, and in 1774 a delegate to Congress. Previous to this, he had held for some years the office of governor of Rhode Island. In 1778 he was a fourth time chosen member of Congress. He died July 13th, 1785, at the age of seventy-eight. He was bred as a farmer, and afterward engaged in commerce at Providence. Although a self-taught man, he was an excellent mathematician, and well versed in political economy and science.

HOPKINSON, FRANCIS, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Philadelphia in 1737. After receiving a collegiate education and having studied law, he visited England for two years, and upon his return became distinguished in his profession. He resided at Bordentown, N. J., when the war of the Revolution broke out, and was chosen a delegate to Congress from that state in 1776. He strongly advocated independence, and was an active member. He was afterward judge of the district court for Pennsylvania. He was a wit and a poet, as well as a lawyer and judge. He died May 9th, 1790.

HORACE. QUINTUS HORATIUS FLACCUS, a celebrated Roman poet, was born at Venusium B.C. 65. He was well educated, and fought for liberty at Philippi, B.C. 42. He gained the favor of Mæcenas, but lived in retirement, and even refused the splendid offers of Augustus, preferring the peaceful solitude of his Sabine farm. He died suddenly, 9 B.C., in the fifty-seventh year of his age.

HORATII, three Roman brothers, who during the reign of Tullus, to prevent the effusion of blood in a general battle, engaged the Curiatii, three Alban brothers, to decide the contest. Two of the Horatii were slain, when the surviving brother, feigning flight, permitted the Curiatii, who were disabled by wounds, to approach him one by one, and then slew them singly, thus deciding the contest in favor of the Romans. The conqueror stained his triumph by murdering his sister, because, amidst her country's joy, she could shed tears at the death of her lover, one of the Curiatii.

HORATIUS, surnamed Cocles, 'the one-eyed,' alone sustained the attack of the Etrurian army, while his friends broke down the bridge over the Tiber that led to Rome, behind him. He then committed himself to the waves, armed as he was, and reached Rome in safety. This exploit was performed B.C. 507.

HOWARD, JOHN, the philanthropist, was born at Hackney, in 1726. He was bound apprentice to a grocer in London; but disliking the business, and inheriting an independent fortune, he purchased his indentures, and made the tour of France and Italy. On his return, he married a widow lady, much

older than himself, who died about three years afterward. In 1756 he undertook a voyage to Lisbon, to see the place after the earthquake; but on the voyage the ship was taken by a French privateer, and carried to France. On being released, Mr. Howard retired to a villa in the New Forest; and, in 1758, married a second time; but lost his lady in 1765. About this time he settled at Cardington, near Bedford, where his time was much occupied in benevolent objects, and in the education of his son, who afterward became hopelessly insane. In 1773 he received the office of high sheriff, which led him to make inquiries into the state of prisons. With this view he visited every prison in the united kingdom, and traveled through France, Germany, Holland, Italy, Spain, Portugal, and Turkey. He published, in 1777, a work entitled "The State of the Prisons in England and Wales," dedicated to the House of Commons. In 1780 appeared an appendix, with an account of the author's travels in Italy. He also printed a description of the Bastille, a translation of Tuscany's new code of civil law; and, in 1789, "An Account of Europe." The plague was now the object of his researches, and, with a design of ascertaining the nature of this disorder, and the means of curing it, he set out for the east; but died of a malignant epidemic, at Cherson, in the south of Russia, January 20th, 1790. A statue has been erected to his memory in St. Paul's Cathedral.

HOWARD, JOHN EAGER, a gallant officer in the American revolution, was born in Maryland, June 4th, 1752. He principally distinguished himself in the southern campaigns, and received a wound at the battle of Eutaw, from the effects of which he never recovered. He was chosen governor of Maryland in 1788, and filled the post for three years. From 1796 till 1803 he was a member of the senate of the United States. Col. Howard died in October, 1827.

HOWARD, CHARLES, Earl of Nottingham, was the son of William Lord Howard, of Effingham, and grandson of Thomas, the second Duke of Norfolk. He was born in 1536. He went in 1559 to congratulate Francis II. of France on his accession to the throne; and in 1569 was made general of the horse in the army sent against the Earls of Northumber-

HOW

land and Westmoreland. The next year he went with a fleet of men-of-war to convoy the Princess Anne of Austria to Spain; and in 1573 he succeeded his father in his titles and estate. The same year he was installed knight of the garter, and made lord chamberlain of the household; and in 1585 he was constituted lord high admiral of England. In 1588 he commanded the fleet which defeated and dispersed the Spanish armada; and, in 1596, when another invasion was apprehended, he was appointed commander-in-chief at sea, as the Earl of Essex was on the land. In this expedition Cadiz was taken, and the Spanish fleet burnt; for which he was made Earl of Nottingham and justice-itinerant of all the forests south of Trent. In 1601 he suppressed the Earl of Essex's rebellion, and was principally concerned in bringing that nobleman to the block. James I. continued him in all his employments; and at the coronation the earl acted as lord high steward. In 1605 he went ambassador to Spain; and in 1613 he conveyed the Princess Elizabeth, on her marriage, to Flushing. He died in 1624.

HOWARD, HENRY, Earl of Surrey, was the eldest son of the third Duke of Norfolk, by Elizabeth, daughter of Edward Stafford, Duke of Buckingham. He was born in 1516. He was well educated, talented, and chivalric. While at Florence he issued a general challenge, and in a splendid tournament maintained the beauty of his mistress Geraldine at the point of the lance; he was completely victorious. In 1542 he served in the army, under his father, in Scotland; and in 1544 he went as field-marshal to Boulogne, where, being then knight of the garter, he was constituted king's lieutenant and captain-general. Happening, however, to prove unfortunate in an attempt upon the enemy's convoy of provisions, he incurred the displeasure of Henry VIII., which hastened his ruin. Some intemperate language, used by him, was caught hold of; charges were brought against him, and he was beheaded on Tower Hill, January 19th, 1546-7.

HOWARD, THOMAS, Earl of Surrey, and third Duke of Norfolk, was born in 1473. He was bred to arms, and soon after the accession of Henry VIII. was honored with the order of the garter. He succeeded his brother, Sir Edward Howard, as high admiral, in 1513;

and the victory of Flodden Field was chiefly owing to his valor and skill. For this, the title of Duke of Norfolk was restored to his father, and he was himself created Earl of Surrey. In 1521 he went to Ireland as lord lieutenant, and while there suppressed a dangerous rebellion. Notwithstanding these services, he was sent to the Tower by Henry, at the close of his reign, and kept there till the accession of Mary, when he was released, and contributed to suppress Wyatt's rebellion. He died in 1554.

HOWE, GEORGE, Viscount, was the eldest son of Sir E. Scrope, second Viscount Howe in Ireland. He was the second in command in Abercrombie's expedition, and fell before Ticonderoga in 1758, aged thirty-four. He was the idol of the army, both regular and provincial, and his untimely death was lamented throughout the colonies.

HOWE, RICHARD, Earl, the second son of Sir Emanuel Scrope, second Viscount Howe, was born in 1725, and at the age of fourteen went on board the *Severn*, part of the squadron destined for the South Seas under Anson. In 1745 he was with Admiral Vernon, and soon after was made commander of the *Baltimore* sloop, in which, with another armed vessel, he beat off two French ships conveying troops and ammunition to the Pretender; for which he was made a post-captain. On the breaking out of the war with France, he commanded the *Dunkirk*; with which he took the *Alcide*, a French sixty-four, off Newfoundland. In 1757 he served under Sir Edward Hawke, and his ship, the *Magnanime*, battered the fort on the Aix till it surrendered. After this he was appointed commodore of a squadron, with which he took the town of Cherbourg, and destroyed the basin. When France entered into war to aid America against England, Lord Howe was sent to America to oppose D'Estaing. In 1782 he was made an English viscount, and appointed to the command of the fleet sent to the relief of Gibraltar, which object he accomplished. The next year he was made first lord of the admiralty; but soon resigned that station to Lord Keppel. In 1788 he was created an English earl. On the breaking out of hostilities with France, in 1793, he was appointed to the command of the channel fleet; and on the 1st of June, in the following year, he gained a complete vic-

tory over the French, who lost seven ships of the line. For this he received the thanks of parliament; the king visited him on board his ship, presented him with a valuable sword, and made him knight of the garter. The last service rendered by his lordship to his country, was in reducing the mutinous seamen to their duty by kindness, at Portsmouth in 1797. He died August 5th, 1799.

HOWE, Sir WILLIAM, brother of the preceding, succeeded General Gage in the command of the forces in America in 1775. He defeated the Americans in the battle of Long Island, 1776, took possession of New York, and in the October of the same year, repelled the Americans at Germantown. He was succeeded in his command by Clinton, in 1778. His death took place in 1814.

HUDSON, HENRY, an eminent naval commander and discoverer in North America, from 1607 to 1610. In the latter year, whilst navigating the bay which now bears his name, his crew mutinied, and put him, his son, and seven others on shore, where they no doubt perished.

HUGH CAPET, Duke and afterward King of France, was the son of Hugh the Great, who dying left him under the protection of Richard I., Duke of Normandy. Lothaire, King of France, pleased with Hugh's prudence and generosity, gave him, in 960, the dukedom of France, with the earldom of Paris and Poitou. Louis V., dying fifteen or sixteen months after his father, Hugh Capet was proclaimed king at Noyon, and crowned at Rheims, 987. Charles I., Duke of Lower Lorraine, son of Louis IV., the only man of the royal blood left in France, was taken prisoner by Hugh, and died in 992.

HUGUENOTS, the name given in 1560 by the Catholics of France to their Protestant countrymen, as a term of reproach. Thousands of them perished in the massacre of St. Bartholomew, and the persecutions that followed. Henry IV. secured their safety and rights by the edict of Nantes. Its revocation by Louis XIV., and the cruelties of the dragonnade, drove throngs into exile. The manufactures of England had their start from the Flenings who fled from the Low Countries before the pitiless Duke of Alva: they received new impulse from the Huguenot artisans. Many Huguenots sought an asylum beyond

the sea. Some settled in Rhode Island; others in Ulster and Orange counties, New York, where their descendants are numerous at this day; more made their home in South Carolina, sowing those seeds of civil liberty which ripened so nobly during the Revolution.

HULL, ISAAC, was born at Derby, Conn., in 1775. He began to follow the sea when a mere lad, and at the establishment of the navy received a lieutenant's commission. To him the first British flag was struck on the ocean, during the war of 1812; this was on the 19th of August, 1812, when the frigate *Guerriere*, commanded by Capt. Dacres, was captured by the frigate *Constitution*, after a close action of thirty minutes. Commodore Hull died at Philadelphia, Feb. 13th, 1843.

HULL, WILLIAM, was an officer in the Revolutionary army. He afterward reached the rank of brigadier-general and was governor of Michigan territory. At the commencement of the war of 1812, he commanded the north-western army. He surrendered his whole force at Detroit to Gen. Brock, Aug. 16th, 1812. For this reverse, Gen. Hull was condemned by a court-martial to be shot; a sentence which was mitigated in consideration of his previous services and his age. He lived to see his character vindicated, dying in 1825, aged seventy-two.

HUME, DAVID, the philosopher and historian, died at Edinburgh, his native city, Aug. 25th, 1776, aged sixty-five.

HUMPHREYS, DAVID, was born at Derby, Conn., July, 1752. In 1780 he was appointed aid to Gen. Washington, with whom he remained through the residue of the war, and at its termination accompanied him to Virginia. Col. Humphreys was distinguished for his gallantry and military skill at the siege of Yorktown. He remained with Gen. Washington until 1790, with the exception of two years' residence in France. In 1790 he was appointed minister to Portugal, and afterward to Spain. He died Feb. 21st, 1818, aged sixty-six. He was much interested in the introduction of merino sheep into this country.

HUNGARY, the country of the Magyars, or Hungarians. They are represented as derived from the Huns of Attila. A complete account of ancient Hungary would present little more than the melancholy picture of a perpetual seat of war. The Romans for a time

assumed the ascendant, and obtained a decided superiority over the opposite and conflicting parties. The Hungarians have been thought to belong to the Finnish nations, from the resemblance there is between certain words of their respective dialects. The Magyars appear to have been a principal division of that great northern people near the Altai Mountains, whence issued the hordes who introduced such changes in the character of nations, Asiatic and European. So far as the Magyars are concerned, their progress from the Altai Mountains seems obvious. About the end of the ninth century, we find a division of them entering the plains of Munkatz, under their leader, Almus, whose son Arpad was the first duke of Hungary. In a few years (896) Arpad had dispossessed several of the princes of Hungary, and contracted alliances with others. He subdued a considerable portion of the Moravian kingdom, and, in the ardor of conquest, was for attempting to establish himself in the territories of the Emperor Arnulph. Arpad finally extended his conquests into Bavaria, Suabia, Franconia, and Italy; his exertions were divided, but everywhere successful. His son Zoltan, in 907, had penetrated into Alsatia, Lorraine, and France. While the genius of the state was thus aspiring to eminence, the strength of others seemed proportionately paralyzed, as if the unremitting cruelties characteristic of Attila were again to be feared.

The imputation of ferocity affixed to the name of the Huns inspired terror, till their fourth duke, Geysa, diverted their ferocious dispositions into other channels. The attention he bestowed in giving a tinge of religion to the mind and manners of his countrymen, operated as an incentive to their civilization. It was not until the commencement of the eleventh century, that a people rude, and proud of their rudeness, were induced to lay aside their barbarous habits. Stephen, their last duke and first king, introduced the Christian religion, and those social institutions, which, if left to operate unrestrained, give a stamp to the character of a people. He died in 1038, after a reign of forty-one years; during which he had established laws in the interior, reunited Transylvania to his kingdom, subjugated the Sclavi and Bulgari-

ans, and effected much for the amelioration of society and morals.

On the death of Stephen, Hungary became subject to the tyranny of various princes, the country being involved, for nearly a century, in the horrors of civil war. In this distracted state of the kingdom, various usurpers aspiring to the throne, the churches were destroyed, and the ministers of religion persecuted. Any intervals of peace were interrupted by the Bulgarians, Wallachians, Russians, Croats, &c., renewing their inroads. Under Ladislaus I., 1077, the country enjoyed some tranquillity; religion, commerce, legislation, tempered the bold independence of a dark age; and as a warrior, he also became the temporary savior of his country. John Corvin, or Hunniades, was justly celebrated for his military achievements in the wars with Amurath II. and Mohammed II. His son, Matthias Corvin, was unanimously elected king in 1458, and gave early indications of great gifts and talents, adding not a little to the lustre of his father's acquirements. From his character, policy, military operations, and great power, he has been described as one of the most accomplished kings of Hungary. Such was the force of his mind, that his views extended to whatever could secure his government, and render it formidable. His ends were great, and his means prudent; he kept both the Turks and Austrians at bay, and, as a politician and hero, was watchful over his enemies, both at home and abroad. To his other eminent qualities, this king added a measure of literary reputation. He is said to have been conversant with the languages, arts, and sciences of his time; the country flourished under his establishments, civil and military; and the love of his subjects shows the great esteem in which he was held by them. Compared, generally, with his contemporaries in power, the energy of his mind seems worthy of admiration. He knew how to anticipate hostile designs, and we find the kingdom, under his government, preponderating in the balance of Europe. Matthias had no children, and the election of a new king occasioned a scene of distress. Under Louis II. in 1516, the Turks besieged Belgrade, which surrendered to their arms; and

this was followed by various other successes. In the famous battle of Mohatz (1526), Louis was defeated and slain; Buda was given up to pillage; and the ferocious barbarians, under Solyman II., after plundering the country, converted the scene of their depredations into an immense desert. The country was now convulsed with disputes about the succession, the Archduke Ferdinand being opposed by John Zapolski, who was finally seated on the throne. Zapolski died in 1540, and the Hungarians invited Ferdinand to the throne. The country was again desolated and crimsoned with blood. In 1564 Maximilian II., Emperor of Germany, laid claim to the crown, but it was not till 1570 that a peace was finally ratified between the Hungarians and Germans; John Sigismund, son of Zapolski, was created Prince of Transylvania. The next circumstance to be noticed and recorded, is the definitive subjection of the Hungarians to the imperial house of Austria. At the accession of Charles VI., Emperor of Germany, a definitive treaty, in 1711, terminated all differences; it was not till then that every principle of internal hostility, all those evils which had proved a hindrance to civilization, disappeared. As the Hungarians were now united to the Austrian dynasty, the series of their kings is that of the emperors.

The Austrian rule was on many accounts unpopular, and ardent patriots dreamed of a restoration of that independence which had been lost in the Austrian empire. When, in 1848, France set the fires of revolution a blazing, they soon caught in Hungary. A provisional government was set up, at the head of which was the eloquent Kossuth. For a time a brilliant struggle kept the Austrian power at bay; but dissensions weakened the patriots; Kossuth, great as were his eloquence and patriotism, lacked decision; the czar sent an army in aid of the imperial despotism; the Austrians were victorious in several fields; and on the 11th of August, 1849, Kossuth, in obedience to his colleagues, resigned his authority into the hands of Görgei, the commander of the army, and fled into Turkey. Görgei completed the negotiations he had before commenced with the Russian general, for an unconditional surrender. On

the 17th of August the Hungarians laid down their arms; the contest was at an end. The hapless nation suffered severely under the restored domination of Austria, which was now far more severe than ever.

Hungary, as at present limited, contains 69,325 square miles, and in 1857 had a population of 9,900,785. Pesth, the most populous city and the ancient capital of the kingdom, stands on the east bank of the Danube, opposite Buda; population 131,705.

HUNS, a warlike tribe of Scythia, or Tartary, who invaded Europe in the fifth century. The ravages of Attila, their leader, gained him the name of 'the scourge of God.' It was to check the invasions of this people, that the Chinese built their great wall about 200 B.C.

HUNTER, JOHN, the eminent surgeon, died very suddenly in St. George's Hospital, London, Oct. 16th, 1793, aged sixty-five. His elder brother, WILLIAM (1717-1783), was also a distinguished anatomist.

HUNTINGDON, SELINA, Countess of, was the second daughter of Washington, Earl Ferrers. She was born in 1707, and left the widow of Theophilus Hastings, Earl of Huntingdon, in 1747. She was the friend of Whitfield and the Wesleys, in aid of whose evangelical schemes, by the rearing of chapels, the maintenance of ministers, the foundation of seminaries for their training, &c., her ample jointure and her active labors were bestowed. She lived to the age of eighty-four.

HUNTINGTON, SAMUEL, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Windham, Conn., July 3d, 1732. He was the son of a farmer, and educated at a common school. At the age of twenty-two, he was admitted to practice law in his native place, but shortly afterward removed to Norwich. In 1764 he was representative of Norwich to the general assembly, and in the next year king's attorney; in 1774 he was made a judge of the superior court. In 1775 he was chosen a member of the council of Connecticut, and in 1776 he took his seat as a delegate to the general congress. In 1779 he succeeded John Jay as president of that body. He was made chief-justice of Connecticut, then lieutenant-governor; and in 1786

HUN

he succeeded Mr. Griswold, as governor of Connecticut, filling the office till his death, January 5th, 1796.

HUSS, JOHN, the celebrated reformer, was a native of Bohemia, born in 1370, and educated at the University of Prague. He early perceived the corruption of the Romish church, and exposed its prevalent abuses freely, although persecuted by several popes. He finally appeared at the council of Constance under a safe-conduct from the Emperor Sigismund: yet nevertheless he was thrown into prison, and, after some months of confinement, sentenced to be burned alive. This dreadful fate he met with resignation and lofty faith, July 6th, 1415, and his ashes were thrown into the Rhine. The rebellion of the followers of Huss lasted fifteen years, and filled Bohemia with bloodshed.

HUTCHINSON, THOMAS, born at Boston, 1711, graduated at Harvard College in 1727. He was appointed lieutenant-governor of Massachusetts in 1758, and chief-justice in 1760. In 1771 he was made royal governor of Massachusetts. He was succeeded by Gage in 1774, and retreated to England, where he lived in retirement at Brompton,

and died June 3d, 1780, in his sixty-ninth year. At one time a Boston mob attacked his house, which was nearly demolished. His uniform support of the ministerial measures made him exceedingly unpopular.

HYDER ALI, an eastern prince of Mohammedan origin, the formidable enemy to the British in India. He was frequently successful, and, in 1766 his dominions contained 70,000 square miles. He died in 1782, and was succeeded by Tippoo Saib, his son.

HYMEN. Hymenæus, an Athenian youth of extraordinary beauty, but low birth, became enamored of the daughter of one of the noblest of his countrymen. The rank of his mistress preventing his suit, he followed her wherever she went, disguised as a woman. A procession to Eleusis was seized by pirates, and Hymen, after sharing the captivity of his mistress, effected her rescue. He was rewarded by her hand, and so great was his felicity in wedlock that the Athenians instituted festivals in his honor about 1350 B.C., and solemnly invoked him at their nuptials, believing that no union could be joyous or fortunate without his aid.

I.

ICELAND, a large island in the Atlantic Ocean, near the confines of the polar circle, belonging to Denmark. Christianity was introduced into it in 981. Among its curiosities are the Geysers, or boiling springs, and the numerous volcanoes, the largest of which is Mount Hecla, whose terrific eruptions have often caused the greatest distress among the inhabitants. The islanders are simple, frugal, industrious, and pious; the lower classes are well informed. The staple exports are fish, oil, eider down, sulphur, and salted mutton. Iceland was discovered in the middle of the thirteenth century, and settled by Norsemen in 874.

ILLINOIS contains 55,405 square miles, and in 1860 had 1,711,951 inhabitants. The Mississippi forms the western boundary of this rich country; the Ohio the southern; the Wabash and Lake Michigan wash a large part

of the eastern line; while the interior is penetrated by such noble and navigable streams as the Illinois, the Rock, and the Kaskaskia. A small tract in the south is hilly, and the northern portion is also somewhat broken; but the general surface is almost a uniform level, or slightly undulating. About two-thirds of the state consisted of prairies, on whose wide expanses cultivation is rapidly encroaching. The barrens, or oak openings, partake as it were at once of the character of the forest and the prairie. They rise from a grassy turf seldom encumbered with brushwood, but not unfrequently broken by jungles of rich and gaudy flowering plants, and of dwarf sumach. Among the oak openings you find some of the most lovely landscapes of the west, and travel for miles and miles through varied parks of natural growth, with all the diversity of gently swelling hill and



dale: here, trees grouped, or standing single; and there, arranged in long avenues, as though by human hands, with slips of open meadow between. Sometimes the openings are interspersed with clear lakes of enchanting beauty. The alluvial bottoms are tracts of great fertility. Lead is found in the north-western corner of Illinois in exhaustless quantities. Bituminous coal, iron, and copper are also obtained. Maize and wheat are the great staples of the state. In the north are stony tracts, but elsewhere the plough may furrow millions of acres without turning even a pebble.

Settlements were made along the Mississippi by the French from Canada toward the close of the seventeenth century, as at Cahokia and Kaskaskia. The whole of this region was abandoned to the English by the peace of 1763. In 1809 Illinois was organized as a territory, and its admission into the Union followed in 1818. The state is named from its great central river, whose appellation is aboriginal, meaning 'the river of men.' By the constitution the elective franchise pertains to every white male major citizen, who has resided in the state for one year. Slavery is prohibited, and negroes are forbidden to enter the state. Dueling is a disqualification for office. The state senate is elected for four years, one-half biennially; the lower house for two years. The sessions are biennial. The governor is elected for four years. The three judges of the supreme court have terms of nine years, one being chosen trien-

nially by the people. There are seventeen circuit judges, chosen for four years. Considerable provision is made by the state for education.

Springfield, the capital, on the border of a beautiful prairie, had 6,500 inhabitants in 1853. The great city of Illinois is Chicago, on Lake Michigan. Where in 1832 was only a hamlet of 250 people is now a well-built, bustling emporium that numbers its thousands; in 1860 there were 109,260 inhabitants. Important railroads centre here, with which and the navigation of the fresh-water seas, its growth bids fair to continue as astonishingly. Alton, on the left bank of the Mississippi, three miles above the confluence of the Missouri, is the chief town of western Illinois; population 7,338. Peoria and Quincy are flourishing towns.

INDIA. This region, between Cape Comorin and the Himalaya Mountains, formerly called the Peninsula within the Ganges, is known in the Persian language as Hindustan, the country of the Hindoos. The area is about 1,300,000 square miles, or more than ten times the extent of Great Britain and Ireland. The population is estimated at 200,000,000. The coast-line amounts to 3,200 miles, of which 1,800 miles are washed by the Indian Ocean, and 1,400 miles by the Bay of Bengal. Intersected by vast and lofty mountain ranges, the Indian peninsula presents a remarkably varied surface of tableland, plain, and valley; and extending as it does from $8^{\circ} 4'$ to 34° N. lat., with some-

times tracts half a mile above the level of the sea, there are many varieties of climate and a great range of temperature.

The island of Rameserum, off the coast of Southern India, is low, sandy, uncultivated, but celebrated for the extent and splendor of its great pagoda; it is still visited by pilgrims from all parts of Hindustan. The isolated mountain region of Southern India rises to 7,000 and 8,000 feet, the highest land south of the Himalayas. Here are the dominions of the Rajah of Travancore and the Rajah of Cochin.

The region south of the river Nerbudda, separated from Southern India by the Gap of Coimbatore, is called the Deccan. It is mostly an elevated table-land, the greatest portion still under the sway of Hindoo or Mohammedan princes, in alliance with the British. The kingdom of Mysore, in the south, is governed by a Hindoo prince. In the north are the territories of the Nizam of Hyderabad, or Hyderabad; Hyderabad, the capital, is noted for its traffic in diamonds; this was formerly called the kingdom of Golconda. East of this are the possessions of the Rajah of Berar or Nagpoor. The territory of the Rajah of Colapore extends along the Western Ghauts. The Deccan is skirted on every side by lofty ranges of mountains, known as the Ghauts, from which the descent to the low narrow belt along the seashore is steep and difficult. The southern part of the narrow coast between the Western Ghauts and the Indian Ocean is called Malabar. On these Western Ghauts, between 12° and 14° N. lat., grows the only sandal-wood in Hindustan; it is an important export to China and Japan. The city of Goa, belonging to the Portuguese, lies on the western coast: once it was splendid and populous, with magnificent dwellings and many elegant churches and monasteries; these are now decaying, and the ancient town, now very unhealthy, is scantily peopled. A new, well-built town, five miles nearer the sea, called Panjim, is the residence of the Portuguese viceroy, and has 20,000 inhabitants. Mahé is a French settlement on this coast, with a trade in pepper. On the Nilgherry Mountains, only eleven degrees from the equator, the climate and productions of Europe are found. Here are established sanitary stations, where Eu-

ropeans may regain their health when impaired by a long residence in hot countries. The country between the Eastern Ghauts and the Bay of Bengal comprises the central and northern Carnatic, with the Guntoor Circar. Here is the Coromandel coast, Madras, the French settlement of Pondicherry, and the Danish one of Tranquebar. The coast is much exposed, and during the south-west monsoon the only smooth water is the harbor of Coringa.

Central India, or the mountain region of Northern Hindustan, has nearly the form of a triangle, whose base is the Vindhya Mountains, and the apex near Delhi. To this region belong Gujerat and Cutch. The country is for the most part in the possession of native rulers, the Mahratta princes, Scindia, Holkar, the Guicowar, the Rajpoots, and the Rajah of Rewa.

The Ganges rises among the highest Himalayas, and enters the sea by a many-branched delta, after a course of nearly 1,500 miles. The great plain drained by it and its affluents is the most fertile, the best cultivated, and the most thickly inhabited portion of Hindustan, containing more than one-half of its population. Here are the cities of Benares, Calcutta, Cawnpoor, Delhi, Lucknow, &c. This region is entirely under British rule; the kingdom of Oude was their last acquisition.

The Indus rises on the table-land of Thibet. The extensive plain of the Indus comprehends the Punjaub (country of the five rivers), Sinde, &c. The Punjaub has very fertile and very sterile tracts; rice is the chief object of agriculture. The Sikhs are the principal inhabitants. The Punjaub is now a British province, and Lahore the seat of rule. Sinde is indebted for its fertility to the inundations of the Indus; as far as these extend, the country yields abundant crops. It is thinly peopled. It was formerly ruled by chiefs of Belooch descent, called amcers; it is now annexed to the Bombay presidency.

The Himalayas form the northern boundary of India. The range is some 1,500 miles in length, with a breadth between 80 and 120 miles; it may occupy a surface of 150,000 square miles. In its arms the Cashmere valley is enclosed. The highest portion of the Himalayas is the Dhawalaghiri range, where

the summit of Ghosa Cotec attains an elevation of 28,000 feet above the level of the sea, the highest land known on the globe. The word 'Himalaya' is Sanscrit, meaning, 'the abode of frost.'

The aboriginal tribes, besides the Hindoos, are few and only found in the mountainous parts of India. The foreigners are partly Asiatics and partly Europeans. The Asiatics have come by sea and by land. To the former class belong the Arabs, who are very numerous on the coast of Malabar. Some Parsees, or Guebres, are dispersed through the cities on the coast between Bombay and Surat. The Asiatics who entered by land chiefly settled in the plains of the Ganges and the Indus. They came with the conquerors who at several epochs have established their empires here. They are mostly Afghans, are commonly called Patans, and number about 10,000,000. The Europeans are chiefly descendants of the Portuguese, and most numerous along the western coast. Their number is between one and two million. The British race is pre-eminent in power; yet it numbers less than 100,000.

India is rich in gems; not diamonds only, but rubies, emeralds, sapphires, turquoises, opals, amethysts, and almost every known gem, are found, of great purity and beauty. Gold is rare. There is iron of good quality. The celebrated Damascus blades bore testimony of old to the worth of Indian steel, and there is still some produced of equally fine quality. Lead, copper, zinc, and tin also exist in various districts. The forests furnish valuable woods—ebony, satin-wood, calamander, teak, saul-wood, and the useful bamboo. The most important crop of India is cotton. It is inferior to the cotton of the United States in length of fibre and in cleanliness. The other great staple of India is rice, grown in every variety of soil and in every climate. The land is rich in dyes. India rubber has long been exported to England. Tobacco is grown considerably, but of inferior quality. Maize is freely cultivated, but it is far from equalling to the American corn.

India is comprised in three great political divisions, the presidencies of Bengal (including the sub-presidency of Agra, or the north-western provinces), Madras, and Bombay, the former the seat of the governor-general

and the supreme council. These divisions include not only the territories under the direct rule of the British, but also most of the native states, some of which are subsidiary, some tributary, some protected, and some nominally independent; but all are more or less under British control. Nearly a million and a half sterling has been annually paid in pensions to conquered native princes.

The antiquity of the Hindoos is undoubtedly great; little change has taken place in their religion, manners, or customs, for more than two thousand years. Hindustan was very slightly known to the ancients. They had some vague idea of its extent and wealth, but they had little knowledge of its interior. Various attempts were made to subdue the land: Alexander the Great carried his victorious arms across the frontier; Seleucus advanced as far as the Ganges; Semiramis pushed her forces against the Indians; and other adventurers essayed their subversion. Whatever successes they gained appeared not to result to their advantage; the people resisted their invaders with great bravery. The Romans never extended their conquests as far as India.

Commerce between India and the western nations of Asia appears to have been carried on from the earliest times. Indian articles found their way into Europe through the Phœnician merchants. After the foundation of Alexandria in Egypt, the Indian traffic was sustained almost exclusively by its merchants.

Hardly anything is known of the history of India from the time of Alexander to the Mohammedan conquest. The Greek kingdom of Bactria, founded by Theodotus, a lieutenant of the Syrian monarchs, B.C. 255, comprised a considerable part of northern India. It was overthrown, B.C. 126, by the Tartars (called Scythians by the Greeks), who possessed the greater part of the north-western Hindustan till they were driven beyond the Indus, B.C. 56, by Vicramaditya I. The earliest invasion of the Mohammedans was made in the latter part of the tenth century under Mahmoud Ghazni, who led twelve expeditions in all into Hindustan, sacking cities, carrying off their treasure, and trying to exterminate the inhabitants, since he could not convert them to the faith of Islam. Inva-

sions and conquests followed, and in 1093 Delhi was taken, and made the capital of the Mohammedan empire in India. In 1398 Tamerlane descended upon India with his conquering horde of Tartars, massacring the inhabitants of every place through which he passed, and defeating the Indian army with immense slaughter. He carried away a great booty and a vast retinue of slaves, leaving the country a desert which he had found a garden. In 1526 Baber, a descendant of Tamerlane, took Delhi, and established the Tartar dynasty, or as it is commonly called, the Mogul empire. The emperor was known in Europe as the Great Mogul. Akbar, Shah Jehan, Aurungzebe, were emperors of great renown.

In 1738 Nadir Shah, or Kouli Khan, the ambitious monarch of Persia, crossed the Indus with a brave and veteran army, and soon decisively defeated the Mogul's troops. Nadir Shah's stay at Delhi was marked by rapacity and bloodshed; a hundred and fifty thousand of the inhabitants were massacred, and the conqueror is said to have borne off over \$100,000,000 in treasure! By this blow the power of the emperor was nearly destroyed; only one imperial army ever entered the field after this, and that was defeated by the Rohillas in 1749. Delhi, and a few miles around it, constituted almost the sole territory of the descendants of Tamerlane; while the governors of districts and provinces, under the names of rajahs, nabobs, and a variety of others, became independent sovereigns.

The Portuguese were the first nation of Europe that got a foothold in India; Vasco de Gama landed at Calicut, May 20th, 1498. By the possession of Malacca they commanded the trade of the Indian archipelago; and by their numerous settlements along the Malabar coast, especially at Goa and Diu, they monopolized the commerce with Europe. Under their rule the inquisition was planted in India, and its shambles dripped with horrors. In the beginning of the seventeenth century, the English, Dutch, and French began to make settlements along the coast, and the Portuguese lost their dominions almost as rapidly as they had acquired them. They still possess Goa, Damaun, and Diu. The Dutch never gained much political power in Hindustan, though at one time they carried

on the greater part of the Indian trade. The French obtained extensive possessions in the Deccan, of which they retain only Pondicherry, Carical, Yanaon, Mahe, and Chander-nagore.

The first maritime mercantile adventure from England direct to India was in 1591. In 1600 a charter was given to an association of merchants, under the designation of "The Governor and Company of London Merchants trading to the East Indies." In 1615 an English ambassador, Sir Thomas Roe, was sent to the court of the Mogul emperor, by whom he was cordially received. The English East India Company were pretty successful in their voyages; and after victoriously contending with the Portuguese in several naval engagements, they at length succeeded (1612) in forming a factory at Surat, on the Malabar coast, by permission of the Emperor Jehan Ghir. They had to struggle against the enmity of both the Portuguese and the Dutch. In 1639 permission was obtained to erect a fortress at Madras. Accident laid the foundation of their power in Bengal in 1652, when, through the influence of a medical gentleman who had successfully used his professional skill at the court of the Mogul, a license was given, for the merely nominal sum of thirty thousand rupees, permitting the English East India Company to trade to an unlimited extent, free from all payment of duties. The first English post was at Hooghly, twenty-three miles higher up the river than Calcutta. It was not until 1698 that the factory was removed to Calcutta, and Fort William built.

Bombay had been ceded to the Portuguese by the Mogul in 1630. It came into the possession of England on the marriage of Charles II. with the Infanta Catherine of Portugal. By the marriage contract, Charles was to receive £500,000 in money, the town of Tangier in Africa, and the island of Bombay with its dependencies, together with permission for his subjects to carry on a free trade with the Portuguese settlements in India and Brazil. The island was transferred to the East India Company in 1668.

The wars waged between France and England in the eighteenth century extended into India. Hostilities commenced in 1747, and were waged with spirit by both sides, the

abilities of Clive contributing to the successes of the English, until in 1755 a cessation took place. In 1756, the authorities at Calcutta having been induced by dread of the French to strengthen their fortifications, Surajah Dowlah, the soubahdar of Bengal, who had never been friendly to the English, made this a pretext for attacking the place. The outposts were assailed on the 18th of June, 1756, and after two days the fort was carried by storm. The tragedy of the Black Hole followed. On the first day of the next year Calcutta was retaken by the English; on the 23d of June following the nabob was defeated at Plassey by Clive; and early in July he was assassinated by the son of his successor. From this time may be dated the beginning of the absolute government of the English in Bengal.

On the Coromandel coast, meantime, affairs were going on very indifferently for the English. But things again took a turn, all the enterprises of the French commander going awry. His attempt upon Wandewash, in 1760, was extremely unfortunate. Chelaput, Arcot, Timery, Carical, Cillambaram, Alamparva, Trincomalee, Cuddalore, fell into the hands of the English. Pondicherry was invested, and capitulated Jan. 15th, 1761; the power of the French in India being thus annihilated.

In 1767 a new enemy appeared in the Deccan—Hyder Ali, Prince of Mysore, who had raised himself from the rank of a subordinate soldier and established a principality for himself. For several years he baffled the attempts of the English to crush him, and he often gained advantages over them in battle. In 1781 Sir Eyre Coote was appointed commander-in-chief; he defeated Hyder in several severe engagements. In the midst of the contest with the English Hyder died, and there succeeded him as Sultan of Mysore his bloodthirsty son, Tippoo Saib. He waged war for several years, till Seringapatam, the capital of Mysore, was stormed, and Tippoo slain, May 4th, 1799.

To enumerate in detail all the conquests and intrigues by which the British extended their empire in India would far outrun our limits. From 1801 to the close of 1805 the first Mahratta war lasted, in which Gen. Wellesley, the future Duke of Wellington,

distinguished himself, especially at Assaye. The second Mahratta war continued from 1806 till 1822. At the renewal of the Company's charter in 1813, only the monopoly in the trade between China and England was retained; unrestricted intercourse with the Indian possessions was allowed to British merchants. In 1824 the Burmese commenced hostilities; Rangoon was taken by the British, and the Burmese several times defeated; in February, 1826, the Burmese monarch, humbled and disheartened, made peace, ceding a large tract of territory, and paying £1,000,000 sterling.

At the renewal of the charter in 1833, not only was the monopoly of the China trade abolished, but the Company was restricted from carrying on any commercial operations whatever on its own account, and was confined entirely to the territorial and political management of the vast empire beneath its sway. The disastrous Afghan expedition we have already spoken of under AFGHANISTAN. As a sequel came hostilities with the Ameers of Scinde; their army of 30,000 foot and 5,000 horse was routed on a bloody field by Sir Charles Napier with a little band of 2,100, and Scinde was annexed to the British empire. The next great storm of bloodshed was the war with the Sikhs, who crossed the Sutlej and attacked the British at Ferozepore, Dec. 14th, 1845. At Moodkee, Ferozeshah, Aliwal, and Sobraon, within sixty days, the Sikhs were defeated, and the war ended. A second war with the Sikhs began in 1848. Chillianwallah and Goojerat were the decisive battles. March 14th, 1849, the Sikhs laid down their arms, and surrendered unconditionally. The Punjaub was annexed to the British dominions. In both wars the victories over the Sikhs were bought by a heavy sacrifice of British blood and life. In 1852 a second war with Burmah resulted in the annexation of Pegu; and in 1856 the large, rich province of Oude was taken from its profligate king.

Edmund Burke accused his countrymen of having sold every monarch, prince, and state in India, broken every contract, and ruined every prince and every state who had ever trusted them. India has presented a novel spectacle. A handful of strangers from a small ocean isle, dwelling among a people

differing every way from them, draw from the country a revenue of £27,000,000; they fill the highest offices of state; they have power over 98,000,000 of people, and exercise indirect authority over 52,000,000 more whom they suffer to be ruled through native princes. Their sway extends over a space half as large as Europe. The chiefs of this vast empire had neither crown nor sceptre. Subjected at home to the same laws as other citizens, placed under the same power, their rise was as silent as their fall; they reigned or died unknown to their subjects. These masters, these kings, were merchants—merchant princes in truth! they composed the English East India Company.

A veil may well be drawn over the bloody contests and oppressive measures by which the natives of India were crushed, their princes ruined and betrayed, their wealth stolen from them, and their rights trampled under foot, without remorse or hesitation. Eloquent and upright men in England indignantly denounced the conduct of the Company—in vain. Confiding in their wealth, steelled by an unrelenting avarice, proud in a constant success, they smiled at every attempt to shake their power or impeach their officers. The native sovereigns were not backward to inflict revolting cruelties in retaliation. It must be remembered that the Mohammedan rulers who had sway before the advent of the British, were themselves usurpers, and that their despotisms were cruel and treacherous. Notwithstanding the crimes that have sullied the rule of the British, it has on the whole been beneficial to the unhappy country. For the wrongs of which they were guilty they have reaped an awful harvest.

For a long time the Mohammedans of Upper India had been discontented with their subordinate position, but it was of no use to try to throw off the British yoke so long as the Hindoo soldiery continued true to their salt. The high-caste sepoy of the Bengal army being mostly Brahmins, they obtained a consideration for religious scruples and whims which gradually impaired and ultimately destroyed all discipline. When it became absolutely necessary to curtail some of their privileges, they considered themselves aggrieved, and to arrogance added discontent. The introduction of improved mus-

kets rendering the use of greased cartridges necessary, a quantity was sent out from England. The sepoy objected to them because they might have been greased with the fat of cows or pigs; the former is an object of especial veneration, the latter of abhorrence and hatred, and by tasting the fat of either caste would be lost. The issue of the obnoxious cartridges was at once discontinued. This was in January, 1857. A mutinous spirit, however, gradually cropped out in the Bengal native army. In March several regiments were disbanded, followed by others, till in June the army had lost, by disbandment and desertion, 30,000 men. In April eighty-five of the native cavalry at Meerut refused to use their cartridges; they were committed to jail, May 9th. On the 10th the native troops rose, fired on their officers, killing Col. Finnis and others, released their imprisoned comrades and hundreds of criminals, massacred many Europeans, fired the public buildings, and then marched off for Delhi. The sepoy there welcomed the mutineers and fraternized with them. Delhi was soon wholly in their hands. The titular king of Delhi was proclaimed emperor. The fate of the Europeans resident in Delhi was awful. Delicate women were stripped of their clothing, violated, turned naked into the streets, beaten with canes, pelted with filth, and abandoned to the beastly lusts of the rabble until welcome death relieved them. Men were slowly hacked to pieces, burned to death, or horribly mutilated. A sepoy snatched a child from its mother's arms, and dashed its brains out on the pavement before her. Atrocities so terrible and disgusting that they can never be hinted at on the page of history were the fate of the Englishmen and Englishwomen throughout this reign of horror.

Similar mutinies followed at various points, accompanied by similar outrages. In several instances some of the rebelling sepoy protected their British officers and enabled them to escape; in others they were loud in professing loyalty, and swore to defend the English to the last drop of their blood,—yet the moment after, perfidiously shooting them down, and marching to join the insurgents at Delhi. It became evident that the whole Bengal army was leavened with the spirit of evil.

It was a force of upward of 150,000 men. The European troops in Bengal were less than 25,000, and were distributed through the country at about a hundred military stations. Some disaffection appeared in the Bombay army, but it was more promptly met; there had been less regard to high caste paid there, and there was better discipline. The Madras sepoys generally exhibited a striking example of fidelity. Most of the native princes kept their faith with the British government during this critical period. The villagers showed little love for the insurgents, a fact testifying that the trouble was a mutiny, not a popular insurrection.

The news of these horrible massacres caused great excitement in England. Regiment after regiment was sent to the relief, and Sir Colin Campbell hurried on to take the command. Lucknow was besieged by the insurgents, and the men of the garrison of Cawnpore were massacred by Nena Sahib. The heroic Havelock came up too late to avert this terrible catastrophe, and the day before he entered Cawnpore Nena Sahib finished the tragedy by murdering the women and children. This was in the middle of July, 1857. Not till the 19th of September was Havelock's force strong enough to advance to the relief of the long beleaguered band at Lucknow. On the 25th, when a few hours must have given the besieged over to their pitiless foe, Havelock and succor came, and they were saved. Meanwhile a British army had gathered before the walls of Delhi, and on the 7th of September the siege commenced. Several successful assaults were made, with great loss of life, and on the evening of the 20th, the rebels evacuated the city and suburbs. Among the prisoners made was the wretched old King of Delhi; his life and that of his wife were spared; his two sons and grandson were shot. The fall of Delhi scattered the rebels through the land, and the war assumed more of a guerrilla character.

The force with which Havelock relieved Lucknow not being strong enough to protect the retreat of the women and children to Cawnpore, he remained at Lucknow; the insurgents again besieged it, and the position of its defenders became quite critical. One of Sir Colin Campbell's first movements was

for its relief. He prosecuted hostilities against the insurgents with his proverbial energy, and with much hard fighting before the close of 1858 the mutiny was quelled. Sir Colin was elevated to the peerage as Baron Clyde.

The missionaries in India were not spared in this whirlwind of fire and blood. Ten of these devoted men, with their wives, were slain; of whom four belonged to the American Presbyterian mission at Futtehgur. The destruction of mission property was immense. The mission bungalow residences, the schools, the churches or chapels, the libraries and stores of books, were destroyed. The extensive printing-presses of the American mission at Allahabad, and of the Church of England mission at Agra, with the fonts of type, and Bible, and tract, and school-book depositories,—the accumulated results of the knowledge, experience, and toil of many a devoted spirit for many years,—all disappeared.

In 1858 the East India Company ceased to exist, and by act of parliament the control of India came into the hands of the crown.

The following have been the governors-general of India :—

Warren Hastings assumed the government April 13th, 1772.
 Sir John Macpherson, Feb. 1st, 1785.
 Lord Cornwallis, Sept. 12th, 1786.
 Sir John Shore (afterward Lord Teignmouth), Oct. 28th, 1793.
 Lord (afterward Marquis) Cornwallis again: he relinquished the appointment.
 Sir Alured Clarke, April 6th, 1798.
 Lord Mornington (afterward Marquis Wellesley), May 17th, 1798.
 Marquis Cornwallis again, July 30th, 1805.
 Sir George Hilario Barlow, Oct. 10th, 1805.
 Lord Minto, July 31st, 1807.
 Earl of Moira (afterward Marquis Hastings), Oct. 4th, 1813.
 Hon. John Adam, Jan. 13th, 1823.
 Rt. Hon. George Canning; he relinquished the appointment.
 Lord Amherst, Aug. 1st, 1823.
 Hon. Wm. Butterworth Bayley, March 13th, 1828.
 Lord Wm. Cavendish Bentinck, July 4th, 1828.
 Sir Charles Theophilus (afterward Lord) Metcalfe, March 20th, 1835.
 Lord Auckland, March 4th, 1836.
 Lord Ellenborough, Feb. 28th, 1842.
 William Wilberforce Bird, June 15th, 1844.
 Sir Henry (afterward Viscount) Hardinge, July 23d, 1844.
 Lord Dalhousie, Jan. 12th, 1848.
 Lord Canning, July, 1855.

Calcutta, the capital of the province of Bengal, and the seat of supreme government for British India, is situated on the east bank of the Hoogly, one of the arms of the Ganges, a hundred miles from the sea. Drainage has ameliorated the unhealthiness of its site. It was a small native village when the English established their factory in 1656. Fort William was built by Clive in 1757. The town extends more than six miles along the river, having an average width of three miles. The population, with the suburbs, is estimated at 500,000, made up of a strange hodgepodge of Eurasians (half-breeds), Armenians, Jews, Moguls, Parsees, Arabs, Burmese, Madrasses, native Christians, and British. The great mass speak the Bengalee language, and many the Hindustanee also. No springs are found for a hundred and forty feet below the surface, and for good water the people are dependent upon tanks filled by the periodical rains. Calcutta is the great emporium of trade and commerce for all Bengal. Flocks of kites, vultures, crows, and adjutant cranes clear away the surplus food provided for Europeans, which is thrown at night into the streets, since it can not be kept in that climate, and the religious prejudices of the natives forbid them to consume it. These feathered scavengers are aided by foxes, jackals, and wild dogs from the jungles, who prowl and howl through the ways at night. The markets are abundantly supplied with choice meats, game, fish, and fruits. Several institutions for literary, scientific, and educational objects have been established by the English.

The sacred city of Benares, in Bengal, rises like an amphitheatre on the high northern bank of the Ganges. It has more than 600,000 inhabitants, and the dense masses at the great Hindoo festivals present an extraordinary scene. The natives call Benares *Casi* or *Cashi*, 'the splendid,' and it is regarded with peculiar reverence. It abounds in temples. A college for the instruction of Hindoos in their own literature was founded here by the British government in 1791. Benares is a great mart for diamonds and other gems, which are brought principally from the Bundelcund. The city was ceded to the East India Company by the Nabob of

Oude in 1775. A Hindoo imagines that if he dies in Benares, his eternal felicity is certain.

The city of Bombay is situated on an island of the same name, on the western coast of India; population, 566,000. It is belted with fortifications. The trade of Bombay is very great, cotton being the largest export.

Madras lies on the eastern coast. Fort St. George was built in 1639, and a factory established here. The population is 300,000, and there are several populous suburbs. The coast has no indentation, nor has Madras any harbor or pier. A heavy swell rolls in shore throughout the year, and vessels anchor in the open roads a mile or so out. Considerable difficulty is frequently experienced in landing passengers and goods.

The languages of India may be divided into two great classes. I. Languages derived from the Sanscrit, spoken in the northern and central provinces—the Hindee, Bengalee, Punjaabee, Mahratta, Guzerattee, Cutchee, Boondela, Brig Bhakhur, Ooriya, and Asamee. II. Languages less closely dependent upon the Sanscrit, spoken in the southern parts—the Telooگو, Tamul, Canarese, Malayala, and Cingalese. The common language of Mohammedans is Hindustanee; this is a compound of Hindee, the primitive language of the Hindoos, with Arabic and Persian, the speech of their Mohammedan conquerors. Legislative acts are translated into Persian, Bengalee, and Hindustanee.

The Hindoos from earliest times have been divided into four castes, or races. The Brahmins occupy the first rank; their proper duties are to teach the Vedas or sacred books, to perform sacrifices to the gods, and to meditate upon divine and holy objects. The Kshatriya, or military class, is said by the Brahmins to be extinct, but the Rajpoots claim to belong to this class. The Vaisyas are agriculturists, herdsmen, and hunters. The Sudras are handicraftsmen and artisans, and the lowest and most degraded class in Hindoo society. The Hindoos of the present day are divided into numerous sects, all of modern origin, and most of them differing very much from the ancient religion.



INDIANA has an area of 33,809 square miles, and in 1860 had a population of 1,350,428. In some quarters the surface is hilly, but the greater portion of the state is level or slightly undulating. The land is generally rich and productive, and along the streams lie strips of alluvion that are almost exhaustless in fertility. The state is well watered by many fine streams, some of them navigable, as the Wabash and the White. It is rich in indigenous timber; the oak, the walnut, the sycamore, and the poplar attain a noble size; oaks and beeches are the most prevalent. Indiana is a great grain-growing state; her manufactures are yet in embryo. Bituminous coal is abundant.

The first settlement in Indiana was made at Vincennes on the Wabash, by the French, in 1702. All this region passed into the hands of the British by treaty, and was wrested from them in the Revolution. The early white dwellers in these then distant wilds suffered severely from the tomahawk and scalping-knife of the savage. Indiana was admitted into the Union in 1816. The present constitution was framed in 1851. The governor is elected for four years; the senate for the same term; and the representatives for two years. The general assembly meets biennially on the first Monday of January. The right of suffrage extends to every white male citizen of the United States who is of age and has resided in the state six months, and to every white foreign-born male who shall have resided in the United States

one year, in the state six months, and have duly declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States. The constitution prohibits the immigration of negroes. Liberal legislation has provided for public instruction, and there are institutions at Indianapolis where all the blind and deaf-mute children of the state are educated without charge for board or tuition.

Indianapolis, the capital, was laid out in 1821: in 1820 its site was covered with a dense forest, which in 1860 had given place to the homes of 18,611 people. It was planned upon noble dimensions; the broad streets, intersecting one another at right angles, bear the names of the different states of the Union. Evansville, on the Ohio, is a thriving town of (1853) 8,000 inhabitants. New Albany, farther up the river, is laid out with great regularity, is the seat of a good business, and the largest town in the state; population in 1860, 15,000. Madison, still above, is handsomely built of brick, with broad straight streets, and is a place of enterprise; population in 1858, 12,000.

INDIANS. The aboriginal population of America consists of two distinct races—the Esquimaux, inhabiting the seaboard districts of the Arctic regions; and the copper-colored Indians, who were spread over all the rest of the continent. The question as to the origin of the latter has never been solved, and perhaps is beyond the province of history. Notwithstanding some partial differences of complexion and stature, and a prodigious

diversity in languages, a strong family character pervades the Indians of both Americas. Humboldt testifies that the Indians of New Spain bear a general physical resemblance to those of Canada, Florida, Peru, and Brazil. In their civil and social state, however, there has been a great difference among the aborigines. The Aztecs of Mexico, the inhabitants of Cundinamarca, the Peruvians, and the ancient possessors of Central America, all made much progress in civilization, contrasting strongly with the bold and terrible traits of the barbarous tribes, many of whom seemed sunk in the lowest misery.

From Hudson's Bay to Mexico, and from the Atlantic to the Rocky Mountains, the whites found the country possessed by many petty and independent tribes, who were generally enemies to one another. They were in the rudest state of society, wandering from place to place, without science and without arts, with no metallic instruments, and owning no domestic animals. A little corn was raised by the labor of their women with a clamshell or the scapula of a buffalo; this they devoured with savage improvidence, and subsisted during the rest of the year upon precarious supplies of game and fish. They were thinly scattered over a wide extent of country, fixing their summer residence upon some fertile spot, and roaming during the winter, with their families and their mat or skin houses, in search of the animals necessary for food or clothing. Their numbers never could have been considerable, for their habits could exist only in a boundless forest and among a sparse population. Where each family requires for its daily consumption a deer, an elk, or a buffalo, the herd which is to supply the demand must occupy an extensive district of country. Their hostilities often brought on a scarcity of provisions, which led to famine, frightful suffering, and death. Some of the tribes indulged in the horrid banquet of human flesh.

Throughout the continent, with some rare exceptions, the woman was the slave of the man: she performed all the menial offices, bore the burdens, tilled the ground, and in many cases was not counted worthy to eat or speak before the other sex. Polygamy was by no means uncommon, though often

checked by the difficulty of procuring, or the hardship of supporting, more than one wife.

In general the American Indians seem to have entertained the idea of a Great Spirit, a Master of Life, in short a Creator; and of an Evil Spirit, holding divided empire over nature with the other. Many of them had priests, prophets, sorcerers, in whose supernatural powers they put trust; and most, if not all, appear to have believed in a future state. The Algonquin nations believed in the existence of a Supreme Creator, the Kacha Manito, or Good Spirit; of Malcha Manito, or Evil Spirit; and of inferior spirits. They sought to obtain the favor of these by certain ceremonies, and sometimes by sacrifices and offerings. They had some notions of a future life, in which the good should spend their time in hunting and mirth, and the bad grunt and sweat in hard labor. They had sorcerers whose spells were highly esteemed for the cure of diseases and for luck in their enterprises; the medicine-bags or charms were carefully worn about the person or hung up in the lodge. For the cure of diseases, they practiced bleeding, used the steam bath, employed various herbs and roots, and trusted much to the efficiency of songs, dances, and other ceremonies performed under the direction of the medicine men.

The aboriginal population of the territory of the United States, instead of merging into the European stock that settled among them, have wasted away, and become almost extinct east of the Mississippi. Wars with the whites, too often provoked by the cupidity and rascality of the latter; the gradual destruction of the game on which they depended for subsistence; and the vices taught them by intercourse with civilization,—these causes combined to lessen their numbers, until the numerous tribes that once occupied all the openings in the great primitive American forest have wholly died out, or have dwindled to a few miserable individuals.

The region between the Atlantic and the Rocky Mountains, and between the Gulf of Mexico and Hudson's Bay, seems to have been divided among five great nations or families of tribes—the Algonquin, or Chipewya; the Huron, or Wyandot; the Floridian; the Sioux, or Dahcotah; and the Pawnee. Each of these families comprised many

independent and often hostile tribes; which, however, are proved to have spoken cognate dialects, and therefore to have sprung from a common stock.

The leading tribes of New York—the Mohawks, Senecas, Cayugas, Oneidas, Onondagas (all belonging to the Huron family), to whom were afterward added the Tuscaroras from North Carolina—were banded in a powerful confederacy, known as the Five Nations or Iroquois. [See SIX NATIONS.] The Mohawks, the leaders of these Romans of the new world,—as they have been called on account of their warlike spirit and extensive conquests,—removed to Canada in 1776, and were followed by a portion of the Cayugas. These once powerful nations have diminished to an insignificant band.

The Algonquin race once possessed all the country between the Tennessee and Roanoke, and the St. Lawrence and the lakes, and even much farther north; with the exception of the comparatively small enclosed tract inhabited by the Huron nations. The Indians of New England were of this race, as were the Chippewas, or Ojibwas, Ottawas, Potawatamies, Sacs and Foxes, Shawnees, Kickapoos, Miamis, and Lenni Lenapes, or Delawares.

The Sioux, or Dahcotahs, occupying the country between the upper Missouri and the upper Mississippi, are one of the most powerful nations yet remaining. There are many other tribes that belong to this stock; as the Winnebagoes, Osages, Crows, Blackfeet, &c. The Pawnees, Camanches, and other tribes of the Pawnee family are well mounted, and nomadic in their life, following the buffalo in his annual migrations from north to south, and in his continual roamings in search of new pastures. The mounted Apache hordes are warlike and powerful, and are rarely at peace.

An extensive tract of country, west of Arkansas, has been set apart by the United States for the permanent residence of the various tribes of Indians that have been removed from the states. The principal of these are the Cherokees, Creeks, Choctaws, Osages, Chickasaws, Potawatamies and Chippewas, Pawnees, Seminoles, Sacs and Foxes, Shawnees and Senecas, and Delawares. The Cherokees are the most civilized; the Creeks and Choctaws come next. Under the guidance of missionaries, who have settled among

them, and with the sanction and assistance of the commissioner of Indian affairs, they have established regular governments, legislatures, judicial officers, churches, schools, newspapers, &c.; have introduced the manufacture of agricultural implements, cloth, and most articles of ordinary farm and domestic use; cultivate the land with a considerable amount of skill; rear horses and cattle; build houses; and export maize, cotton, hides, &c. By the treaty of removal and settlement, the federal government furnishes them with blacksmiths, wheelwrights, and some other mechanics, and at their first settlement gave them a stock of cattle, &c. Many of the tribes possess slaves. The Seminoles were exceedingly loath to depart from their old homes in the glades of Florida, and fought desperately against the removal.

The North American Indians were distinguished for a quick understanding, a retentive memory, and a stoicism which would have excited the envy of the philosophers of ancient Greece. The desire for revenge was to an Indian one of the most powerful incitements to action. He knew nothing of the principle that leads a Christian to return good for evil. He rarely if ever forgot an injury. As an exception to this, however, the following anecdote appears worthy to be related. An Indian, having wandered far from his comrades, found himself near a white man's dwelling, foot-worn and thirsty. The owner of the house was standing at the door. The Indian begged a morsel of food and a cup of water, to sustain his sinking frame. "Begone! dog of an Indian!" was the surly reply. Some years after this the Englishman, on a hunting excursion, lost himself in the forest. At the moment of despair, he perceived an Indian wigwam, and having applied for shelter, was welcomed with ready hospitality. The Indian host busied himself in making every arrangement for the comfort of his guest. His horse was fed and cared for, a supper was provided, and a bed of soft skins invited him to repose his weary limbs. In the morning, when the white man signified his desire to depart, the Indian offered to be his guide. Having conducted him to the outskirts of the forest, the Indian pointed out his path. The English-

man thanked him, and was about to go. "Stay yet a moment," said the Indian; "I see that you do not know me,—but I know you well. Some ten years since, a poor Indian came to your door, and asked you to give him a morsel of bread and a cup of water. You refused him. I am that red man. I swore to be revenged. Am I not? Now go your ways, and forget not to tell your white brethren that there is at least one Indian who can practice what they preach."

The Indians were noted for their bravery. In war they seldom gave quarter, and prisoners were generally tortured, and burnt at the stake. It was the pride of a vanquished warrior or chieftain to endure these tortures without a murmur, and to perish singing with an unflinching voice his triumphant death-song, in which he recounted his previous exploits, the number of foes that had fallen beneath his hatchet and whose scalps adorned his wigwam, and rejoiced at the prospect of reaching those Elysian fields of after life, where through eternity the immortal huntsman chased undying game.

The traditions of the Iroquois abound with touching tales of the injustice they sustained from the whites, from their first settling in the country. "We and our tribes," they say, "lived in peace and harmony with each other before the white people came into this country; our council house extended far to the north and the south. In the middle of it we could meet from all parts to smoke the pipe of peace together. When the white men arrived in the south we received them as friends; we did the same when they came in the east. We knew not but the Great Spirit had sent them to us for some good purpose, and therefore we thought they must be a good people. We were mistaken. The whites will not rest contented until they shall have destroyed the last of us, and made us disappear entirely from the face of the earth."

Menandon, an Oneida chief, who was a Christian, lived to be a hundred and twenty years old, long surviving the minister through whose teachings he had been converted. Just before he died, he said, "I am an aged hemlock. The winds of one hundred years have whistled through my branches. I am dead at top [referring to his blindness]. Why I yet live, the Good Spirit

only knows. Pray to Jesus that I may wait my appointed time to die; and when I die, lay me by the side of my minister and father, that I may go up with him to the great resurrection."

The Indians have shown instances of strong sentiment. Schoolcraft relates that a noble-minded girl, named Oolaita, being attached to a young chief of her own tribe, was commanded by her parents to marry an old warrior, renowned for his wisdom and influence in the nation. She left her father's house while the marriage-feast was preparing, and throwing herself from an awful precipice, was dashed to pieces. A Sioux Helen caused a division of that nation. Ozalapaila, the wife of one of the chiefs, having been carried off by another leading warrior of the same tribe, and the husband and brothers of the woman having been slain in the attempt to recover her, the quarrel gradually extended from the friends of the two parties to the whole nation, and ended in a fierce civil war.

Drunkenness has been a great curse to the race. An Indian who had been brought up in Minisink, near the Delaware water-gap, to whom the German inhabitants of that neighborhood had given the name of Cornelius Rosenbaum, told Mr. Heckewelder that he had once, when under the influence of strong liquor, killed the best Indian friend he had, fancying him to be his worst avowed enemy. He said that the deception was complete, and that the face of his friend presented to his intoxicated eyes all the features of the man with whom he was in a state of hostility. It is impossible to express the horror with which he was struck when he awoke from that delusion; he was so shocked, that he resolved from that moment never more to taste the maddening poison, of which he was convinced the devil was the inventor; for it could only be the evil spirit that made him see his enemy when his friend was before him, and produced so strong a delusion on his bewildered senses that he actually killed him. From that time until his death, which happened thirty years afterward, he never drank a drop of ardent spirits, which he always called "the devil's blood," and was firmly persuaded that the devil, or some of his inferior spirits, had a hand in preparing it.

INGOUR, a river rising in the Caucasus, and falling into the Black Sea. Omar Pacha, marching to the relief of Kars, crossed this river with 10,000 men, Nov. 6th, 1855, and attacked the Russians, 12,000 strong, encamped on the left bank, who after a struggle retreated with the loss of 400 men. Kars, however, was not saved.

INKERMANN, BATTLE OF. The Russians sallied from Sebastopol, and attacked the British at Inkermann, before daybreak, Nov. 5th, 1854. The British fought desperately, but being far outnumbered by the attacking force, were only saved by the arrival of a French division. The contest was most bloody. Sir George Cathcart was among the British slain.

INNSBRUCK, or INNSBRUCK, the capital of the Tyrol, situated on the Inn. Population, 13,000. The valley in which it stands was the scene of several of the events that took place during the heroic resistance made by the Tyrolese to the French and Bavarians in 1809.

INQUISITION. The Inquisition, or Holy Office, as it is called, was an institution of the Catholic church, established in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and other Romanist countries, to try persons accused of holding opinions contrary to those received by the church. The members of this jurisdiction were called inquisitors, because, without any proof of a person's guilt, they seized him upon common report, and investigated his conduct, they themselves deciding upon his guilt or innocence.

There is some controversy about the origin of the Inquisition, but it is allowed that Pope Innocent III. first gave rise to the Holy Office. While this man was at the head of the Catholic church, the Albigenses of France, who refused to embrace the monstrous doctrines of the Roman Catholic church, were persecuted and hunted like wild beasts. It was in the beginning of the thirteenth century, that Pope Innocent sent Pierre de Castelman, Archdeacon of Maguelonne, and Rainier, another priest, to stir up a spirit of zeal and persecution against the heretics. Dominic, a famous Spaniard, founder of the order of Preachers, fell in with the messengers of the pope in the year 1206, and labored, with energy, to put an end to the heresy, as any opinion different

from the doctrines of the church was called. These priests inquired into the conduct of the princes, and other men in power, toward the heretics, and from the scrutiny to which they subjected suspected persons were called inquisitors. They had no court and no decisive authority, being mere spies of the pope. St. Dominic is said to have founded the first regular tribunal at Toulouse. Innocent III. signified his approbation, and authorized the establishment in the year 1215. Gregory IX. gave the institution into the hands of the Dominicans.

So cruel were the proceedings of the Inquisition, that even Catholics endeavored to prevent its establishment in different countries; but Spain, a country famous for its devotion to the Catholic religion, and for its ignorance, became its chosen seat. The Spanish Inquisition is always spoken of with horror and indignation. In Spain it was first introduced in 1478. The first inquisitor-general and the first court were constituted in 1481. The kings of Castile, before they were crowned, took an oath that they, as well as their subjects, should be under the power of the Holy Office, as it was impiously called. The inquisitors received their power from the pope's mouth, or by means of letters, and he alone had power to remove them from office.

Nothing could be more horrible than the proceedings of the inquisitors. Without being permitted to know who accused him, a man was suddenly seized; his dearest friends abandoned him at once, none daring to speak to him. From the midst of the luxuries of life, he was hurried to a loathsome dungeon. Upon the slightest pretense, the torture was applied, and many an innocent person, in the pangs of death, was forced to accuse himself. The very advocate who plead for them was in terror of the Inquisition, and completely in its power; the slightest sentence he uttered, which could possibly be turned against him, was enough to place him also in danger of life.

There were two classes of punishments, the ecclesiastical or religious punishments, and the civil. The ecclesiastical punishments were excommunication, loss of a Christian burial in consecrated ground, and loss of all right to hold offices. As civil punishments, the inquisitors disinherited the children of the criminal; that is, declared that if their father

died a heretic, they, although Catholics, should not hold any of his property. They also pronounced the sentence of infamy, which deprived a man of all his property, of all right to hold an office, and of all power, even over his children and servants. Criminals were also imprisoned. They incurred the ban, or curse, by which they lost all the rights of a human being, were driven out of all society, and might be falsely accused, beaten, and robbed, without any hope of getting redress. In fact, if any lawyer defended them against an accusation, he was pronounced infamous and deprived of office.

The last and most frightful punishment was that of being burned alive, sometimes with an iron gag in the mouth, which prevented the agonized sufferer from uttering an intelligible cry. Often, however, while burning, they were left at liberty to speak, and supplicated for mercy in a manner which would have moved any but the hardest-hearted to pity; and yet the pitiless inquisitors dared to say that their actions found favor in the eyes of Heaven.

The tortures to which the inquisitors put the accused, to make them confess their guilt, were dreadful. The tortures were of five kinds. First, their being threatened with the torture; second, their being carried to the place of torture; third, their being stripped and bound; fourth, their being hoisted on the rack; fifth, squassation, in which the limbs were all disjointed.

Squassation was thus performed. The prisoner's hands being tied behind his back, heavy weights were attached to his feet, and he was hoisted up by a rope, until his head touched the pulley. Hanging in this awful situation for some time, his limbs and joints became stretched frightfully; and when suddenly let to fall, the fall being checked by the rope before he touched the ground, all his limbs were disjointed. The horrible pain he now felt was increased by the immense weight hanging at his feet. The Inquisition inflicted squassation, when determined on, once, twice, or even three times in the space of an hour. What could the poor wretch enjoy of life, if he gained his liberty at length?

When we examine farther into the annals of the Inquisition, humanity shudders. Lovely and innocent women had their delicate frames

torn to pieces by the racks of these monsters, because they refused to acknowledge that as the true religion which sanctioned such enormities. Such were the torments inflicted upon Jane Bohorques and her attendant, a young Protestant girl. They were afterward burnt at the *auto da fê*, or act of faith.

These acts of faith, when a large number of the condemned were often collected to suffer at once, were always held upon festival days. The procession issued from the halls of the Inquisition, the Dominican friars, with the standard of their order, coming first. On one side their flag had the picture of Saint Dominic, on the other the motto, "Justice and Mercy"! After these came the penitents, all in sleeveless black coats, with lighted wax tapers, and barefooted. Those who had narrowly escaped burning, followed next in order, with flames pointing downward painted on their coats. The relapsed came next, with habits covered with flames pointing upward. Lastly marched those who were peculiar enemies to the Romish doctrines; their habits were covered with flames, pointing upward, and on their breasts they bore a likeness of themselves, in the act of being devoured by wild beasts and serpents.

At Lisbon, the place where they were burned was the Ribera, containing as many stakes as there were condemned criminals, surrounded with furze. The stakes of the professed, as they were called, were about four yards high, with a seat for the prisoner upon a board, within a yard of the top. The negative and relapsed prisoners were first strangled and burned; the professed then ascended the ladder with a Jesuit upon each side, who exhorted them to confess their sins and return to the Romish church. If they refused, the priests descended the ladder, and the executioner chained them to the stake. After an interval the priests again ascended, and if the prisoners proved still obstinate, they were forsaken, and the spectators called out, "Let the dogs' beads be made!" The operation alluded to was performed by thrusting poles, having flaming bunches of furze at the end, against the faces of the criminals. These were generally held against them until their faces were burnt to a coal, the whole proceeding eliciting shouts of approbation and joy.

After this the furze at the foot of the stake

was fired, and, in general reached no higher than the knees of the condemned, so that they were literally roasted to death. In a calm they might die in half an hour; in a high wind seldom under two hours.

In ancient times, the Spaniards thought the entertainment afforded by the horrid spectacle of an *auto da fê*, equal to that derived from a bull-fight or a dance. In honor of Elizabeth, the new queen, daughter of Henry II. of France, a girl of thirteen, one was held in 1560, in which, not content with burning some human beings, they consumed a few effigies.

Napoleon abolished this terrible Inquisition, and this just exercise of power should be remembered when many of his crimes are brought to view. When Ferdinand was restored, by the success of Napoleon's opponents, to the Spanish throne, he re-established it. The Cortes swept it away in 1820. There never was another institution of such dreadful cruelty, nor one in which the laws of religion and mercy were so daringly defied, under pretense, too, of vindicating morality and pure piety.

If the Inquisition, in modern days, was less bloody than formerly, we are to attribute it, not to the spirit of the institution, but to the increase of light, which will finally, we trust, put an end to all abuses.

IONIA, a district of Asia Minor, peopled by a migration from Attica about B.C. 1044. Ionia was divided into twelve small states, which formed a celebrated confederacy often spoken of by the ancients. These states were Priene, Miletus, Colophon, Clazomenæ, Ephesus, Lebedos, Teos, Erythræ, Phocæa, Smyrna, and the capitals of Samos and Chios. After they had enjoyed, for some time, their freedom and independence, they were made tributary to the power of Lydia by Cræsus. The Athenians assisted them to shake off the yoke of the Asiatic monarchs, but they soon forgot their duty and relation to their mother country, and joined Xerxes when he invaded Greece. They were delivered from the Persian yoke by Alexander, and finally were reduced by the Romans under Sylla. Smyrna, unchanged in name, and prosperous in commerce, alone remains, and is the most important city in Asia Minor.

IONIAN ISLANDS, the collective name of a group west of Greece, comprising Cephallonia (the ancient Cephallenia), Corfu (Corcyra), Santa Maura (Leucas), Zante (Zakynthos), Cerigo (Cythera), Ithaca, and Paxo. They were long a republic under English "protection," but were re-united to Greece on the accession of the present king, George I. Population, 227,000. Corfu is their capital.



IOWA has an area of 50,914 square miles; population in 1860, 674,948. Her domain lies in the embrace of the two largest rivers of our country, navigable far beyond her limits. The interior is traversed by lesser, but noble and

often navigable rivers, the Des Moines, Iowa, Red Cedar, Boyer, Nodaway, Nishnabotna, &c. Heavy timber groves skirt the numerous streams, and frequent clumps dot the landscape on every hand, like islands in the prairie.

rie sea. The face of the country is a rolling prairie, fertile and virgin, varied with the luxuriant river valleys and much prized timber lands. Valuable lead mines occur in the neighborhood of Dubuque; coal is largely diffused through the state; extensive beds of gypsum are found in Webster county; and iron and copper have been discovered to some extent. Wheat and corn are the staple productions of Iowa; tobacco is grown in the western section to some extent; the soil is well adapted for any of the productions common to the temperate zone, especially to raising fruit.

Until 1832 Iowa was a wilderness, in the hands of the Indians. The wave of emigration broke across the Mississippi, upon its smiling valleys and prairies; in 1838 it was organized as a territory; and in 1846 it became a sovereign state and member of the Union. By the constitution, every white male citizen of the United States, twenty-one years old (idiotic, insane, or infamous persons excepted), who has resided in the state six months, and in the county twenty days, has the right of suffrage. The sessions of the general assembly are biennial: the senators are chosen for four years, one-half biennially, and the representatives for two years. The governor is elected biennially. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, consisting of a chief-justice and two associates, chosen by the general assembly for six years; in district courts, the judges of which are elected for five years by the people of the respective districts; and in justices of the peace. Liberal support has been provided for common schools and academics. The Iowa State University is located at Iowa City; normal schools have been provided; common schools nurture the youth of every hamlet; and a deaf-mute asylum, and an institution for the blind, both at Iowa City, care for those unfortunate classes. In this matter of education the Hawkeye state is surpassed by none of her sisters in the great North-west.

Des Moines City (formerly called Fort Des Moines) is the capital of Iowa. A frontier fort was erected here at an early day. The town was laid out in 1846, and in 1856, the year it was made the capital, had some 2,500 inhabitants. Iowa City, the former seat of government, was laid out in 1839, and in

1856 had 5,500 inhabitants. Davenport is built on the broad bottom land of the Mississippi, opposite Rock Island; tasteful dwellings extending up the beautiful bluffs, and into the prairie beyond; population in 1853, 4,500. Burlington, called the oldest town in the state, stands lower down the Mississippi. As an instance of the rapid growth of Iowa, shared by all her towns and hamlets, we may say that in 1850 Burlington had 2,000 dwellers: in 1856 its population was 16,000, and thrift and wealth had gained proportionally. Dubuque, on the Mississippi, in the heart of the great lead region, is one of the largest and finest towns in the state, standing on a natural terrace, bounded on the west by a range of high bluffs, whose summits command a landscape of varied beauty. Dubuque had its name from M. Dubuque, a Frenchman who obtained a grant from the Spanish government for mining lead here. It was the first European settlement in Iowa, dating to 1786. The population in 1860 was 13,000. Keokuk, at the mouth of the fertile valley of the Des Moines, is another of the progressive cities of Iowa, with a population of over 10,000.

IPSUS, BATTLE OF. Seleucus was confirmed upon his throne by the defeat and death of Antigonus in this contest, B.C. 301. On the one side were Antigonus and his son; on the other Seleucus, Ptolemy, Lysimachus, and Cassander. The former led into the field an army of above 70,000 foot and 10,000 horse, with 75 elephants. The latter's forces consisted of 64,000 infantry, besides 10,500 horse, 400 elephants, and 120 armed chariots.

IRELAND, the second in size of the British islands, has an area of 32,508 square miles; population in 1861, 5,764,543. The surface of Ireland is less rugged than that of Scotland, and more varied and undulating than that of England. Its freshness and verdure have gained it the poetical name of the Emerald Isle. Its ancient name was Erin, and by the Romans it was known as Hibernia. It is divided into four provinces, Ulster, Leinster, Connaught, and Munster, which are subdivided into thirty-two counties. The executive government is administered by a viceroy, whose official title is lord lieutenant general and general governor of Ireland. The judiciary is similar to that of England.

There are two ecclesiastical provinces, whose primates are the Archbishop of Armagh and the Archbishop of Dubhn. There are ten suffragan bishops. The Roman Catholic dignitaries are the four archbishops of Armagh, Dublin, Cashel, and Tuam, with twenty-five bishops.

Dublin, the metropolis of Ireland, is situated on both sides of the Liffey, as it enters Dublin Bay. It is a beautiful city; the public buildings are of stone, and few cities contain an equal number of magnificent edifices. The University of Dublin, or Trinity College, founded by Queen Elizabeth in 1593, is a well endowed institution. Population of Dublin in 1861, 249,783. Cork, the second city of Ireland, situated on the Lee, with a population in 1851 of 167,450, is a large and flourishing place, and was built by the Danes in the sixth century. After the revolution of 1688 it was occupied by James II.; it was taken by Marlborough in 1690. The harbor of Cork is one of the noblest in the world. Belfast (population in 1851, 125,491) is the chief town in the province of Ulster, and the principal place of trade in Ireland. Linens, damasks, diapers, and cottons are actively manufactured. The town had its origin in the early part of the seventeenth century. Limerick, on the Shannon, had in 1851, 53,448 inhabitants. It is a place of great antiquity, supposed by some to be the Regia of Ptolemæus, and was a place of some note in the fifth century when visited by St. Patrick.

There are no serpents or other venomous reptiles in Ireland; St. Patrick is said to have driven them all into the sea. At the lake of Killarney, the peasants still preserve the following ludicrous tradition. When the labors of St. Patrick were drawing to a close, there was one enormous serpent who sturdily refused to emigrate, and baffled the attempts of the good saint for a long time. He haunted the romantic shores of Killarney, and was so well pleased with his place of residence, that he never contemplated the prospect of removing without a deep sigh. At length St. Patrick, having procured a large oaken chest, with nine strong bolts to secure its lid, took it on his shoulder one fine sunshiny morning, and trudged over to Killarney, where he found the serpent basking in the sun. "Good

morrow to ye!" said the saint. "Bad luck to ye!" replied the serpent. "Not so, my friend," replied the good saint; 'you speak unwisely; I'm your friend. To prove which, haven't I brought you over this beautiful house as a shelter to you? So be aisy, my darlint." But the serpent, being a cunning reptile, understood what blarney meant, as well as the saint himself. Still, not wishing to affront his apparently friendly visitor, he said, by way of excuse, that the chest was not large enough for him. St. Patrick assured him that it would accommodate him very well. "Just get into it, my darlint, and see how aisy you'll be." The serpent thought to cheat the saint; he whipped into the chest, but left an inch or two of his tail hanging out over the edge. "I told you so," said he; "there's not room for the whole of me." "Take care of your tail, my darlint!" cried the saint, as he whacked the lid down on the serpent. In an instant the tail disappeared, and St. Patrick proceeded to shoot all the bolts. He then took the chest on his shoulders. "Let me out!" cried the serpent. "Aisy," cried the saint; "I'll let you out to-morrow." So saying, he threw the box into the waters of the lake, to the bottom of which it sank to rise no more. But forever afterward, the fishermen affirmed that they heard the voice of the poor cozened reptile eagerly inquiring, "Is to-morrow come yet? Is to-morrow come yet?"

The early history of Ireland is involved in great obscurity, and it is impossible to distinguish fact from fiction in the tales of its early historians. Some of them trace the line of ancient kings to antediluvian time, and one commences his annals with the creation of Adam, and has a chapter recounting the invasions of Ireland before the deluge. According to one legend, fifty women and three men under the lead of Banba, a daughter of Cain, took possession of Ireland before the flood. They lived in the country forty years, until a plague came upon them and destroyed the whole colony in a single week. Others assert that three Spanish fishermen, having accidentally discovered Ireland, went home for their wives, and on their return to the island were overtaken by the deluge and drowned. According to a third authority, Bith, a son of Noah, having been denied admission to th-

ark, forsook the God of his father, and with several others had recourse to an idol. The idol could not tell them when the deluge would take place; but, following its advice, they built a ship and put to sea. After having been tossed for seven years and a quarter, through adventures as various as those of Ulysses or Eneas, they landed at Cork. The party consisted of three men and fifty women. The former divided the latter among them, and settled in different parts of the island. Two of the men died, and their wives came to the third, who fled before them out of Leinster, leaving his favorite wife to die of grief. These things happened six days before the deluge. The learned and reverend historian makes the following judicious remarks: "The reader must observe that I do not give down these invasions or occupations as true history. I have recounted them here, merely because I found them mentioned in ancient books; and, moreover, I can not conceive how our antiquaries could have obtained these accounts of persons that arrived in Ireland before the flood, if it were not from those aerial demons who were their family followers in pagan times, or unless they had found them engraved upon some rocks, that remained after the flood had subsided. I do not, however, insist that there might not have existed, at the time of St. Patrick's coming to Ireland, some very old and venerable man, who had lived through many centuries before that time, and that this man gave that apostle an account both of everything he remembered himself and of all the traditions he had received from his ancestors concerning the past ages. I do think that there was some such kind of personage in those times, who had lived more than three hundred years, and who related many ancient traditions to St. Patrick."

The same writer (Dr. Geoffrey Keating) accounts for the absence of serpents in Ireland by a legend of high antiquity, the scene of which is in Egypt. A serpent chanced to bite Gaedal Niul's son while he was swimming, and his life was endangered thereby. Niul followed the advice of his household and brought the boy to Moses without delay, who prayed to God and touched the wound with his rod, and it was immediately healed. He

then affirmed that no venomous creature should have power in any country wherein the posterity of that youth should dwell. "And this prophecy has been fulfilled in the isle of Crete or Candia, where some of his posterity remain, in which island, as in Ireland, no venomous serpents can exist; for although, according to some authors, we have had some serpents in Ireland before St. Patrick's time, I am yet of opinion that they were not venomous. I am likewise inclined to think that infernal demons are meant by those serpents spoken of in the life of St. Patrick."

It is supposed that the Phœnicians reached Ireland in their voyagings. The Irish are of Celtic descent. The island suffered from incursions of the Danes. Brian Boiroimhe, a valiant and renowned prince, defeated them at Clontarf in 1039, and was assassinated in his tent the same night, while in the act of prayer. Strongbow (the surname of the Earl of Pembroke), at the request of Dermot McMorrogh, a dethroned king of Leinster, invaded Ireland in 1169; a great part of the island was soon conquered by the English, who by degrees became masters of the whole country, though rebellions were frequent. A parliament was summoned at Dublin, May 1st, 1536, which declared Henry VIII. the supreme head on earth of the church of Ireland, and annulled the papal power. Every person who refused to take the oath of supremacy, was declared guilty of high treason. But, to resist the royal usurpations, confederacies were formed, and the reformation was rendered so odious to the Irish that it made slow progress among them. Though the liturgy of the church of England was performed for the first time on Easter Sunday, 1551, the bulk of the nation still adhered steadfastly to their ancient faith, and the cause of the Romish religion became the cause of the nation. The attempts to force a people to renounce the faith which they had received from St. Patrick, and to receive a new system of religion with an English ritual, naturally became blended with the national prejudices against English oppression. A general system of rebellion to shake off the English yoke was organized in Ireland about 1596; the most formidable of the rebel chiefs was O'Neil, who, disdaining the title of Earl

of Tyrone, had assumed the rank and appellation of King of Ulster, and received a supply of arms and ammunition from Spain. This rebellion was finally terminated by the submission of O'Neil.

The conduct of James I. in 1601 estranged the affections of the Irish, and, during the reign of Charles I., a rebellion broke out which deluged the country in blood. The Catholics plotted the extirpation of the English. Parliament sent Cromwell into the island, and his unsparing measures reduced it to obedience; twenty thousand Irishmen were sold as slaves, and forty thousand entered into foreign service to escape from tyranny at home.

On the death of the great protector, Richard Cromwell confirmed his brother Henry in the government of Ireland, by the new title of lord lieutenant. Henry exerted himself with vigor to support the tottering authority of his brother; but, after the abdication of Richard, Charles II. was proclaimed with every manifestation of joy in all the great towns of Ireland. On the accession of James II. to the throne of England, the Duke of Ormond gave place in the government of Ireland to the Earl of Clarendon. The cruel Earl of Tyrconnel was appointed commander-in-chief of the army, and made independent of the lord lieutenant. This, and other proceedings in favor of the Catholics, alarmed the Protestant part of the kingdom, and most of the traders, and those whose fortunes were transferable, fled from the country. The distracted state of this unhappy kingdom, at the period of the revolution in 1688, can hardly be described. The Protestants in the north proclaimed William and Mary. James, who had sailed from Brest, with a large armament, landed at Kinsale, in March, 1689. He was opposed by an English army commanded by William in person. A dreadful civil war took place, but at length the battle of the Boyne, on the 1st of July, 1690, decided the fate of James, who fled to France. The Irish subjects outlawed for the rebellion of 1688, amounted to 300,978, and their Irish possessions comprised 1,600,000 acres. In 1796 the injured Irish, denied the enjoyments of their dearest rights, and condemned to political disability on account of professing

the Catholic religion, once more rebelled. The French favored them, but only a small French force ever landed, and they surrendered to the superior army of Cornwallis. The insurgents, being excluded from all quarters, fled, and were pursued with great slaughter. On the 1st of January, 1801, the union of Great Britain with Ireland was effected. The political disabilities of the Catholics were removed in 1829, but still the condition of Ireland was unhappy.

One cause of the distresses of Ireland was absenteeism, the absence in England of great landed proprietors, whose estates were underlet by rapacious agents that ground the poor tenants without mercy. In spite of religious intolerance and civil disqualifications; of statutes which rendered commerce a crime, and laws which made industry penal; of abuses of power under William, and of taxes quadrupled under the last of the Stuarts and the first of the Brunswicks,—still something like a counterpoise was found to balance these political evils, in the home residence of the educated gentry, and in the political bustle and activity of an Irish parliament. As soon as the positive calamities of war and confiscation ceased; as soon as an approach was made to European habits and policy, and industry was permitted to find a scope and a reward for its exertions,—the nation made a sudden and a rapid progress in civilization and comfort, simply through the efficiency of its own resources, and the demands of its own market. It was in vain that the talismanic words 'Irishmen' and 'Papist' were employed to arm passion and prejudice against the country; it was in vain that commercial jealousy threw shackles round its infant manufactures. In spite of these and many other obstacles, the moral strength of a country always distinguished for the natural endowments of its population, rose superior to the cruel pressure of its political inflictions; and the domestic activity and intellectual improvement of the people—slow and limited as they appear, when compared with the advances of the sister kingdom—proceeded with a rapidity little short of miraculous, under so stultifying a system of legislation and government. It was then that the light of national genius concentrated its long scattered

rays to a point, and shining steadily from its proper focus, threw out those inextinguishable sparks of moral lustre,

"which are wont to give
Light to a world, and make a nation live."

It was then that the powerful collision of active, ardent, and energetic minds produced that brilliant burst of talent which, for something more than a century, flung over the political darkness of the land a splendor to which her struggles and her misfortunes served only to give a stronger relief and more brilliant effect. It was then that, after ages of mental depression, the Irish intellect broke out, like the Irish rebellion, "threescore thousand strong," when none expected or were prepared for the splendid irruption. The old mart of learning was re-opened to the erudite of Europe, as in those times when, if a sage was missing, it was said "*emandatus est ad disciplinam in Hibernia*;" and the rich stream of native humor, which, like a caverned river, had hitherto "kept the noiseless tenor of its way," darkened by impending shadows, now rushed forth with the rapidity of a torrent, pure, sparkling, and abundant, at the first vent afforded to its progress.

The legislative union with Great Britain has been very unpopular with Irish patriots, and from 1829 to 1847 a great movement, headed by Daniel O'Connell, agitated for its repeal. In 1847 and the two successive years, a disease blighted the potato crop, and the twin curses of pestilence and famine brooded over the hapless island. Revolution was the cry on the continent, and an abortive insurrection was planned in Ireland. The leaders, Smith O'Brien, John Mitchell, Thomas Francis Meagher, Terence McManus, and others, were sentenced to death; a fate commuted by the crown to transportation, from which they have all escaped or have been pardoned.

By an act of 1849, a commission for the sale of encumbered estates was appointed, whose operations have been highly beneficial, and promise much improvement in the social condition of the Irish people. Large domains have been transferred from bankrupt proprietors, who groaned under irredeemable mortgages and had no capital to employ labor, to the hands of competent and progressive landlords, of whom a large proportion are skillful cultivators from England and Scot-

land. The tendency will be to lessen the evil of absenteeism, and thus do away with the middle-men, who have formed one standing and regular Irish grievance. It was the common method in Ireland to extort the last farthing which the tenant was willing to give for land rather than quit it, and the machinery by which such a practice was carried into effect, was that of the middle-man. He gave high prices, that he might obtain higher from the occupant; more was paid by the actual occupant than was consistent with the preservation of the land; it was injured, ran out, and the most shocking consequences ensued from it. There was little manufacture in Ireland; the price of labor was low; the demand for labor irregular. If a poor man was driven, by distress of rent, from his potato garden, he had no other resource; all was lost; he would do the impossible (as the French say) to retain it—subscribe any bond, and promise any rent. The middle-man had no character to lose; and he knew when he took up the occupation that it was one with which pity had nothing to do. On he drove, and backward the poor peasant receded, losing something at every step, till he came to the very brink of despair; and then he recoiled and murdered his oppressor, and was a White Boy, or a Right Boy; and the soldier shot him, and the judge hanged him.

IRENÆUS, St., was a native of Asia Minor, and a pupil of Polycarp. He is supposed to have come to Gaul, while a young man, and died at Lyons, of whose church he was bishop, about the close of the second century.

IRETON, HENRY, the son-in-law of Cromwell, and a distinguished parliamentary general, was lord deputy of Ireland during the commonwealth. He died at Limerick in 1651, aged forty-one.

IRON MASK. The Man in the Iron Mask was the most singular prisoner ever confined within the walls of the Bastille; notwithstanding all the curiosity and conjecture that have been employed to ascertain his quality and pedigree, nothing authentic has transpired to the present time. In 1698 he was brought from the island of St. Marguerite by Mons. de St. Mars, the newly appointed governor of the Bastille; he was attended with the greatest respect, maintained a sumptuous

table, and had every possible indulgence shown him until the time of his death, Nov. 19th, 1703. This mysterious prisoner, on his removal to the Bastille, was carried in a litter, accompanied by several men on horseback, who had orders to put him to death, if he made the slightest attempt to show his face or otherwise discover himself. His face was concealed with a mask of black velvet, with springs of steel or whalebone, which were so constructed that he could eat without taking it off. A physician of the Bastille, who had often attended him, said he had never seen his face, though he had frequently examined his tongue and other parts of his body; but added that he was admirably well made, that his skin was brown, his voice interesting, that he was very accomplished, read much, played on the guitar, and had an exquisite taste for lace and fine linen.

The pains taken in his concealment show that he was a person of considerable quality and importance, and from the following circumstances it appears singular that he was never discovered. Whilst at St. Marguerite, he one day wrote something with his knife on a silver plate, which he threw from the window toward a boat lying near the tower. A fisherman took up the plate and brought it to the governor, who, with great astonishment, asked the man if he had read the writing or showed it to any one, and, although the fisherman answered in the negative, kept him in confinement until he was perfectly satisfied, after which he dismissed him, saying, "It is lucky for you that you can not read." The Abbé Papon says: "In the year 1778 I had the curiosity to visit the apartment of this unfortunate prisoner: it looks toward the sea. I found in the citadel an officer in the independent company there, seventy-nine years of age. He told me that his father had often related to him that a young lad, a barber, having seen one day something white floating on the water, took it up; it was a very fine shirt, written almost all over. He carried it to Mons. de St. Mars, who, having looked at some parts of the writing, asked the lad, with an appearance of anxiety, if he had not had the curiosity to read it? He assured him he had not; but two days afterward the boy was found dead in his bed."

Immediately after the prisoner's death, his apparel, linen, clothes, mattresses, and everything that had been used by him, were burnt; the walls of his room were scraped, the floor was taken up, and every precaution used that no trace of him might be left behind. When he was on the road from St. Marguerite to his last residence, Mons. de St. Mars, was overheard to reply to a question of the prisoner, relative to any design against his life: "No, prince, your life is in safety; you must only allow yourself to be conducted." A prisoner told M. la Grange Chancel that he was lodged, with other prisoners, in the room immediately over this celebrated captive, and found means of speaking to him by the vents of the chimney; but he refused to inform them who he was, alleging that it would cost him his own life, as well as the lives of those to whom the secret might be revealed.

Various have been the individuals supposed to have been the masked prisoner: the Duc de Beaufort; the Count de Vermandois, natural son to Louis XIV. by the Duchess de la Valliere; the Duke of Monmouth, natural son of Charles II. of England; Gerolami Magni, minister of the Duke of Modena; the offspring of a secret marriage between Anne of Austria and Cardinal Mazarin, &c., &c. Voltaire says that the secret was known to Monsieur de Chamillard, and that the son-in-law of that minister conjured him on his death-bed to tell the name of the man with the mask; but he replied it was a state secret, which he had sworn he would never divulge.

The supposition now generally received is that this unfortunate person was the twin brother of Louis XIV., born eight hours after this monarch, and the unhappy victim of superstition and cruelty. Louis XIII., being weak enough to give credit to the prediction of some impostors, that if the queen should be delivered of twins, the kingdom would be involved in civil war, ordered the birth of this prince to be kept a profound secret, and had him privately educated in the country as the illegitimate son of a nobleman; but on the accession of Louis XIV., the young man gave indications of having discovered his parentage. His brother being informed of this, ordered him to be imprisoned for

life, and to wear a mask in order to prevent his being recognized.

ISABELLA of CASTILE was born in 1450. Civil dissensions made her the heiress and successor of her brother Henry, whose daughter Joanna was set aside. Of the many suitors for her hand, the King of Portugal, the Duc de Guienne, brother of Louis XI. of France, the Duke of Clarence, brother of Edward IV. of England, and Don Ferdinand, the heir of Arragon, she chose the latter, and was united to him in 1474. By this match nearly the whole Christian dominions of Spain were united in one monarchy. It was through the generous patronage of Isabella that Columbus was enabled to set sail on that momentous voyage from which he landed upon the strand of a virgin hemisphere. Isabella died in 1504.

ISMAIL, a strongly fortified town in Russia, in Bessarabia, on the north side of the Danube, thirty-three miles from the Black Sea. It is memorable for its siege, in 1790, by the Russians under Suwarrow. It was taken by a terrible assault, on the 23d of December. Of the Turks 30,000 were massacred in cold blood; 6,000 women were butchered, and the town was fired. The Russians lost 5,000 men on the day of capture, and more than twice that number in previous operations.

ISSUS, BATTLE OF, the second great defeat of Darius by Alexander, 333 B.C. The queen and family of the Persian monarch were taken by the Macedonians.

ITALY. The present kingdom was formed by the adhesion of one part of the country after another to the government of Victor Emanuel. This movement commenced even before the peace of Villa Franca, which was finally signed at Zurich, Nov. 10, 1859. Tuscany, on the 15th of the previous August, had declared for the new kingdom; Modena on the 20th, Parma Sept. 3d. The first Italian parliament met at Turin, Feb. 18, 1861, and on the 28th enacted the new title of King of Italy. The British government recognized the new Kingdom in March. In 1864, Florence was made the capital instead of Turin. The area of the kingdom of Italy is 98,075 square miles, and its population, in 1862, was 21,776,953.

Italy has borne, at different periods, the

different names of Saturnia, Ænotria, Hesperia, Ausonia, Tyrrhenia. It has been called the garden of Europe; and the panegyric which Pliny bestows upon it does not seem in any degree exaggerated. The ancient inhabitants called themselves Aborigines, offspring of the soil, and the country was soon after peopled by colonies from Greece. Italy has been the mother of arts as well as of arms, and the immortal monuments which remain of the eloquence and poetical genius of its inhabitants, are universally known. The early part of the history of this country, is, however, involved in the greatest obscurity. The first light thrown on this land of darkness was by the settlement of Greek colonies in the south, where, eventually, a large tract of country was called Magna Græcia. The early history of Italy is linked with the annals of Rome.

Italy continued subject to one power, for more than eight hundred years, until the fifth century, when the Goths crossed the barriers of the Alps. Toward A.D. 560 the Longobards entered the north of Italy, took Milan and Pavia, and founded a kingdom which continued during two centuries, until overthrown by Charlemagne. After his death Italy belonged to his successors on the imperial throne, but their tenure was precarious; the great barons laboring to assert their independence, and the popes to extend their temporal dominion. The subsequent history is little more than a succession of military struggles, of little interest, until 960, when Otto I. repaired, in person, to the north of Italy, granted municipal rights to the cities, and improved the interior government in general. The whole was united to the German empire; but from this compact fresh feuds and commotions followed: the Italian nobility were jealous of their privileges; conspiracies were formed, detected, and suppressed, and no constant alligiance was exhibited to the German government, or the magistracy put into authority by it. A series of wars continued for several ages. In the fourteenth century, Italy was divided into the kingdom of Naples, the estates of the Church, Tuscany, Parma, and Lombardy, the Genoese and the Venetian territories, and other petty states. For two centuries the Venetians and Genoese were

the most considerable commercial people in Europe. Venice, in particular, possessed large foreign colonies; and, in 1194, she took Constantinople and held in sovereignty portions of what now constitutes Turkey in Europe and Greece. The foundation of the temporal power of the popes was laid about 1080, by Matilda, Countess of Tuscany, who bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to Gregory VII. After that time the popes successively made great acquisitions of territory: but, in 1798, Rome was taken by Berthier, and Bonaparte annexed the papal dominions to France. They were, however, restored in 1814. Napoleon made many changes in the states of Italy, but after his fall the former condition was restored. [*See* NAPLES, SARDINIA, TUSCANY, &c.]

ITURBIDE, AUGUSTUS, was born in 1784. When Mexico threw off the Spanish yoke, he was the commander of the royal army in

the north. He declared for the independence of the Mexican people, and the Spaniards being driven forth, succeeded in making himself emperor in 1822. Anarchy made his rule not quite imperial; he abdicated in March, 1823, his divorced empire promising him an affluent alimony, and he agreeing to dwell in Italy. Unsatisfied ambition led him back to Mexico in 1824; the congress declared him an outlaw, and he was shot a few days after his arrival.

IVRY, or YVRES, BATTLE OF, between Henry IV. of France, aided by his chief nobility, and the generals of the Catholic league, over whom the king gained a signal victory. This success enabled Henry to blockade Paris, and reduce that capital to the last extremity by famine; but the Duke of Parma, by orders of Philip of Spain, marched to the relief of the league, and obliged the king to raise the blockade.

J.

JACKSON, ANDREW, was the seventh president of the United States. His ancestors were of the Presbyterian faith, and among the Scotch emigrants to the province of Ulster in Ireland, under the policy of James I., who stocked the confiscated estates of the Irish with colonists from England and Scotland. Hugh Jackson, the grandfather of Andrew, was a linen-draper near Carrickfergus; his four sons were reputable farmers, and the youngest of them, Andrew, married Elizabeth Hutchinson, by whom he had in Ireland two sons, Hugh and Robert. To improve his condition, he emigrated to America, in company with several of his neighbors, in 1765, and settled on Waxhaw Creek, just within the limits of North Carolina, where others of his countrymen had formed a settlement and reared a meeting-house. At a later period, Samuel, a son of another of the brothers, came over, and became a citizen of Philadelphia.

On this plantation, in Mecklenburg county, N. C., Andrew Jackson saw the light, March

15th, 1767, only five days before the eyes of his father were closed in death. A few weeks after, the widow, with her orphan boys and new-born babe, removed into South Carolina and made her home at another point on the Waxhaw. There was spent the infancy and early youth of the future hero. The lone mother's means were slender, but she longed to see her youngest son a minister of the gospel, and he was early placed in a neighboring academy. He was making fair progress in his studies, when the Revolution broke out, and South Carolina soon became a theatre of war. His elder brother, Hugh, lost his life in the fatigues of service against the foe. A battle was fought at Waxhaw settlement in May, 1780, in which 113 Americans were killed and 150 wounded. Waxhaw meeting-house was converted into a temporary hospital, and there the wounded were borne. The mangled corpses of slaughtered patriots recalled to the youth that looked upon them, the tales of British cruelty and wrong he had so often heard from his mother,



JACKSON AT THE HERMITAGE.

as she related scenes of tyranny in Ireland, from which his father had fled to find an asylum in the Carolinas.

In the summer of 1780, then a boy of little more than thirteen, he shouldered a musket, and with his brother Robert joined a corps of volunteers attached to Gen. Sumter's brigade. An action took place August 6th, 1780, at a place called Hanging Rock, between the Americans and British soldiers aided by Tories. Davie's corps, in which the young Jacksons fought, distinguished itself and suffered heavy loss; but the brothers were unhurt.

For several months the region between the Great Pedee and Saluda rivers was the stage of hot warfare. Andrew and Robert were too young to mingle in all the dangers and hardships of partisan life. The settlers about the Waxhaw were firm republicans by birth and spirit, and were special marks for British hate. Mrs. Jackson retired with her sons

into North Carolina for some time. In 1781 both of the boys were captured by a party of dragoons. Andrew was ordered by a Tory officer to clean his muddy boots; the boy-soldier proudly refused, and parried with his left arm a sword-stroke murderously aimed at his head. His hand was wounded, and he bore the scar for life. Robert was ordered to perform the same menial office, and upon a refusal as prompt as his brother's, the brutal major gave him a sword-cut upon the head, from the effect of which he never recovered. With other prisoners, the youths were confined some time in Camden, where they suffered severely, from their undressed wounds, from ill treatment, and from the small pox, which raged among the prisoners. Their mother hurried to Camden; by an exchange of prisoners, her sons were yielded to her, hardly more than mere wrecks of their former selves. With five released neighbors, the widow and her boys started for their home

on the Waxhaw. For the company there were but two horses. Mrs. Jackson rode one, without saddle or bridle, and on the other the weak and wounded Robert was borne. Andrew, not yet recovered from the small-pox, barefooted and half-naked, trudged on foot the weary way of forty miles. Two hours before reaching home, a heavy rain drenched the party, and the disease left the skin of the boys to pervade their systems. Robert lived but two days; for a fortnight Andrew was delirious with a raging fever, and lingered upon the brink of death. Not long after his recovery, his noble mother died from a fever contracted on the prisonships at Charleston, whither she had gone to nurse and tend the victims who were there suffering and dying.

Andrew Jackson was thus left alone on the earth. For some time he was wayward and dissolute in his habits, till suddenly changing his course of life, he commenced the study of law, at Salisbury, N. C. This was in the winter of 1784, in his eighteenth year; in little more than two years he was licensed to practice. Without asking, he received from the governor the appointment of solicitor for the western district, embracing the present state of Tennessee. In the spring of 1788, then just of man's age, he crossed the mountains to take up his abode. The country was wild and sparsely settled, the white man having to struggle boldly and bloodily with the fierce savage. Jackson was engaged in several expeditions against the Indians; his bravery attracted their notice, and they gave him the names of *Sharp Knife* and *Pointed Arrow*.

After dwelling awhile at Jonesborough, he determined to make Nashville his home, and there boarded in the pleasant family of Mrs. Donelson, the widow of Col. Donelson, an emigrant from Virginia. Rachel, the daughter of Mrs. Donelson, was celebrated for her beauty and affability. She was then in the bloom of early womanhood. She had been wedded to Captain Robards, a dissolute and brutal man, and had sought sanctuary from his cruel treatment under her mother's roof. Alarmed by a rumor that he was coming to Nashville, she left there in the spring of 1791, with the family of a friend, and went down the river to Natchez. Jackson accom-

panied the party as a protector against the dangers of the journey. When he returned to Nashville he learned that Capt. Robards had applied to the legislature of Virginia for a divorce, and was credibly informed that the prayer had been granted. He at once hastened to Natchez with the welcome tidings. He had admired Rachel Donelson before; and now that she was free to marry, and love for her was not illicit, his regard at once warmed into ardent affection. His suit was accepted; in the autumn they were married. In December, 1793, Jackson was startled to learn that the Virginia legislature did not grant a divorce, but only authorized a suit to be brought in a Kentucky court. That suit had just terminated and the divorce had been granted. In January, 1794, Jackson was again regularly married. His conduct was ever singularly delicate and chivalrous toward woman, and when partisan rancor tried to asperse him, those who were familiar with the circumstances of this case, vindicated his conduct as perfectly honorable and virtuous.

He now applied himself assiduously to his profession. The prodigal debtors, with whom he came in contact in the collection of debts, clubbed together to drive him from the country. He flinched not, and their animosity brought upon him several personal encounters, in which he was uniformly victorious. His nerve, strength, and agility were qualities to win him the liking of the hardy frontiersmen of Tennessee, and after assisting in 1796 to form a state constitution, he was chosen the first representative of the new commonwealth in Congress. He served one session, and then, having been chosen senator by the legislature, took that seat Nov. 22d, 1797. Unambitious of political distinction, he resigned his seat in the senate after one session, went back to Tennessee, and was made judge of the supreme court of the state, a post which he held some six years.

For some years, he tasted the retirement which he had so long desired, devoting his time to the pursuits of agriculture. In 1802 he had been appointed major-general of the militia of Tennessee. When the war with Great Britain came in 1812, he was called into the field. The expedition against the Creeks, who had been stirred to hostility

by emissaries in the interest of England, was conducted by him with eminent success. In May, 1814, he received a commission as major-general in the regular army. The threatened descent of the British upon Louisiana soon drew his attention to that quarter; the measures which through his energy were adopted for resistance and defense, were crowned with victory upon the field of Chalmette, Jan. 8th, 1815, when backwoods marksmen and tough cotton-bales proved more than a match for veterans who had been victorious in the Peninsula and the great fight of Waterloo.

Gen. Jackson took his seat in the senate of the United States, as senator from Tennessee, in December, 1823. He was a prominent candidate for the presidency in 1824, and in 1828 and 1832 was elected to that high office. His administration was marked by a fierce contest with the United States bank. At the close of his second term, he retired to his favorite residence, at the Hermitage in Tennessee, where he passed the remnant of his days. He died on the 8th of June, 1845. His countrymen, throughout the land, joined in testimonies of respect to his memory.

JACKSON, JAMES, an officer in our Revolutionary army, was born in England in 1757, and settled in Georgia in 1772. He was engaged in the attack on Savannah, when but nineteen years old, and a few years afterward was chosen brigade-major in the Georgia militia. After the close of the war, throughout which he displayed great gallantry and prudence, he commenced the practice of law, and in 1788 he became a member of the legislature. In 1788 he was chosen governor of Georgia, but modestly declined the honor on account of his youth and inexperience. He held the post, however, from 1798 to 1801. He was afterward chosen United States senator, and died in Washington, March 19th, 1806.

JACOBINS. The Jacobin club originated in 1789, from a secret association of about forty gentlemen and men of letters, who had united to discuss and disseminate political and other opinions; they were called Jacobins because they met in the hall of the Jacobin friars at Paris. The club became numerous and popular; fraternal societies were founded in all the principal towns of the kingdom; and the share of the Jacobins in

the ensuing revolution need not be told here. The club law of Oct. 16th, 1794, gave the death-blow to the Jacobin club.

JACQUARD, MARIE JOSEPH, the inventor of the celebrated loom, was born at Lyons in 1752, and died in 1834.

JAFFA, anciently Joppa, a seaport of Syria, twelve leagues north-west of Jerusalem; populatio. 4,000. It was taken by Bonaparte in 1799. His soldiers suffered terribly here from the plague.

JAMAICA is the largest and most important of the West India islands belonging to Great Britain. It is about 150 miles long, and 40 broad. It is less fertile than some others of the West Indies, but is a rich and valuable country. It is subject to earthquakes. Sugar, rum, molasses, indigo, coffee, pimento, and ginger are the most valuable articles of export. The present population is about 380,000, of whom 15,000 are whites. The island was discovered by Columbus, May 3d, 1494. In 1655 it was taken from the Spanish by the English under the command of Admiral Penn and General Venables. In 1795 a war commenced between the Maroons, the runaway slaves of the Spanish settlers, and the white inhabitants; the barbarous expedient of using bloodhounds being resorted to, for the purpose of tracing the mountain haunts of the negroes, they were at last compelled to surrender at discretion.

Spanish Town, or Santiago de la Vega, is the seat of the colonial legislature. Kingston is the largest town in the island; population over 35,000. Port Royal, once the capital, has been often and severely smitten by earthquakes, hurricanes, and flames.

JAMES I., King of Scotland, was born in 1394. At the age of eleven years, he was sent to France, that he might escape the danger to which he was exposed from the ambition of his uncle, the Duke of Albany; but, falling into the hands of the English, he and his retinue were confined in England, where, however, the young prince received an excellent education. His talents were of a high order. Washington Irving has given an interesting account of him in the *Sketch Book*, which we condense.

I visited the ancient keep of the castle [at Windsor], where James I. of Scotland, the pride and theme of Scottish poets and histo-

rians, was for many years of his youth detained a prisoner of state. It is a large gray tower, that has stood the brunt of ages, and is still in good preservation. It stands on a mound which elevates it above other parts of the castle, and a great flight of steps lead into the interior. In the armory, which is a Gothic hall, furnished with weapons of various kinds and ages, I was shown a coat of armor hanging against the wall, which I was told had once belonged to James. From hence I was conducted up a staircase to a suite of apartments of faded magnificence, hung with storied tapestry, which formed his prison, and the scene of that passionate and fanciful amour, which has woven into the web of his story the magical hues of poetry and fiction.

The whole history of this amiable but unfortunate prince is highly romantic. The intelligence of his capture, coming in the train of many sorrows and disasters, proved fatal to his unhappy father. The news, we are told, was brought to him while at supper, and did so overwhelm him with grief, that he was almost ready to give up the ghost into the hands of the servants that attended him. But being carried into his bed-chamber, he abstained from all food, and in three days died of hunger and grief at Rothesay.

James was detained in captivity above eighteen years; but, though deprived of personal liberty, he was treated with the respect due to his rank. He was well taught, we are told, to fight with the sword, to joust, to tourney, to wrestle, to sing and dance; he was an expert mediciner, right crafty in playing both of lute and harp, and sundry other instruments of music, and was expert in grammar, oratory, and poetry.

In prison he wrote "The King's Quhair" (Book). The subject of the poem is his love for the Lady Jane Beaufort, daughter of the Earl of Somerset, and a princess of the blood royal of England, of whom he became enamored in the course of his captivity. His passion for the Lady Jane, as it was the solace of his captivity, so it facilitated his release, it being imagined by the court that a connection with the blood royal of England would attach him to its own interests. He was ultimately restored to his liberty and crown, having previously espoused the Lady

Jane, who accompanied him to Scotland, and made him a most tender and devoted wife.

He found his kingdom in great confusion, the feudal chieftains having taken advantage of the troubles and irregularities of a long interregnum, to strengthen themselves in their possessions, and place themselves above the power of the laws. James sought to found the basis of his power in the affections of his people. He attached the lower orders to him by the reformation of abuses, the temperate and equable administration of justice, the encouragement of the arts of peace, and the promotion of everything that could diffuse comfort, competency, and innocent enjoyment through the humblest ranks of society. He mingled occasionally among the common people in disguise; visited their firesides; entered into their cares, their pursuits, and their amusements; informed himself of the mechanical arts, and how they could be best patronized and improved; and was thus an all-pervading spirit, watching with a benevolent eye over the meanest of his subjects. Having in this generous manner made himself strong in the hearts of the common people, he turned himself to curb the power of the factious nobility; to strip them of those dangerous immunities which they had usurped; to punish such as had been guilty of flagrant offenses; and to bring the whole into proper obedience to the crown. For some time they bore this with outward submission, but with secret impatience and brooding resentment. A conspiracy was at length formed against his life, at the head of which was his own uncle, Robert Stewart, Earl of Athol, who, being too old himself for the perpetration of the deed of blood, instigated his grandson, Sir Robert Stewart, together with Sir Robert Graham, and others of less note, to commit the deed. They broke into his bed-chamber at the Dominican convent near Perth, where he was residing, and barbarously murdered him by oft-repeated wounds. His faithful queen, rushing to throw her tender body between him and the sword, was twice wounded in the ineffectual attempts to shield him from the assassin; and it was not until she had been forcibly torn from his person, that the murder was accomplished.

This tragedy was acted Feb. 20th, 1437.

When the footsteps of the ruthless assassins were heard approaching the door of the royal apartment, Catharine Douglas, one of the queen's ladies, secured it for a moment, by thrusting her arm through the staple, and sustaining, with unwavering fortitude, the shocks of the assailants, till her arm was broken and the door forced.

The sentiments with which Mr. Irving concludes his sketch of James, are best conveyed in his own beautiful language. "Others may dwell on the illustrious deeds of James as a warrior and a legislator; but I have delighted to view him merely as the companion of his fellow-men, the benefactor of the human race, stooping from his high estate to sow the sweet flowers of poetry and song in the paths of common life. He was the first to cultivate the vigorous and hardy plant of Scottish genius, which has since been so prolific of the most wholesome and highly flavored fruit. He carried with him into the sterner regions of the north, all the fertilizing arts of southern refinement. He did everything in his power to win his countrymen to the gay, the elegant, and gentle arts, which soften and refine the character of a people, and wreath a grace round the loftiness of a proud and warlike spirit. * He wrote many poems, which, unfortunately for the fullness of his fame, are now lost to the world; one which is still preserved, called 'Christ's Kirk of the Green,' shows how diligently he had made himself acquainted with the rustic sports and pastimes which constitute such a source of kind and social feeling among the Scottish peasantry, and with what simple and happy humor he could enter into their enjoyments. He contributed greatly to improve the national music; and traces of his tender sentiment and elegant taste are said to exist in those witching airs still piped among the wild mountains and lonely glens of Scotland. He has thus connected his image with whatever is most gracious and endearing in the national character; he has embalmed his memory in song, and floated his name down to after ages in the rich stream of Scottish melody. The recollection of these things was kindling at my heart, as I paced the silent scene of his imprisonment. I have visited Vauluse with as much enthusiasm as a pilgrim would visit the shrine at Loretto; but I have never felt more

poetical devotion than when contemplating the old tower and the little garden at Windsor, and musing over the romantic loves of the Lady Jane and the royal poet of Scotland."

JAMES VI. of Scotland and I. of England. [See STUART, HOUSE OF.]

JAMES II. of England. [See STUART.]

JANE, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, born in 1482, became mother of the emperors Charles V. and Ferdinand I. The death of her husband, Philip, Archduke of Austria, affected her reason; she became insane in 1506, and remained so to her death, 1555, forty-nine years.

JANIZARIES. These formidable foot-soldiers, at first the guards of the Ottoman monarchs, and for a long time the arbiters of their fate, were finally broken up in 1826, the date of their last rebellion, when three thousand of them were slain. They were established by Amurath I., and originally consisted of the finest Christian slaves, educated in the Mohammedan religion and arms. When first formed, this new militia was consecrated in the presence of the sultan, by a dervish, who, standing in the front of their ranks, stretched the sleeve of his gown over the head of the foremost soldier, and delivered his blessing in these words: "Let them be called Janizaries [*yengi cheri*, or new soldiers]; may their countenances be ever bright, their hand victorious, their swords keen; may their spear always hang over the heads of their enemies; and, wheresoever they go, may they return with a white face." *White and black face* are common and proverbial expressions of praise and reproach in the Turkish language.

JANUS, a deity believed by the Romans to have the double office of opening and shutting the gate of heaven. He was represented with two faces. His temple at Rome was built in the form of a square, and was opened in time of war, and shut in time of peace. It was shut only twice in seven centuries; in the reigns of Numa and Augustus.

JAPAN, an empire to the east of China, composed of a great number of islands. The principal are Nippon, Kioosioo, and Sitkokf. The Japanese have nominally two emperors; one is the supreme pontiff, and oracle of religion, and the other a secular emperor, who is invested with absolute au-

thority. The latter's residence is at Jeddo, a large city, the capital of the empire, in the island of Nippon. The Japanese are enterprising, hardy, and enlightened. The soil is fertile, and agriculture has attained great perfection. The silks, cottons, porcelain, lacquered wares, &c., are in high repute. The area of the Japanese empire is estimated by some at 160,000, and by others at 260,000 square miles. Of its population there is no more certain knowledge, some calling it 25,000,000, and others carrying it to double that amount.

The jealous restrictions upon intercourse with foreigners have preserved this insular empire as a *terra incognita*. The Dutch have long been allowed to trade at the port of Nagasaki. In 1619 ambassadors are said to have come from Japan to do homage to Pope Paul as the head of the church, for their master had been won to the Christian faith by the preaching of Jesuit missionaries. The ambition of the Jesuits, and the intrigues of the jealous Dutch, caused the expulsion of the former in 1622. Commodore Perry, with an American squadron dispatched for the purpose, visited Japan in 1853 and 1854, and concluded a commercial treaty, by which a few ports are partially opened to American ships. The British obtained similar concessions in October, 1854.

JASPER, WILLIAM, was distinguished for gallantry in the Revolutionary war. June 28th, 1776, in the celebrated attack of Sir Peter Parker on Fort Moultrie, he replaced, in the midst of an iron rain, the American flag after it was shot away by a cannon-ball. He, with the aid of Sergeant Newton, waylaid, surprised, and captured a British guard of eight men, releasing an American of the name of Jones, whom they were conducting to certain death at Savannah. This extraordinary exploit was performed within about two miles from the British lines. Brave Sergeant Jasper was killed in the attack on Savannah, Oct. 9th, 1779.

JAVA, a large island in the eastern seas, 642 miles long, and 128 broad. In 1849 the population amounted to 9,560,000, of whom not more than 20,000 were of European descent. Java was discovered by the Portuguese in 1510. But the Dutch obtained their possessions, and the island was divided between them and the native princes. There

are many volcanic peaks. The island is exceedingly fertile, producing rice, cotton, coffee, pepper, sugar, drugs of all kinds, and various fruits. The coffee of this island is renowned. There are also mines of gold, rubies, diamonds, and emeralds. In 1811 the island was taken by the British, but it was restored by the treaty of Paris in 1814. The natives are much oppressed, and have several times revolted. The Dutch now have the sovereignty of all the island. Batavia, a city and seaport on the north coast near the western end, is the capital of all the Dutch East Indies: lon. 106° 54' E.; lat. 6° 12' S. Population 118,000. The Dutch founded the city in 1619, and after being taken by the British in 1811, it was restored to the Dutch in 1816. The bay would be good if it were easily accessible. The old town is built on a low marshy foundation, at the junction of small rivers, and some of the canals in the streets contain stagnant water. Hence originates the intermittent fever, so frequently fatal to strangers. A new town has arisen on the elevated ground farther inland. Batavia once had an immense trade, and the name of Queen of the East, but the British have outrivaled the Dutch in the traffic of the Indies, and Batavia has declined accordingly. The quarter of the native population is exceedingly mean, while the European houses are neat rather than elegant.

JAY, JOHN, an American statesman and jurist, was born of Huguenot ancestry, in the city of New York, Dec. 1st, 1745, o.s., and was educated at King's (now Columbia) College. In 1768 he was admitted to practice law, and in 1774 was chosen a delegate to the first provincial congress which met at Philadelphia. Two years afterward he was chosen president of Congress. In 1778 he was chosen chief-justice of New York, the constitution of which he had been instrumental in framing. The next year he was sent on a mission to Spain, to procure aid and a recognition of our independence. In 1782 he was one of the commissioners appointed to negotiate a treaty of peace with Great Britain. On his return, Mr. Jay was placed at the head of the department for foreign affairs, in which office he continued until appointed chief-justice of the United States. In 1794 he was sent as envoy extraordinary to Great



MONTICELLO.

Britain, and on his return the next year entered on the duties of office of governor of the state of New York, to which he had been elected during his absence. From this station he retired to private life in 1801. He died May 17th, 1829. Our country has no purer patriot than John Jay in her list of worthies.

JEFFERSON, THOMAS. The family of Jefferson were among the early emigrants from Great Britain. Thomas, the third president of the United States of America, was born at Shadwell, Virginia, April 2d, 1743, o.s. His father, Peter Jefferson, a man of some distinction in the colony, died in 1757, leaving a widow (who lived until 1776) with two sons and six daughters. Of the handsome paternal estate, Thomas, the eldest child, received the lands he called Monticello, on which he resided when not in public life. He spent two years at William and Mary's College, and then commenced the study of the law, which he was admitted to practice in 1767.

By birth Mr. Jefferson belonged to the aristocracy of Virginia; by nature he was a republican; and he espoused with all his might the popular cause against the encroachments of Britain. In 1769 he took his seat in the general assembly of Virginia, which

the governor of Virginia dissolved. Mr. Jefferson, before that event, had made an effort for the emancipation of the slaves of Virginia. He was then elected to fill the place of Peyton Randolph in Congress, and assumed his seat in that body, June 21st, 1775. He was one of the committee appointed to draw up a declaration of independence, and that document, with few alterations, was his own composition. His seat in Congress he resigned, because he felt that he could be more useful in organizing the republican government of Virginia. Among the laws proposed by him, and adopted by the commonwealth, were those prohibiting the future importation of slaves; for abolishing primogeniture, and providing for the equal partition of inheritances; for establishing religious freedom; and for a system of general education; which last, however, was never carried into practice in the state. June 1st, 1779, he was chosen governor of Virginia, but after two years he resigned, being of opinion that a military man would be better suited for the emergencies of the times.

Mr. Jefferson was the author of our present system of coins and decimals, proposing it in 1784; another scheme was favored by Robert Morris. On the 5th of July, 1784,

Mr. Jefferson sailed for Paris, having been appointed by Congress a third commissioner to negotiate treaties of commerce with other nations, Mr. Adams and Dr. Franklin being the other two. He was actively engaged until 1789, when he returned to the United States and was appointed secretary of state. Dec. 1st, 1790, he resigned this office, and lived in retirement until 1797, when he was chosen vice-president of the United States. In 1801 he was chosen president. He filled the office of chief magistrate for eight years, when he retired to his seat at Monticello, where he died on the 4th of July, 1826, the same day, on which Mr. Adams expired.

Mr. Jefferson made himself known as an author in 1781, by his "Notes on Virginia." In private life he was hospitable, and pleasing in his manners; in public, the unyielding, sagacious and talented leader of the Republican party. A monument of his regard for education remains in the university established at Charlottesville, in which he filled the office of rector for some years. In a private memorandum, he desired that a small granite obelisk might be raised above his ashes, with this inscription:

Here was buried

THOMAS JEFFERSON,

Author of the Declaration of Independence,
Of the Statute of Virginia for Religious Freedom,
and

Father of the University of Virginia.

In January, 1772, he married Mrs. Martha Skelton, a young widow, the daughter of Mr. John Wayles. She died in 1782, leaving three daughters, one of whom died young; one married John W. Eppes, and the other Gov. Thos. M. Randolph, both of Virginia. Mrs. Randolph survived her father.

The following sketch of Mr. Jefferson's personal appearance and habits is condensed from Randall's painstaking biography. His appearance was engaging. His face, though angular, and far from beautiful, beamed with intelligence, with benevolence, and with the cheerful vivacity of a happy, hopeful spirit. His complexion was ruddy, and delicately fair; his reddish chestnut hair luxuriant and silken. His full, deep-set eyes, the prevailing color of which was a light hazel, were peculiarly expressive. He stood six feet two and a half inches in height, and though very

slim at this period, his form was erect and sinewy, and his movements displayed elasticity and vigor. He was an expert musician, a fine dancer, a dashing rider, and there was no manly exercise in which he could not play well his part. His manners were unusually graceful, but simple and cordial. His conversation already possessed no inconsiderable share of that charm which, in after years, was so much extolled by friends, and to which enemies attributed so seductive an influence in moulding the young and the wavering to his political views. There were a frankness, earnestness, and cordiality in its tone; a deep sympathy with humanity; a confidence in man, and a sanguine hopefulness in his destiny,—winning irresistibly upon the feelings, not only of the ordinary hearer, but of those grave men whose commerce with the world had perhaps led them to form less glowing estimates of it. Mr. Jefferson's temper was gentle, kindly, and forgiving. If it naturally had anything of that warmth which is the usual concomitant of affections and sympathies so ardent,—and it no doubt had,—it had been subjugated by habitual control. Yet, under its even placidity, there were not wanting those indications of calm self-reliance and courage which all instinctively recognize and respect. There is not an instance on record of his having been engaged in a personal rencontre, or his having suffered a personal indignity. Possessing the accomplishments, he avoided the vices, of the young Virginia gentry of the day, and a class of habits which, if not vices themselves, were too often made the preludes to them. He never gambled. To avoid importunities to games which were generally accompanied with betting, he never learned to distinguish one card from another; he was moderate in the enjoyments of the table; to strong drinks he had an aversion which rarely yielded to any circumstances; his mouth was unpolled by oaths or tobacco! Though he speaks of enjoying "the victory of a favorite horse," and the "death of the fox," he never put but one horse in training to run; never ran but a single race; and he very rarely joined in the pleasant excitement of the chase: he knew it to be too pleasant for the aspiring student. With such qualities of mind and character, with the favor of powerful friends and relatives, and

even of viceroyalty to urge him onward, Mr. Jefferson was not a young man to be lightly regarded by the young or old of either sex.

Of his singular precision, down to minute details, and his habit of careful observation, Randall gives many instances. Never was there a more methodical man, from great matters down to the merest seeming trifles; never so diligent a recorder of them! In his garden book, for example, the times of planting, sprouting, coming to the table, or ripening of his multitude of esculents are severally noted; the plots of ground containing them, the rows of plants, and sometimes the separate plants in each row, are numbered; diagrams, as neatly drawn as engravings, present the different plots or beds collectively to the eye, and display their annual rotations. Meteorological observations, recorded punctually at three different periods of the day, extend through a long course of years, and through some of the busiest ones of his life. The pocket account-books include the minutest items of his daily expenditure, down to two or three pennies paid for a shoestring, or tossed into a beggar's hat in Paris; and we think we remember one or two entries of a single penny, to make the inexorable cash-book balance exactly! The object of the disbursement is generally specified. Account-books kept thus present a curious history of a man's life; and Mr. Jefferson's tell where he went, and what he bought, every day for thirty years. When he is away from home, his monthly expenses are often tabularized, so as to separately exhibit the aggregate expenditure for each principal article; as for meat, bread, wine, &c.; and this is habitually done where official position required him to keep an extensive establishment. He makes memoranda of minute economical facts of every description. Those in regard to farming and gardening are innumerable. Even household details do not escape his attention. We often find how much of this or that it will take to supply the wants of a person or family; how much oil will supply a lamp for a certain number of hours; comparative cost of lamps and candles, &c., &c.

In everything pertaining to natural history, we have a series of almost microscopic observations. We will name one, which, in what may be termed the department of economic-

natural history (a department in which he seems to have specially delighted), exhibits something which it is hard, at the first blush, to define. This is a table beautifully drawn up, giving the average earliest and latest appearance of thirty-seven varieties of vegetables in the Washington market during the whole eight years of his presidency! To think of a leader of a great civil revolution, the founder of a new party and creed, the statesman engaged in the pressing cares of a nation, watching with a green-grocer's assiduity, and recording with more than a green-grocer's precision, the first and last appearance of radishes, squashes, cabbages, and cauliflowers in the market, suggests a curious train of reflection.

He observed the rule of entering information under appropriate heads, in regard to all facts thought worthy of record. Thus his agricultural observations are ultimately arranged under seventeen general heads, and these divided into upward of fifty subdivisions. Everything, even to his expense accounts, has a paged index, made by himself. We look in vain for an illegibly scrawled word or figure; though we find him on one occasion making all his entries, for two or three months, with his *left* hand, owing to a broken wrist.

JEFFREY, FRANCIS. This brilliant reviewer was the son of a respectable Scottish attorney, born at Edinburgh in 1772, and educated at Glasgow and Oxford. He was called to the Edinburgh bar in 1794, and remained several years an advocate with little practice. He was one of the band of youth who sat at the feet of Dugald Stewart, and whose first incentives to distinction in the more difficult paths of knowledge, as well as their almost universal adoption of the liberal school of politics, were in some degree attributable to the teachings of that distinguished man. Among them were Brougham and Horner. One day early in 1802, in the eighth or ninth story, or flat, then the elevated residence of Jeffrey, he was visited by Horner and Sydney Smith, the latter a young curate temporarily resident in Edinburgh, preaching, teaching, and joking with a flow of wit, humanity, and sense, that fascinated everybody. Smith started the notion of the "Edinburgh Review," and was immediately voted its editor by the two Scotchmen. The pro-

ject was communicated to others of the literary knot, among others Henry Brougham, then as brilliant and erratic as his subsequent life has shown him. The project hung fire at first; those who promised to contribute were slow at fulfilling: Jeffrey had nearly finished four articles, Horner had partly written four, and more than half the number was printed; and yet well nigh the other half had still to be written. The memorable 'blue and yellow' at last appeared in November, after a somewhat tedious gestation of ten months. Sydney Smith was the only one who had promptly done his task: as early as April he had completed more than half of what he contributed, while nobody else had put pen to paper; and shortly after the number appeared, he was probably not sorry to be summoned, with his easy pen and cheerful wit, to London, abandoning the cares of editorship to Jeffrey. To this place of honor Jeffrey's articles in the first number proved his right. Under his management the "Edinburgh Review" at once became a new power in literature. The freshness, originality, boldness, and independence of its criticisms, on literature, science, and government, and the beauty, brilliancy, and strength which characterized its contents, gave it a splendid success. Nothing of the kind had ever been: it opened a new era in criticism. It was also famous as a political journal, and did powerful battle for the liberal school of English politics, for the Whigs against Toryism. So much was its power feared that in 1809 the "Quarterly Review" was started in London by the Tories as a necessity against it.

Of course mistakes were made. Jeffrey's memorable criticism upon Wordsworth, commencing "This will never do," was contradicted by time. The Edinburgh reviewers at the outset were young men, and their sallies could not but be blemished with some indiscretions. The influence of the review upon the literature of England was sound and healthy. As a biographer of Jeffrey has said: "Nothing could be conceived more charming than the earnest, playful, delightful way in which his comments adorned and enriched the poets he admired. Hogarth is not happier in Charles Lamb's company, than is the homely vigor and genius of Crabbe

under Jeffrey's friendly leaning; he returned fancy for fancy to Moore's exuberance, and sparkled with a wit as keen; he 'tamed his wild heart' to the loving thoughtfulness of Rogers, his scholarly enthusiasm, his pure and vivid pictures; with the fiery energy and passionate exuberance of Byron, his bright, courageous spirit broke into earnest sympathy; for the clear and stirring strains of Campbell he had an ever lively and liberal response; and Scott, in the midst of many temptations to an exercise of severity, never ceased to awaken the romance and generosity of his nature." Mr. Jeffrey was both editor and contributor to the review, poetry and elegant literature being his chosen field.

Not only did he distinguish himself in letters; he acquired a brilliant reputation in his profession. In 1821 and 1822 he was chosen lord rector of the university of Glasgow; and in 1829, being elected dean of the faculty of advocates, he resigned his editorship, deeming that position properly incompatible with his new one as the head of a great law corporation. The Whigs coming into power the following year, he was made lord advocate, the first office under the crown in Scotland, and sat for a time in parliament. Although in this new sphere he was both useful and able, it was not his natural element, and he gladly accepted in 1834 a promotion to the Scottish bench, as one of the judges of the court of sessions. This was in his sixty-second year, and for nearly sixteen years he continued the chief ornament of the court in which he sat. From this appointment he gained the title of lord, by which he was thereafter commonly known. He died in January, 1850, after a short illness, a genial, kindly man to the last, and was universally regretted. His was a youth of enterprise, a manhood of brilliant success, and 'honor, love, obedience, troops of friends' encircled his later years.

Lord Jeffrey was twice married. His second wife, a grand-niece of the noted John Wilkes, was born in America, and he crossed the Atlantic in 1813 to be wedded to her. She survived him not quite four months.

JEFFREYS, GEORGE, Baron Wren, was born at Acton in Denbighshire, in 1648. He was not regularly admitted to the bar, but being at Kingston assizes in the year of the

plague, 1666, when there were scarcely any barristers present, he was permitted to plead, and from that time continued to do so, without having his title questioned. In 1683 he was made chief-justice of the king's bench. At the accession of James II., he was created Baron Jeffreys of Wem, in the county of Salop. On the suppression of the Duke of Monmouth's rebellion, he was sent to try the prisoners in the west, where he committed the most shocking cruelties, for which, at his return, he was constituted lord chancellor of England. Macaulay has thus searchingly sketched the character of this notorious judge.

He was a man of quick and vigorous parts, but constitutionally prone to insolence and to the angry passions. When just emerging from boyhood, he had risen into practice at the Old Bailey bar, a bar where advocates have always used a license of tongue unknown in Westminster Hall. Here, during many years, his chief business was to examine and cross-examine the most hardened miscreants of a great capital. Daily conflicts with prostitutes and thieves called out and exercised his powers so effectually that he became the most consummate bully ever known in his profession. All tenderness for the feelings of others, all self-respect, all sense of the becoming, were obliterated from his mind. He acquired a boundless command of the rhetoric in which the vulgar express hatred and contempt. The profusion of maledictions and vituperative epithets which composed his vocabulary could hardly have been rivaled in the fish-market or the bear-garden. His countenance and his voice must always have been unamiable; but these natural advantages—for such he seems to have thought them—he had improved to such a degree that there were few who, in his paroxysms of rage, could see or hear him without emotion. Impudence and ferocity sat upon his brow. The glare of his eyes had a fascination for the unhappy victim on whom they were fixed; yet his brow and eye were said to be less terrible than the savage lines of his mouth. His yell of fury, as was said by one who had often heard it, sounded like the thunder of the judgment day. These qualifications he carried, while still a young man, from the bar to the bench.

He early became common sergeant, and then recorder of London. As judge at the city sessions he exhibited the same propensities which afterward, in a higher post, gained for him an unenviable immortality. Already might be remarked in him the most odious vice which is incident to human nature, a delight in misery merely as misery. There was a fiendish exultation in the way in which he pronounced sentence on offenders. Their weeping and imploring seemed to titillate him voluptuously; and he loved to scare them into fits by dilating with luxuriant amplification on all the details of what they were to suffer. Thus, when he had an opportunity of ordering an unlucky adventurer to be whipped at the cart's tail, "Hangman," he would exclaim, "I charge you to pay particular attention to this lady! Scourge her soundly, man! Scourge her till the blood runs down! It is Christmas; a cold time for madam to strip in! See that you warm her shoulders thoroughly!" He was hardly less facetious when he passed judgment on Ludowick Muggleton, the drunken tailor who fancied himself a prophet. "Impudent rogue!" roared Jeffreys, "thou shalt have an easy, easy, easy punishment!" One part of this easy punishment was the pillory, in which the wretched fanatic was almost killed with brickbats.

The nature of Jeffreys had been hardened to that temper which tyrants require in their worst implements. He had hitherto looked for professional advancement to the corporation of London. He had therefore professed himself a Roundhead, and had always appeared to be in a higher state of exhilaration when he explained to popish priests that they were to be cut down alive, and were to see their own bodies burned, than when he passed ordinary sentences of death. But, as soon as he had got all that the city could give, he made haste to sell his forehead of brass and his tongue of venom to the court. The renegade soon found a patron in the obdurate and revengeful James, but was always regarded with scorn and disgust by Charles, whose faults, great as they were, had no affinity with insolence and cruelty. "That man," said the king, "has no learning, no sense, no manners, and more impudence than ten carted street-walkers." Work was to be

done, however, which could be trusted to no man who revered law or was sensible of shame; and thus Jeffreys, at an age at which a barrister thinks himself fortunate if he is employed to lead an important cause, was made chief justice of the king's bench.

His enemies could not deny that he possessed some of the qualities of a great judge. His legal knowledge, indeed, was merely such as he had picked up in practice of no very high kind; but he had one of those happily constituted intellects which, across labyrinths of sophistry and through masses of immaterial facts, go straight to the true point. Of his intellect, however, he seldom had the full use. Even in civil causes his malevolent and despotic temper perpetually disordered his judgment. To enter his court was to enter the den of a wild beast, which none could tame, and which was as likely to be roused to rage by caresses as by attacks. He frequently poured forth on plaintiffs and defendants, barristers and attorneys, witnesses and jurymen, torrents of frantic abuse, intermixed with oaths and curses. His looks and tones had inspired terror when he was merely a young advocate struggling into practice. Now that he was at the head of the most formidable tribunal in the realm, there were few indeed who did not tremble before him. Even when he was sober, his violence was sufficiently frightful; but, in general, his reason was overclouded, and his evil passions stimulated by the fumes of intoxication. His evenings were ordinarily given to revelry. People who saw him only over his bottle would have supposed him to be a man gross indeed, sottish, and addicted to low company and low merriment, but social and good-humored. He was constantly surrounded on such occasions by buffoons, selected for the most part from among the vilest pettifoggers who practiced before him. These men bantered and abused each other for his entertainment. He joined in their ribald talk, sang catches with them, and, when his head grew hot, hugged and kissed them in an ecstasy of drunken fondness. But, though wine at first seemed to soften his heart, the effect a few hours later was very different. He often came to the judgment seat, having kept the court waiting long, and yet having but half slept off his

debauch, his cheeks on fire, his eyes staring like those of a maniac. When he was in this state, his boon companions of the preceding night, if they were wise, kept out of his way, for the recollection of the familiarity to which he had admitted them inflamed his malignity, and he was sure to take every opportunity of overwhelming them with execration and invective. Not the least odious of his many odious peculiarities was the pleasure which he took in publicly browbeating and mortifying those whom, in his fits of maudlin tenderness, he had encouraged to presume on his favor.

When the Prince of Orange arrived, and James had abandoned his kingdom, Jeffreys, knowing his unpopularity, endeavored to escape in disguise. There was true retribution in his detection. A scrivener at Wapping, whose trade was to furnish the seafaring men there with money at high interest, had some time before lent a sum on bottomry. The debtor applied to equity for relief against his own bond, and the case came before Jeffreys. The counsel for the borrower, having little else to say, said that the lender was a Trimmer. The chancellor instantly fired. "A Trimmer! where is he? Let me see him. I have heard of that kind of monster. What is it made like?" The unfortunate creditor was forced to stand forth. The chancellor glared fiercely on him, stormed at him, and sent him away half dead with fright. "While I live," the poor man said, as he tottered out of the court, "I shall never forget that terrible countenance." And now the day of retribution had arrived. The Trimmer was walking through Wapping, when he saw a face at the window of an alehouse. The eye-brows had been shaved away; the dress was that of a common sailor from Newcastle, and was black with coal dust; but there was no mistaking the savage mouth and eye of Jeffreys. The alarm was given. In a moment the house was surrounded by hundreds of people shaking bludgeons and bellowing curses. The fugitive's life was saved by a company of the train-bands, and he was carried before the lord mayor.

The mayor was a simple man who had passed his whole life in obscurity, and was bewildered by finding himself an important

actor in a mighty revolution. The events of the last twenty-four hours, and the perilous state of the city which was under his charge, had disordered his mind and his body. When the great man, at whose frown, a few days before, the whole kingdom had trembled, was dragged into the justice room begrimed with ashes, half dead with fright, and followed by a raging multitude, the agitation of the unfortunate mayor rose to the height. He fell into fits, and was carried to his bed, whence he never rose. Meanwhile the throng without was constantly becoming more numerous and more savage. Jeffreys begged to be sent to prison. An order to that effect was procured from the Lords, who were sitting at Whitehall, and he was conveyed in a carriage to the Tower. Two regiments of militia were drawn out to escort him, and found the duty a difficult one. It was repeatedly necessary for them to form, as if for the purpose of repelling a charge of cavalry, and to present a forest of pikes to the mob. The thousands who were disappointed of their revenge pursued the coach, with howls of rage, to the gate of the Tower, brandishing cudgels, and holding up halters full in the prisoner's view. The wretched man, meantime, was in convulsions of terror. He wrung his hands; he looked wildly out, sometimes at one window, sometimes at the other, and was heard even above the tumult crying, "Keep them off, gentlemen! for God's sake, keep them off!" At length, having suffered far more than the bitterness of death, he was safely lodged in the fortress, where some of his most illustrious victims had passed their last days, and where his own life was destined to close in unspeakable ignominy and horror, April 18th, 1789.

JEMMAPES, BATTLE OF, in Flanders. In this obstinate contest, Nov. 5th, 1792, Gen. Dumouriez, with 40,000 French, defeated 28,000 Austrians strongly intrenched.

JENA, a town of Saxe-Weimar, containing a famous university, and 6,500 inhabitants, and memorable for the hard-fought battle between the French and Prussians, on the 14th of October, 1806. Napoleon headed the French troops, and the Duke of Brunswick the Prussians. The battle was sanguinary in the extreme; 250,000 or 300,000 men, of which the two armies were composed, with 700 or 800 pieces of artillery, scattered death

in every direction, and exhibited one of the most awful scenes recorded in history. The result was decisive in favor of the French. The Duke of Brunswick was mortally wounded. The power of Prussia was crushed, and Napoleon entered Berlin.

JENNER, EDWARD, the discoverer of vaccination, was born at Berkeley in Gloucestershire, May 17th, 1749, and bred to the profession of medicine. His celebrated discovery was made in 1798, but was incredulously received. Parliament at last voted him £10,000. Jenner died Jan. 26th, 1823. Napoleon valued Dr. Jenner's discovery so highly that he released a large number of English prisoners at his request.

JEROME, or HIERONYMUS, was born of Christian parents, in Dalmatia. He was deeply immersed in the theological controversies of the day, and his works were voluminous. He excelled all his contemporaries in erudition. His translation of the Scriptures into Latin is known as the Vulgate. Jerome died in 420, at the age of ninety.

JEROME OF PRAGUE, a Bohemian reformer, was the scholar of Wickliffe and John Huss, and began to publish their doctrines. In 1415 he was examined before the council of Constance, when Huss was in prison. He contrived, however, to escape, but was taken, delivered into the hands of a magistrate, and burned, May 30th, 1416.

JERUSALEM, a celebrated city of Palestine. Its environs are barren and mountainous, and the town is irregularly built. The number of inhabitants is 25,000, about one-half being Mohammedans, and a sixth Jews. There are many Roman and Greek convents in the city. The Church of the Holy Sepulchre has been an object of veneration and curiosity for fifteen centuries. The Mosque of Omar, on the site of the ancient Temple, is splendid edifice.

Melchisedek is called the founder of Jerusalem. It was a long time in the hands of the Jebusites, from whom King David took it. Solomon built the temple on Mount Moriah. After his death Sesostris, King of Egypt, took the city, and plundered it, during Rehoboam's reign. In short, it was five times taken. Its most memorable siege was that by Titus, A.D. 70, when the city and the temple were entirely destroyed; 1,110,000 persons are said to have

perished, and 97,000 to have been made prisoners, and afterward either sold as slaves, or wantonly exposed, for the sport of their cruel victors, to the fury of wild beasts.

Milman, the historian of the Jews, eloquently describes the destruction of the temple. An appalling spectacle to the Roman, what was it to the Jew? The whole summit of the hill which commanded the city blazed like a volcano. One after another the buildings fell in, with a tremendous crash, and were swallowed up in the fiery abyss. The roofs of cedar were like sheets of flame; the gilded pinnacles shone like spikes of red light; the gate towers sent up tall columns of flame and smoke. The neighboring hills were lighted up; and dark groups of people were seen watching in horrible anxiety the progress of the destruction: the walls and heights of the upper city were crowded with faces, some pale with the agony of despair, others scowling unavailing vengeance. The shouts of the Roman soldiery, as they ran to and fro, and the howlings of the insurgents who were perishing in the flames, mingled with the roaring of the conflagration and the thundering sound of falling timbers. The echoes of the mountains replied, or brought back the shrieks of the people on the heights: all along the walls resounded screams and wailings; men who were expiring with famine, rallied their remaining strength to utter a cry of anguish and desolation. The slaughter within was even more dreadful than the spectacle from without. Men and women, old and young, insurgents and priests, those who fought and those who entreated mercy, were hewn down in indiscriminate carnage. The number of the slain exceeded that of the slayers. The legionaries had to clamber over heaps of dead, to carry on the work of extermination. John, at the head of some of his troops, cut his way through, first into the outer court of the temple, afterward into the upper city. Some of the priests upon the roof wrenched off the gilded spikes with their sockets of lead, and used them as missiles against the Romans below. Afterward they fled to a part of the wall about fourteen feet wide; they were soon summoned to surrender; but two of them, Mair, son of Belgo, and Joseph, son of Delia, plunged headlong into the flames!

The Emperor Adrian began to rebuild the

city, sixty years after its destruction. During the decay of the Byzantine empire the city fell into the hands of the Mohammedans. In the seventh and eighth centuries, the Crusaders contended fiercely for the possession of Jerusalem, and it was taken by the host which Godfrey of Bouillon headed, the 15th of July, 1099. The Christians founded a kingdom there, which was ended by the Turks in 1187. [See CRUSADES.] Jerusalem was taken by the French under Bonaparte, in February, 1799.

JESUITS. The religious order of the Jesuits was founded by a military gentleman of Biscay named Ignatius Loyola. The order at first was sometimes called Loyolists, and sometimes Inghists, from the founder's Spanish name, Inigo de Cyuipuscoa. Ignatius assembled at Rome ten of his companions, chosen, for the most part, from the university of Paris, in the year 1538. He submitted the plan of his institution, which he said was inspired by divinity, to Pope Paul III. A committee appointed by that pontiff to examine the character of the institution, declared it inimical to the interests of the church, as well as unnecessary. The opposition to the establishment of the order was overcome by a promise, in addition to the three vows of poverty, celibacy, and monastic obedience, to take an oath of implicit submission to the pope, agreeing to go whithersoever he should direct, and to claim nothing for support from the holy see. In the very charter, however, by which the followers of Ignatius bound themselves to the interests of the pope, they agreed blindly to obey their general. The pope finally confirmed the institution by a bull, or decree, in the year 1540. The founder of the order of Jesuits being originally a rude soldier, it has been supposed he was a mere tool in the hands of artful men, and that he was not in reality the author of the writings which bear his name. The order was confirmed under the title of the "Company of Jesus." It is said that when the little band who formed the germ of this great order, were deliberating what answer they should return to those who were continually questioning them as to their calling and institute, Ignatius, ever full of military ideas, said: "As our general is no other than Jesus Christ; as his cross is our standard; his law, even in its counsels, our rule; his name our chief

consolation and our only hope; let us tell men the simple truth, that we are the little battalion of Jesus Christ." Such is the origin of the title 'Society of Jesus,' which has been shortened into the name of Jesuits.

At first the number of members was limited to sixty, but this restriction was removed, and the Jesuits multiplied rapidly. In the year 1710, the order had 24 professed houses; 59 houses of probation; 340 residences; 612 colleges; 200 missions; 150 seminaries and boarding schools; and consisted of 19,998 Jesuits. The code of laws by which the Jesuits were governed was perfected by Layner and Aquaviva, who succeeded Loyola as general of the order, and were possessed of even more talent than their predecessor.

Many causes contributed to insure the success of the institution. The Jesuits were required to be more active than other monks, having little to do with the usual monastic functions. They were soldiers devoted to the service of God and the pope. They cultivated the acquaintance of the great, and were deeply imbued with the spirit of intrigue. Loyola made the government of the institution purely monarchical. The general was chosen for life by deputies from the different provinces. His power was absolute, and no case and no individual were exempt from it. The general had a despotic power over the members of the institution; a much greater power than the head of any monastic order had ever before exercised. The Jesuits were not only obliged to obey their general in outward observances, but to him they submitted the direction of their minds. Each novice was obliged, every six months, to manifest his conscience to his superior or to some one appointed by him; and these novices were closely watched by others of the order, who were directed to give notice to the general of anything important. The heads of the several houses were obliged to transmit frequent reports of the character and conduct of the departments over which they presided, to the superior, and these reports were carefully kept and arranged, that the general might refer at once to the account of particular houses at any period. The provincials and heads of departments of the order transmitted full and minute accounts of the civil state

of the respective countries in which they resided.

The education of youth was an object which the Jesuits were particularly anxious to promote and direct, and the business of education was soon almost entirely conducted by them. In spite of their vow of poverty, they contrived to amass vast possessions, and in the East and West Indies carried on a very lucrative commerce. They were the confessors to monarchs and men of rank, and the influence they acquired was very great. They sought to acquire and enlarge property, and in South America, being possessed of wealthy dominions, they ruled over some hundred thousand subjects, as monarchs. They favored the passions of mankind by sanctioning unbridled license of manners, through the moral code they taught. Regular and severe in their own habits, they were enabled to make a selfish use of the irregularities they countenanced.

They were not unacquainted with the persuasive power of the tortures of the inquisition, in making proselytes. One of their most noted missionaries was Francis Xavier, called the apostle of India. He sailed for the Portuguese settlements in India, in 1542, and soon spread the doctrines of the Romish church over the continent and surrounding islands. It is not our intention to detail the proceeding of the Jesuits in the process of making foreign proselytes, nor the controversies to which it gave rise. They were accused of making compromises with some sects, permitting them to retain profane customs and improper rites, in consideration of their publicly embracing the doctrines of the Romish church. As we have before hinted, it is quite probable that as many converts were made by terror as by mildness, since the Jesuits were willing to do anything to maintain a show of success.

They took possession of the fertile South American province of Paraguay, in the seventeenth century, and labored to disseminate military arts and improvements among the Indians. They introduced the comforts of civilization among the inhabitants, and thus in the first place gained their affection and esteem. Proceeding in this manner, they gradually strengthened their influence so

that a few priests readily ruled some hundred thousand Indians. But these priests did not maintain the purity of conduct which they had given reason at first to suppose would be their constant guide in all their actions. They soon manifested schemes of the most daring ambition and most insatiable avarice. They yearly sent home to the European Jesuits, immense quantities of gold, which they procured principally from Paraguay. They armed the Indians, and excited them to hatred against the Spaniards and Portuguese, evidently showing their intentions of making a separate sovereignty of Paraguay. In 1750 the courts of Madrid and Lisbon entered into a treaty for fixing the boundaries of their respective possessions in South America. When this treaty came to be executed in the year 1752, the Jesuits opposed it, and animated the Indians strenuously to resist the Portuguese and Spaniards, in the war which followed. The disgrace of the Jesuits at the Portuguese court originated in their conduct on this occasion.

In France the intrigues and the seditious writings of the Jesuits caused them to be expelled by several parliaments, and denounced as corrupters of youth and enemies of government. The Sorbonne issued a decree in 1554, by which they condemned the institution, as being calculated rather for the ruin than the edification of the faithful. Louis XIII. again countenanced them, and Cardinal Richelieu and Louis XIV. showed them favor. In the reign of the latter monarch, they obtained the revocation of the edict of Nantes in favor of the Protestants. They had gained an almost complete triumph over their enemies, the Jansenists, when, among other things, their refusal to administer the sacrament to the Jansenists, created a turn of the tide against them which ended in their dissolution.

The Jesuits were tried before the grand chamber of the parliament of Paris, and lost their case, which grew out of a desire to compound their debts, when, having carried on great commerce in Martinico, they had sustained heavy losses by war. An examination into their own books only proved the charges against them. Professing poverty, they were found to possess riches; pretending to moderation and justice, they were convicted of inculcating principles which

endangered the well being of the king and realm.

The Jesuits were expelled from England in 1604; from Portugal in 1759; from France in 1764; from Spain in 1767; and their society was abolished by Pope Clement XIV., in 1773. Had they adhered to the principles they professed, in the outset, and merely aimed at civilizing and converting savages, and increasing knowledge at home, the institution would have been as justly celebrated, as it is now denounced for ambition, avarice, cruelty, and corruption.

The order was restored by Pius VII. in 1814, and has since been tolerated in various countries. It has a secret and extensive existence.

Macaulay has glowingly sketched the character of this wonderful religious corps. In the sixteenth century, the pontificate, exposed to new dangers more formidable than had ever before threatened it, was saved by a new religious order, which was animated by intense enthusiasm and organized with exquisite skill. When the Jesuits came to the rescue of the papacy, they found it in extreme peril; but from that moment the tide of battle turned. Protestantism, which had, during the whole generation, carried all before it, was stopped in its progress, and rapidly beaten back from the foot of the Alps to the shores of the Baltic. Before the order had existed a hundred years, it had filled the whole world with memorials of great things done and suffered for the faith. No religious community could produce a list of men so variously distinguished; none had extended its operations over so vast a space; yet in none had there ever been such perfect unity of feeling and action. There was no region of the globe, no walk of speculative or of active life, in which Jesuits were not to be found. They guided the counsels of kings. They deciphered Latin inscriptions. They observed the motions of Jupiter's satellites. They published whole libraries, controversy, casuistry, history, treatises on optics, Alcaic odes, editions of the fathers, madrigals, catechisms, and lampoons. The liberal education of youth passed almost entirely into their hands, and was conducted by them with conspicuous ability. They appear to have discovered the precise point to which intellectual culture can be carried without risk of intel-

lectual emancipation. Enmity itself was compelled to own that, in the art of managing and forming the tender mind, they had no equals. Meanwhile they assiduously and successfully cultivated the eloquence of the pulpit. With still greater assiduity and still greater success they applied themselves to the ministry of the confessional. Throughout Catholic Europe the secrets of every government and of almost every family of note were in their keeping. They glided from one Protestant country to another under innumerable disguises, as gay cavaliers, as simple rustics, as Puritan preachers. They wandered to countries which neither mercantile avidity nor liberal curiosity had ever impelled any stranger to explore. They were to be found in the garb of mandarins, superintending the observatory at Peking. They were to be found, spade in hand, teaching the rudiments of agriculture to the savages of Paraguay. Yet, whatever might be their residence, whatever might be their employment, their spirit was the same, entire devotion to the common cause, implicit obedience to the central authority. None of them had chosen his dwelling-place or his avocation for himself. Whether the Jesuit should live under the arctic circle or the equator; whether he should pass his life in arranging gems and collating manuscripts at the Vatican, or in persuading naked barbarians in the southern hemisphere not to eat each other,—were matters which he left with profound submission to the decision of others. If he was wanted at Lima, he was on the Atlantic in the next fleet. If he was wanted at Bagdad, he was toiling through the desert with the next caravan. If his ministry was needed in some country where his life was more insecure than that of a wolf; where it was a crime to harbor him; where the heads and quarters of his brethren, fixed in the public places, showed him what he had to expect,—he went without remonstrance or hesitation to his doom. Nor is this heroic spirit yet extinct. When, in our own time, a new and terrible pestilence passed round the globe; when, in some great cities, fear had dissolved all the ties which hold society together; when the secular clergy had deserted their flocks; when medical succor was not to be purchased by gold; when the strongest natural affections had yielded to love of life,—even then the Jesuit was found

by the pallet which bishop and curate, physician and nurse, father and mother, had deserted, bending over infected lips to catch the faint accents of confession, and holding up to the last, before the expiring penitent, the image of the expiring Redeemer.

But with the admirable energy, disinterestedness, and self-devotion which were characteristic of the society, great vices were mingled. It was alleged, and not without foundation, that the ardent public spirit which made the Jesuit regardless of his ease, of his liberty, and of his life, made him also regardless of truth and of mercy; that no means which could promote the interest of his religion seemed to him unlawful, and that by the interest of his religion he too often meant the interest of his society. It was alleged that, in the most atrocious plots recorded in history, his agency could be distinctly traced; that, constant only in attachment to the fraternity to which he belonged, he was in some countries the most dangerous enemy of freedom, and in others the most dangerous enemy of order. The mighty victories which he boasted that he had achieved in the cause of the church were, in the judgment of many illustrious members of that church, rather apparent than real. He had, indeed, labored with a wonderful show of success to reduce the world under her laws, but he had done so by relaxing her laws to suit the temper of the world. Instead of toiling to elevate human nature to the noble standard fixed by divine precept and example, he had lowered the standard till it was beneath the average level of human nature. He gloried in multitudes of converts who had been baptized in the remote regions of the east; but it was reported that from some of these converts the facts on which the whole theology of the gospel depends had been cunningly concealed, and that others were permitted to avoid persecution by bowing down before the images of false gods, while internally repeating *Paters* and *Aves*. Nor was it only in heathen countries that such arts were said to be practiced. It was not strange that people of all ranks, and especially of the highest ranks, crowded to the confessionals in the Jesuit temples, for from those confessionals none went discontented away. There the priest was all things to all men. If he had to deal with a mind truly devout,

he spoke in the saintly tone of the primitive fathers; but with that very large part of mankind who have religion enough to make them uneasy when they do wrong, and not religion enough to keep them from doing wrong, he followed a very different system. Since he could not reclaim them from guilt, it was his business to save them from remorse. He had at his command an immense dispensary of anodynes for wounded consciences. In the books of casuistry which had been written by his brethren, and printed with the approbation of his superiors, were to be found doctrines consolatory to transgressors of every class. There the bankrupt was taught how he might, without sin, secrete his goods from his creditors. The servant was taught how he might, without sin, run off with his master's plate. The pander was assured that a Christian man might innocently earn his living by carrying letters and messages between married women and their gallants. The high-spirited and punctilious gentlemen of France were gratified by a decision in favor of dueling. The Italians, accustomed to darker and baser modes of vengeance, were glad to learn that they might, without any crime, shoot at their enemies from behind hedges. To deceit was given a license sufficient to destroy the whole value of human contracts and of human testimony. In truth, if society continued to hold together, if life and property enjoyed any security, it was because common sense and common humanity restrained men from doing what the society of Jesus assured them they might with a safe conscience do.

So strangely were good and evil intermixed in the character of these celebrated brethren; and the intermixture was the secret of their gigantic power. That power could never have belonged to mere hypocrites. It could never have belonged to rigid moralists. It was to be attained only by men sincerely enthusiastic in the pursuit of a great end, and at the same time unscrupulous as to the choice of means.

JEWS. Abraham received the name of Hebrew from the Canaanites among whom he dwelt. The derivation of the word is uncertain. Its signification before the time of Jacob, or Israel, is unknown, but it appears to have been applied afterward exclusively to the posterity of Jacob, and to have been synonymous with Israelites. After the Bab-

ylonish captivity the appellation was changed to Jews. Their history begins, of course, with Abraham.

After the call of Abraham, he went at first to Canaan, which God had promised to his posterity, taking with him Sarah his wife, and Lot, the son of his brother, and here led a wandering life, removing in search of pasture with his flocks, from place to place, and dwelling with his family in tents. By the bounty of the Lord, his wealth increased, and he became rich in flocks, in gold, and in silver. Under Isaac and Jacob, the Hebrews still formed a great nomadic family, without changing their habits and manners. Jacob had twelve sons, from whom sprang the twelve tribes of the Hebrew people. These were Reuben, Simeon, Levi, Dan, Judah, Naphtali, Gad, Asher, Issachar, Zebulun, Joseph, and Benjamin. Joseph, having been sold to some wandering merchants by his jealous brethren, was taken to Egypt, and rose to a high rank at the court of Pharaoh. This led to the emigration of his father's family to Egypt, about 1700 B.C. During the lifetime of Joseph, the Hebrews were well treated, but after his death a tyrannical king filled the throne, and the persecutions they endured threatened to annihilate the nation. God raised up a deliverer in the person of Moses, and the children of Israel, having left the land of Egypt, were conducted over the bed of the Red Sea, and afterward providentially preserved in the desert. At Sinai, the Lord promulgated his laws from the summit of that awful mountain. Notwithstanding the blessings which had been heaped upon them, the Hebrews murmured, and became idolatrous, and were in consequence punished for their sins. The various nations inimical to the Hebrews were repulsed with loss. Moses having died on Mount Nebo, before the entrance into the promised land, his place was filled by the warlike Joshua. The waters retired before the bearers of the ark, and the people crossed the Jordan in safety. The walls of the city of Jericho were destroyed by the Lord, and the inhabitants slain by the Israelites. The period of the judges abounded in heroic exploits of individual valor, among which those of Samson are the most celebrated. At length, about 1095 B.C., the monarchy was established, Saul being the first king. Saul achieved some brilliant

victories, but as he became disregarding of the counsels of the prophet Samuel, the latter privately anointed David, the son of Jesse, a valorous youth, whose fame eclipsed that of Saul. The reign of David extended from 1055 to 1015. It was rendered brilliant by victories over the Jebusites, Philistines, Amalekites, Idumeans, Moabites, Ammonites, and Zeba, but unhappy by the domestic misfortunes and crimes which embittered the heart of King David. Under Solomon, his son, whose reign extended from 1015 to 975, the nation attained a high degree of splendor and consequence, while his stern strength and pure integrity sank under the corrupting influence of wealth and luxury. Toward the latter part of his reign, Solomon, enervated by the pleasures of his seraglio, and enthralled by female favorites, permitted the worship of false gods, and forsook Him to whom he owed his glory. The revolt of the ten tribes under Jeroboam took place, while Rehoboam succeeded to the government of Judah and Benjamin. The ten tribes formed the kingdom of Israel, the latter that of Judah. Sichem at first, and afterward Samaria, was the capital of Israel, and Jerusalem that of Judah. The contest between the two states was furious, and not unequal. In general the kingdom of Judah preserved the worship of the true God, while that of Israel was idolatrous. The kingdom of Israel existed two hundred and fifty-four years after the separation, under nineteen kings, whose authority was gained and lost by violent revolutions. Shalmaneser, King of Assyria, ended the kingdom, and carried the people captive into Asia, B.C. 721.

The kingdom of Judah existed under twenty kings of the house of David, until 587 B.C., when Nebuchadnezzar took Jerusalem, and carried away the inhabitants captive. During the captivity flourished Daniel, Jeremiah, and other prophets, who were commissioned by God to inform the Hebrew people of the fate which awaited them. From the time of the captivity they are more often known under the name of Jews. Their captivity was terminated by Cyrus, King of Persia, who published an edict permitting all the Jews to return to their country, and to rebuild the temple of Jerusalem, 536 B.C. They placed the foundations of the temple;

but the Samaritans, inveterate enemies of the Jews, procured a suspension of their operations. Nevertheless, Darius, informed of the edict of Cyrus, permitted the completion of the temple. The Jews labored with such spirit, that, four years after, the walls of Jerusalem were rebuilt, and their worship re-established. Nehemiah, being chosen governor of Judea, neglected no exertions to maintain the public observance of the laws of God. Esther, a Jewish maiden, having found favor in the eyes of Ahasuerus, King of Persia, this monarch confirmed the immunities of the Jews, preserved them from massacre, and severely punished their implacable enemies.

In the time of the high-priest Onias, Seleucus, King of Syria, sent Heliodorus to seize all the gold of the temple. He came to Jerusalem and entered the temple, intending to obey the royal command. It was in vain that the high-priest represented to him that the treasures were deposits, destined for the support of the fatherless and widows. The legend runs that Heliodorus turned a deaf ear to his remonstrances, and was already on the threshold of the treasury, when he beheld a white horse, richly caparisoned, whose rider wore a terrible aspect, with armor of gold. At the same time Heliodorus was attacked by two young men of surpassing beauty, and would have been slain, but for the interposition of Onias, who implored the pardon of the Almighty, and offered up a sacrifice to appease his wrath.

Antiochus Epiphanes, or the Illustrious, the successor of Seleucus, an impious prince, deprived Onias of the sacerdotal office, and sold it to the highest bidder. He entered Jerusalem with a powerful army, and killed or enslaved 80,000 men. He had the boldness to enter the temple, and to bear away the altar and golden table, the golden candlestick, the precious vessels, and all the money that the treasury contained, and even undertook to abolish the religion of the Jews, forbidding them, on pain of death, to maintain their worship, and erecting the statue of Jupiter Olympius on the altar of the temple. The Jews were forced to attend the profane sacrifices, and compelled to eat the flesh of animals prohibited by their law. Under this

persecution many of the Jews yielded, but there were some who remained firm, in the midst of martyrdom.

Judas Maccabæus raised the standard of revolt, and rendered his name formidable to the enemies of the Jews, for, having collected an army of six thousand men, he performed prodigies of valor in defense of the religion and liberties of their fathers. He conquered and killed Apollonius, governor of Samaria, and the general of the Syrian army. Everywhere victory crowned his efforts, till the valiant leader fell in battle, after slaying many of his enemies. Jonathan and Simon, his brothers, emulated his glory. Afterward the Jews came under the rule of Rome. The Jews refused to recognize Jesus Christ, who was born in the reign of Herod, King of the Jews, as the Messiah. Christ foretold the destruction of Jerusalem, which was taken by Titus, A.D. 70, after a siege of unparalleled horror. This was the signal of the complete dispersion of the Jews, in fulfillment of the divine warning.

Their history in the middle ages is a tale of suffering. They were early dealers in money, and from kings and nobles they endured exactions that it must have required heavy usury to repay. To enumerate the cruelties put upon them, or barely mention the many massacres in which they perished, would exhaust a goodly volume. They were banished from England in 1290 by Edward I., and were shut out thenceforth till the time of Cromwell. From France they were several times driven, and as often recalled to be plundered again; they were finally expelled by Charles VI. In Spain their sufferings were greater even than elsewhere. For them the hungry fires of the inquisition were lit, and in 1492 Ferdinand and Isabella ordered them to depart from Spain within four months. Eight hundred thousand men, women, and children were thus driven forth from home. Multitudes perished. Portugal was the refuge of many, who had gold to purchase the liberty of tarrying there. The Portuguese monarch had cruel compassion upon them; his treaty with Spain forbade him to allow the Jews a permanent residence in his realm, and he thought to save some by making them Christians. With a promise of ships to bear them away, he beguiled them to gather at

Lisbon. There the orders were that the children should be torn from their parents, that they might be nurtured in the bosom of the true church. A scene of anguish followed. Many a father slew his son, rather than abandon him; and many a mother, pretending Christianity that she might not be exiled from a daughter, soon betrayed her insincerity, and was murdered by the tortures of the inquisition. Throughout Europe it was believed that in their rites the Jews crucified children, and whenever a distemper raged, the cry was that they had poisoned the wells and streams. Any such rumor was the watchword for their butchery, the plucking of their eyes or teeth, the extirpation of their homes, and the seizure of their estates. In modern times, these atrocities have ceased, but yet the Jew is too often the object of an unjust loathing, if not hatred.

JOAN OF ARC (JEANNE D'ARC), called the Maid of Orleans, was born of low parentage at Domremy, a village on the borders of Lorraine. When the affairs of France were in a deplorable state, and the city of Orleans was so closely besieged by the Duke of Bedford that its fall appeared inevitable, Joan claimed to have received a divine commission to expel the invaders. At this time, a belief in supernatural endowments was by no means uncommon, and, far from being confined to the lower classes, pervaded the minds of the loftiest and most pretending. Joan, on being introduced to Charles VII., offered to raise the siege of Orleans, and conduct her prince to Rheims, there to be crowned with the usual solemnities; at the same time demanding for herself a consecrated sword which had long hung suspended in the church of St. Catharine. Her request was granted, and she fulfilled her promises, entered Orleans with supplies in triumph, and appeared, clad in a splendid suit of armor, at the coronation of Charles, which took place in the cathedral of Rheims. The gallant maid, her mission done, now sought to retire into private life, but she was urged to stay. She yielded to the general wish with fatal facility; fatal, because, having been taken with the garrison of Compiegne, she was, to the disgrace of Bedford and the English, condemned to death as a witch, and burned at the stake, in the market-place of

Rouen, May 30th, 1431. She was never a servant, as English writers have represented, and was a lovely girl of eighteen when she first sought an audience of Charles. An authentic portrait, yet extant, shows that she possessed a face and figure of exquisite loveliness; a countenance to which a beaming eye, and a tender expression of melancholy, imparted an interest which rendered her fascination irresistible. She led the French to victory, but never stained her hand with bloodshed.

JOHN, King of England. [See PLANTAGENET.]

JOHNSON, SAMUEL, LL. D., one of the most eminent literary men of the eighteenth century in England, was born at Lichfield, in Staffordshire, in 1709, and was the son of a bookseller. He entered Pembroke College, Oxford, at the age of nineteen, but his father's losses compelled him to leave without taking a degree. For some years after leaving college, he was unsettled in his views, which, however, chiefly turned to literature. In 1735 he married Mrs. Porter, a mercer's widow of twice his own age; he describes the affair as a "love match on both sides." In 1737 he came to London in company with David Garrick, who had been one of his pupils, to seek his fortune. Here he supported himself by his pen, his first publication in London being a poem in imitation of one of Juvenal's satires. He was for many years a contributor to the *Gentleman's Magazine*. In 1747 he issued his plans for an English dictionary, a work which, when published, fully equaled the high expectations which had been formed of it. His periodical papers, "The Rambler" and "The Idler," displayed the talents of the author in a favorable light. The moderate success of the tragedy of "Irene" convinced Dr. Johnson that he was incapable of producing dramas which would reflect honor on his pen. His fine romance of "Rasselas" was written in the evenings of one week to defray his mother's funeral expenses. In 1762 he received a government pension of £300 a year. He published some political pamphlets against the revolted colonists of America, which, however, do not display very great argumentative powers. His last undertaking, "Lives of the Poets," was completed in

1781. He died December 13th, 1784, and was interred in Westminster Abbey, where a statue is erected to his memory.

His biography, by his intimate friend Boswell, is one of the best works of the kind ever written, and still continues to enjoy high popularity. Boswell said to Madame d'Arblay: "Yes, madam; you must give me some of your choice little notes of the doctor's; we have seen him long enough upon stilts; I want to show him in a new light. Grave Sam, and great Sam, and solemn Sam, and learned Sam—all these he has appeared over and over. Now I want to entwine a wreath of the graces across his brow; I want to show him as gay Sam, agreeable Sam, pleasant Sam; so you must help me with some of his beautiful billets to yourself."

JONES, JACOB, born in Delaware, 1770, entered the navy at the age of twenty-nine. He commanded the Wasp at the capture of the British brig Frolic, Oct. 18th, 1812. The next day the Wasp and her prize were taken by the Poictiers, a British seventy-four, and carried into Bermuda. Commodore Jones died at Philadelphia, August 3d, 1850.

JONES, JOHN PAUL, was a younger son of a gardener who dwelt at Arbigland, on Solway Frith, in Scotland. He was born July 6th, 1747, and when but a boy of twelve was apprenticed to a shipping merchant of White Haven, the principal port of the Solway. He made several voyages to Virginia; then his master was unfortunate in business; and at the age of sixteen he was left to control himself. Several White Haven vessels were engaged in the slave-trade; young Paul got the berth of third mate in one of them; at nineteen he had advanced to be first mate of the Two Friends, one of the largest White Haven vessels in the traffic. Then he was engaged for a time in the West India trade; finally he left Scotland forever, and abandoned sea for shore. When the Revolution broke out he was living in poverty near Fredericksburg, Va. He at once offered Congress his services in the navy then to be formed; and about this time, from reasons ever unknown, he added 'Jones' to his patronymic. He was commissioned as lieutenant, first on the list, in December, 1775, and was appointed to the Alfred, a clumsy merchantman that had been altered into a frigate of thirty guns. It

was the flagship of the small fleet of Commodore Hopkins; and on a bright morning, early in February, 1776, as the commodore came on board, Lieut. Jones with his own hands hoisted the first American ensign ever displayed on a man-of-war. It was of yellow silk, bearing the figure of a pine-tree, and the significant device of a rattlesnake, with the ominous words, "Don't tread on me!"

The gallantry, fearlessness, and value of Jones soon became proverbial, and early in August he was rewarded with a captain's commission. In 1777 he was put in command of the *Ranger* (a ship of eighteen guns just built for the service at Portsmouth, N. H.), hoisted the new flag of the stars and stripes, and sailed for France. The next spring he took the first of his famous cruises along the British coast, and made an unsuccessful attempt to burn the town of White Haven; for this his excuse was a desire to avenge some of the wanton burnings in America, and to teach the British "that not all their boasted navy could protect their own coasts;" but the attempt can not be justified. He visited the scenes of his boyhood, boldly anchored in the Solway at noon, and landed with a small party, intending to make a prisoner of the Earl of Selkirk, the benefactor of his father. But he was foiled by the nobleman's absence. Against his earnest remonstrances, the men insisted upon plundering the mansion of its plate. When the prizes were sold at Brest, Jones bought the silver and restored it, accompanied by an extravagant letter, to Lady Selkirk. His return to France was marked by a hot contest with the English sloop *Drake* off Carrickfergus, in which the *Ranger* was victorious. In expectation of the command of a larger vessel, Jones relinquished the *Ranger*. After gallant delay, the *Duc de Duras*, an old and unseaworthy ship of forty guns, was fitted out for him; in compliment to Dr. Franklin he named her *Bon Homme Richard*. More delay intervened, but at last, the 14th of August, 1779, he left L'Orient with a squadron of seven sail, for another cruise off the British coast. A heavy storm scattered the little fleet, but the *Bon Homme Richard* and the frigate *Alliance*, with two smaller vessels, after taking some prizes off the English and Irish shores, came together at Cape Wrath,

a northern point of Scotland. They spread terror along the eastern coast, and late in the afternoon of the 16th of September, the four vessels lay in the Frith of Forth, within sight of Edinburgh castle. Jones's intention was to seize the shipping at Leith, to menace the town with the torch, and obtain a heavy ransom "toward the reimbursement which Britain owed to the much injured citizens of the United States." Wild alarm spread along the threatened coast. Early the next morning the *Bon Homme Richard* was seen standing toward Kirkcaldy, on the northern shore. In an agony of fear the people gazed at her, and the odd minister of the place, kneeling on the beach, thus wrestled with the Lord: "Now, dear Laird, dinna ye think it a shame for ye to send this vile piret to rob our folk o' Kirkcaldy, for ye ken they're poor enow already, and hae naething to spare. The wa' the ween blaws, he'll be here in a jiffie, and wha kens what he may do? He's nae too good for ony thing. Mickle's the mischief he's dune already. He'll burn their hooses, tak' their very claes, and tirl them to the sark; and, waes me! wha kens but the bluidy villain may tak' their lives! The puir weemen are maist frightened out o' their wits, and the bairns skirling after them. I canna thol't it! I hae been lang a faithfu' servant to ye, Laird; but gin ye dinna turn the ween aboot, and blaw the scoundrel out o' our gate, I'll na staur a fit, but wull just sit here till the tide comes. Sae, tak' yere wull o't."

The wind veered, and Jones was forced to put to sea. A week later he fell in with a fleet of Baltic merchantmen, convoyed by the new ship *Serapis*, forty-four guns, and the Countess of Scarborough, twenty guns. Landais, the treacherous captain of the *Alliance*, who had caused Jones much trouble during the cruise, disobeyed all signals, and held his ship aloof. The *Vengeance* followed this cowardly example; while the *Pallas*, the other small vessel, engaged the Countess of Scarborough. The *Bon Homme Richard* and the *Serapis* battled together. Such another sea-fight as this of the 23d of September, 1779, off Flamborough Head, has never been seen. The breeze almost died away; and at twilight the ships were not within reach of each other's guns. They were so close to the shore that crowds of eager watchers gathered to witness

the spectacle. For a little while the curtain of night mantled them; then a full, bright moon came up, and the terrible struggle began. The fire of the *Serapis* made large havoc in the rotten timbers of the *Richard*, but in a few minutes the latter ran into her antagonist, the spars and rigging of both were entangled, and the great guns were almost useless. Jones was repulsed in a trial to board. His flag was hidden by the smoke. Pearson, captain of the *Serapis*, cried out, "Has your ship struck?" "I have not yet begun to fight," was the answer.

The ships yawned apart for a moment, and then lay broadside to broadside, the muzzles of the guns touching. Jones lashed his ship to the *Serapis*, and in this fierce embrace the awful cannonade went on. The fight raged with fiendish fury; the crew of the *Richard* suffered terrible loss, and their ship leaked badly. To add to their danger, the treacherous Alliance now came up and poured broadside after broadside into them. There could be no mistake or excuse for this dreadful villainy; the moonlight was bright, the position of the combatants clear. The courage of Jones did not falter, although his position was so critical, and his ship was slowly sinking. The hand-grenades of his marines set the *Serapis* on fire. Capt. Pearson had not the obstinacy of his foe, though he had fought with great bravery, and at last he surrendered to his really weaker enemy. "It is painful," he said to Jones, in a surly manner, "to deliver up my sword to a man who has fought with a halter around his neck." Jones preserved his temper, and courteously replied, as he returned the weapon, "Sir, you have fought like a hero; and I make no doubt but your sovereign will reward you in the most ample manner." He said rightly; George III. knighted Pearson for the bravery he here displayed. When Jones heard of this, he remarked, "Well, he deserves it; and if I fall in with him again, I will make a lord of him!"

The battle had raged three hours. Flames were now rapidly devouring both vessels. The *Bon Homme Richard* was damaged past recovery. The flames were extinguished on the *Serapis*, prisoners and men were all transferred to her, and the shattered wreck of the *Richard* went down beneath the billows.

The merchantmen under convoy had escaped, through the criminal conduct of the commanders of the Alliance and the Vengeance; but the Countess of Scarborough had yielded to the *Pallas* after an hour's fight, notwithstanding the nefarious Landais had fired into the latter, as he did into the *Richard*. After tossing about on the North Sea for ten days, Jones ran into the *Texel* with his little squadron and prizes, only a few hours before eleven British ships of war that had been sent after him appeared in the offing. His brilliant exploit excited great admiration at Amsterdam, and afterward at Paris. The French king gave him a sword of honor and a cross of the military order of merit. The American congress, eight years later, voted him a gold medal.

After the conclusion of peace, Jones, restless, and longing for action and adventure, accepted the post of rear-admiral in the Russian navy in 1788, and was employed against the Turks on the Black Sea. He soon, however, fell into disfavor with Potemkin, the favorite of Catharine, was granted leave of absence, and never recalled into service. He died of dropsy in the chest, July 18th, 1792, at Paris, aged only forty-five. His grave is unknown. He was a man of dauntless courage, and of great service to his adopted country. Among his most marked traits, an overweening vanity was conspicuous.

JONES, Sir WILLIAM, a poet, statesman, and oriental scholar, born in London, 1746, died in Hindostan, April 27th, 1794, aged forty-seven. His attainments in law and general science were profound and varied. As a linguist he has never been surpassed: he was the master of twenty-eight languages, and his knowledge extended over the literature and antiquities of which they were the key.

JONSON, BEN, was the posthumous son of a clergyman in Westminster, where he was born in 1574, about a month after his father's decease. His family was originally from Scotland, whence his grandfather removed to Carlisle, in the reign of Henry VIII. Benjamin received his education under the learned Camden, at Westminster school; and had made extraordinary progress in his studies, when his mother, who had married a bricklayer for her second husband, took him

away to work under his step-father. From this humble employment he escaped, by enlisting as a soldier in the army, then serving in the Netherlands against the Spaniards. An exploit which he here performed, of killing an enemy in a single combat, gave him room to boast ever after of a degree of courage which has not often been found in alliance with poetical distinction.

On his return, Jonson entered himself at St. John's College, Cambridge, which he was shortly obliged to quit, from the scanty state of his finances. He turned his thoughts to the stage, and applied for employment at the theatres; but his talents as an actor could only procure for him admission at an obscure playhouse in the suburbs. Here he had the misfortune to kill a fellow-actor in a duel, for which he was thrown into prison. The state of mind to which he was here brought, gave the advantage to a Popish priest in converting him to the Catholic faith, under which religion he continued for twelve years.

After his liberation from prison, he married, and applied in earnest to writing for the stage, in which he appears to have already made several attempts. His comedy of "Every Man in his Humor," the first of his acknowledged pieces, was performed with applause in 1596; after which he continued to furnish a play yearly, till his time was occupied by the composition of the masques and other entertainments by which the accession of James was celebrated. Dryden, in his "Essay on Dramatic Poetry," speaks of him as the "most learned and judicious writer which any theatre ever had."

In 1616 he published a folio volume of his works, which procured for him a grant from his majesty of the salary of poet-laureate for life, though he did not take possession of the post till three years after. Jonson was reduced to necessitous circumstances in the latter part of his life, though he obtained from Charles I. an advance of his salary as laureate. He died in 1637 at the age of sixty-three, being at that time considered as at the head of English poetry. He was interred in Westminster Abbey, where an inscription was placed over his grave, familiarly expressive of the reputation he had acquired among his countrymen: "O rare Ben Jonson." Six months after his death, a col-

lection of poems to his honor, by a number of the most eminent writers and scholars in the nation, was published, with the title of "Jonsonius Virbius; or the Memory of Ben Jonson, revived by the Friends of the Muses."

We subjoin his beautiful epitaph on the Countess of Pembroke, sister to Sir Philip Sidney.

"Underneath this marble herse
Lies the subject of all verse,
Sidney's sister, Pembroke's mother;
Death, ere thou hast slain another
Learn'd, and fair, and good as she,
Time shall throw his dart at thee."

JOSEPH II., Emperor of Germany, son of Francis I. and Maria Theresa, and brother of Marie Antoinette, was born in 1741. His father died in 1765, but he did not really reign till the death of his mother in 1780, when he became King of Hungary and Bohemia. Joseph made his reign conspicuous by his designs for the good of his subjects. He aimed at the most extensive and important reformations, but was not aware of the strength of those prejudices and evils which presented themselves in his path at the very outset, and continued to obstruct it throughout the whole of his career. The education of Joseph had been carefully attended to, and at the age of nineteen he was married to Isabella, infanta of Parma. In 1764 he was crowned King of the Romans. The death of his first wife, whom he loved with more than usual fondness, was a severe blow to him, but in 1765 he married the sister of the Elector of Bavaria. It was in this year that he ascended the throne, without encountering the slightest opposition. Having always displayed a military ambition, he was now happy in remodeling his armies and perfecting their discipline, not restricting his reformation to the army, but making it felt in all the departments of government. After having returned from a tour through his own dominions, and through Prussia, Italy, France, and Russia, he set apart one day in each week for hearing the complaints and petitions of all, even the meanest of his subjects. "It behooves me," said he, "to do justice; and it is my invariable intention to render it to all the world, without respect of persons." It is a pity that he forgot this maxim when he accepted the invitation of the royal anat-

omists, and assisted in the dismemberment of Poland, in 1772. Joseph encouraged the liberty of the press, and even permitted strictures to be made on his own conduct and measures, provided they were not couched in the language of coarse pasquinade. "If," said he, "they be founded in justice, we shall profit by them; if not, we shall disregard them."

Many curious adventures are said to have occurred to the emperor, when, as was his custom, he drove about in the garb of a private citizen. One day, as he was riding thus alone, he was accosted familiarly by a soldier, who mistook him for a man of the middle class, and asked the emperor to give him a ride. "Willingly," exclaimed Joseph; "jump in, comrade, for I am in something of a hurry." The soldier sprang into the cabriolet, and sovereign and subject sat side by side on the same seat. The soldier was loquacious. "Come, comrade!" said he, slapping the emperor familiarly on the back; "are you good at guessing?" "Perhaps I am," replied Joseph; "try me." "Well, then, my boy, conjure up your wits, and guess what I had for breakfast this morning." "Sour krout." "Come, none of that! try again, comrade." "Perhaps a Westphalia ham," said the emperor, willing to humor his companion. "Better than that!" exclaimed the soldier. "Sausages from Bologna, and Hockheimer from the Rhine?" "Better than that! d'ye give it up?" "I do." "Open your eyes and ears then," said the soldier bluntly; "I had a pheasant, by Jove! shot in the Emperor Joe's park, ha! ha!" When the exultation of the soldier had subsided, Joseph said quietly: "I want to try your skill in guessing, comrade. See if you can name the rank I hold." "You're a—no—hang it! you're not smart enough for a cornet." "Better than that," said the emperor. "A lieutenant?" "Better than that." "A captain?" "Better than that." "A major?" "Better than that." "General?" "Better than that." The soldier was now fearfully agitated; he had doffed his hat, and sat bareheaded; he could hardly articulate. "Pardon me, your excellency; you are field-marshal." "Better than that," replied Joseph. "Lord help me!" cried the soldier, "you're the emperor!" He threw himself

out of the cabriolet, and kneeled for pardon in the mud. The emperor often laughed over it heartily, and the soldier received a mark of favor which he could not forget.

On another occasion, Joseph, turning a corner shortly, ran the wheel of his vehicle against an old woman's fruit-stall, and upset it, scattering the good things in every direction. The ragged urchins in the immediate vicinity fell upon the tempting fruit, and hastily gathering it, ate it, mud and all. As soon as the old woman gained her feet, she gave utterance to a volley of abuse, and the emperor was glad to escape and permit the predatory youths of the suburbs to take their share of the vituperative epithets of the enraged fruit-seller. As soon as he had reached his palace, Joseph dispatched some of his officers to make reparation to the old woman. Surrounded by a group of men in splendid uniforms, the old lady was terrified when they informed her that the driver of the cabriolet was her emperor. Indistinct ideas of halts and executioners were flitting across her mind, when she was awakened to the reality by the sight of a purse full of gold pieces, which the officers threw upon her table. She opened her lips to bless the emperor, but his messengers had put spurs to their horses, and were seen galloping off in the distance. "I think," said the emperor, "she has no reason to complain; for she has been amply paid, and has had the pleasure of abusing me unmercifully, while I heard her with the patience of a saint."

Various events occurred to disturb the tranquillity of Joseph during his reign, and he died on the 20th of February, 1790.

JOSEPHINE (ROSE TASCHER DE LA PAGE-RIE) was born in Martinique, June 24th, 1763, and married at an early age to Viscount Beauharnais, who was executed in the reign of terror. Josephine married Bonaparte in 1796. She lived to see Napoleon raised to the zenith of his power, and then hurled from the summit he had gained. But at that hour of affliction the affectionate Josephine had no longer a right to be near the man she adored, for he had divorced her to marry Maria Louisa, from motives of policy and in hope of an heir. Josephine retired to her beautiful seat of Malmaison with the title of empress-queen-dowager. She was called

the star of Napoleon; and his better destiny forsook him when he cast off his amiable and lovely wife. She died May 29th, 1814, her last words being, "*L'île de l'Elbe—Napoleon!*" The poor mourned in her a faithful friend, the artists of the capital a kind and munificent patron, and the lovers of Napoleon the peerless woman who had graced his throne in the brightest moments of his career. Truly did the emperor say, "If I win battles, Josephine wins hearts."

JOSEPHUS, FLAVIUS, a Jewish historian, born A.D. 37. He signalized himself by supporting a siege of forty-seven days against Vespasian and Titus in a town of Judea. The city was finally taken by treachery, and thousands of the inhabitants were slain, the number of captives being only 1,200. Josephus saved his life by flying into a cave, and finally surrendered to Vespasian, who gave him his liberty, and treated him with great favor. Josephus was present at the siege of Jerusalem. He died A.D. 93, in the fifty-sixth year of his age.

JOORDAN, JEAN BAPTISTE, born in 1762, was a general of the French revolution, and became a marshal of the empire. He won the day at Fleurus, but he lost the battle of Vittoria. He died in 1833.

JUBA, the second of that name, was the son of Juba I. of Numidia, and was among the captives led to Rome to grace the triumph of the victorious Cæsar. He gained the hearts of the Romans by the courteousness of his manners, and Augustus rewarded his fidelity by giving him in marriage Cleopatra, the daughter of Antony and Cleopatra, and conferring upon him the title of King of Mauritania and making him master of all the territories which his father once possessed. His popularity was so great that the Athenians raised a statue to him, and the Ethiopians worshiped him as a divinity. He died A.D. 23.

JUGGERNAUT (lord of the world), a celebrated temple in Hindostan, on the coast of Orissa. The idol is a shapeless stone, with a hideous black face, diamonds for eyes, and crimson jaws yawning open. This is the representative of Vishnu, the preserver of the world. On days of festival, the idol is placed on a tower, sixty feet high, moving on wheels, beneath which the blinded Hin-

doos throw themselves on the ground and are crushed by the progress of the car. More than a million devotees seek this shrine annually, many of whom leave their bones whitening on the adjoining ways.

JUGURTHA, son of Mastanabal, murdered Hiempsal, the son of his uncle Micipsa, and exiled Adherbal, the brother of Hiempsal, to seat himself on the throne of Numidia. Adherbal supplicated the aid of the Romans, but the gold of Jugurtha procured a decision in his favor. Adherbal, who surrendered to the usurper, was inhumanly murdered, and the Roman people breathing vengeance against the murderer, the senate were constrained to declare war upon him. The Jugurthine war required an immense expenditure of blood and treasure, but Jugurtha was finally defeated by Marius, and starved to death in a Roman prison, 106 B.C. Then Numidia became a Roman province.

JULIAN the Apostate (FLAVIUS CLAUDIANUS), son of Julius Constans, the brother of Constantine the Great, was born at Constantinople. The massacre which attended the elevation to the throne of Constans, son of Constantine the Great, nearly proved fatal to Julian and his brother Gallus. The two brothers were privately educated together, and taught the doctrines of the Christian religion. Gallus received the instructions of his teachers with deference and submission; but Julian fed his dislike for Christianity by secretly cherishing a desire to become one of the votaries of paganism. He was banished to rule over Gaul, with the title of Cæsar, by Constans, and there he showed himself worthy of the imperial dignity by his prudence, valor, and the numerous victories he obtained over the enemies of Rome in Gaul and Germany. His mildness, as well as his condescension, gained him the hearts of his soldiers; and when Constans, to whom Julian became an object of suspicion, ordered him to send part of his forces to the east, the army immediately mutinied, and promised eternal fidelity to their leader, refusing to obey the order of Constans. They even compelled Julian, by threats and entreaties, to accept the title of emperor, and the death of Constans, which soon after happened, left him sole master of the Roman empire, A.D. 361.

His immediate disavowal of the doctrines of



TEMPLE OF JUPITER OLYMPIUS AT ATHENS.

Christianity procured Julian the title of the Apostate. His change of religious opinion was attributed to the austerity with which he had been taught the doctrines of Christianity, or, according to others, to the literary conversation and persuasive eloquence of some of the Athenian philosophers. After he had made his public entry into Constantinople, he determined to continue the Persian war, and check those barbarians, who had for sixty years derided the indolence of the Roman emperors. Having crossed the Tigris, he burned his fleet and boldly advanced into the enemy's country. He defeated the Persian forces, but died of a wound received in battle, A.D. 363, aged thirty-three years.

JUNIUS. From 1769 to 1772 a series of political letters appeared in Woodfall's *Public Advertiser*, at London, that by their force of invective, their keenness of sarcasm, and the clear, brilliant style in which they were couched, produced a powerful impression, and

they have since taken a place among the standard works in our language. Every effort that could be devised by the government, or prompted by private indignation, was made to discover their writer, but the authorship remains an unsolved mystery to this day. Perhaps they have been most generally ascribed to Sir Philip Francis; but they have also been plausibly assigned to Lord George Sackville, Edmund Burke, John Wilkes, William Gerard Hamilton (commonly called Single-speech Hamilton), Mr. Dunning (afterward Lord Ashburton), Gen. Charles Lee, the Duke of Portland, Mr. Adair, Rev. J. Rosenhagen, John Roberts, Charles Lloyd, Samuel Dyer, Hugh Boyd, Horne Tooke, Lord Chatham, Dr. Francis Glover, John Lewis De Solme, Rev. James Wilmot, Gibbon the historian, Suett the comedian, the Earl of Chesterfield, Daniel Wray, Earl Temple, Sir Robert Rich, Gov. Pownall, &c. "I am the depository of my own secret, and it shall perish with me," said Junius.

JUPITER, in mythology, the son of Rhea and Saturn, was concealed from his father, who devoured his offspring, and brought up in Crete, where he was nursed by the nymph Amalthea. He forced Saturn to surrender to him the empire of the world, which he shared among his brothers, giving the ocean to Neptune, and hell to Pluto, remaining himself master of the heavens; he was called the father of gods and men. The giants, descended from his uncle Titan, made war upon him, but were defeated. He gave Juno, his wife and sister, ample cause for jealousy, and from the multiplicity of his intrigues was almost literally the father of his people. He was generally represented with thunderbolts in his hand, the eagle at his side, his flowing hair encircled with a diadem. His figure was majestic, and a long beard added to the imposing aspect of his lofty countenance. Bulls, in preference to other animals, were sacrificed to him.

JUNOT, ANDOCHE, was born in 1771. At the siege of Toulon in 1794, Lieut. Bonaparte was dictating a dispatch on a drumhead to a sergeant of artillery: a ball struck the ground hard by, scattering the dirt all about. "Very lucky," gayly cried the sergeant, not flinching; "we need no sand." His bearing impressed the lieutenant to say, "What can I do for you?" "Everything!" said the sergeant; "you can change my worsted shoulder-knot into an epaulette." The lieutenant did more than this. Sergeant Junot became a marshal of the empire and Duke of Abrantes. He died in 1813.

JUSTIN MARTYR was born of pagan parents in Samaria about the beginning of the second century. While yet a young man he was converted to Christianity, his restless

mind having sifted the various philosophies of the Greeks, and wrote many treatises in defense of the faith upon which he settled. He suffered martyrdom in the reign of Marcus Antoninus, about A.D. 165.

JUSTINIAN I., surnamed the Great, Emperor of the East, celebrated as a lawgiver, was born in 483, of an obscure family. He shared the fortune of his uncle, Justin I., who, from a lowly station, was raised to the throne. Justinian flattered the people and the senate, and, in 527, on the death of his uncle, was proclaimed emperor. He gained great victories, and enacted admirable laws, but he loaded his subjects with taxes, and was severe to strangers, while the crimes of his own servants went unpunished. He died in 565, in the eighty-third year of his age. The digest of the Roman law, known as the Justinian code, is the great glory of his reign.

JUVENAL, DECIVS JUNIVS, flourished at Rome in the latter half of the first century. He was sent to Egypt by Domitian, who dreaded his satire, but returned under Trajan, in the eighty-second year of his age. His sixteen satires are powerful and caustic.

JUXON, WILLIAM, an English prelate, was born at Chichester, in 1582. In 1635 he was advanced to the post of lord high treasurer, which no churchman had held since the reign of Henry VII. This office he resigned in 1641, when it was admitted by all parties that he had conducted himself without reproach. After attending his royal master, Charles I., during his imprisonment in the Isle of Wight, and on the scaffold, he went into retirement; but at the restoration he was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and had the satisfaction of placing the crown on the head of Charles II. He died June 4th, 1663.

JUX

K.

KALMUCKS, a branch of the Mongol race, of great antiquity. Their tribes are scattered. In 1759 a part of them, consisting of eighteen hundred families, settled on the Volga, and placed themselves under the protection of the Russian government, to whom they paid voluntary allegiance. Others are settled in different parts. Many of them are Mohammedans. Their personal appearance is far from pleasing, and their habits are extremely rude.

KAMES. HENRY HOME (1696-1782), a Scotch lawyer and judge,—in which latter capacity, according to the custom of the country, he took a title as Lord Kames,—was conspicuous in the brilliant literary society of Edinburgh, and wrote several metaphysical and ethical treatises, the best of which is "The Elements of Criticism."

KANE, ELISHA KENT, was born at Philadelphia, Feb. 3d, 1820. The most remarkable trait of his boyhood was a love for feats of daring and difficulty. He resorted to the University of Virginia for a collegiate education, but was arrested midway in the course by startling manifestations of the disease which finally ended his life. For a long time his life was despaired of by his family, and when he recovered it was only to be informed that he might at any moment fall as suddenly as from a musket-shot. He was now in his eighteenth year, and about to commence the serious business of life with the knowledge that he had in his system a fatal disease which might suddenly terminate his earthly career at a moment's warning, and which was sure to be always a source of pain and suffering. His father said to him, "Elisha, if you must die, die in the harness," and he resolved to act in conformity with the advice, which was, in reality, a matter of necessity, for inaction was more injurious to him than constant exposure to dangers, and he found that the only way to combat with his enemy was to keep himself incessantly employed. There is the best authority for the opinion, according to his biographer, that his ailments had always in them a preponderating character of neuropathic disturbance. Even when he was com-

paratively free from the acute form of rheumatic disorder, his nerves were tingling and rioting with irritation. But in the midst of this nervous rioting he was calm, sedate, serious, and thoughtful. His friends believing that his disease rendered him unfit for the profession of an engineer, for which he had been preparing, he began the study of medicine. In his twenty-first year he was elected resident physician in the Pennsylvania Hospital. He attended strictly to his duties for six months, while he was laboring under so severe an attack of cardiac disease as to be unable to sleep in a horizontal position, and never closing his eyes at night without the feeling that the chances were against his ever opening them again in this world. He distinguished himself by his inaugural thesis on "Kystein," which attracted attention even among the savans of Europe. His father, being satisfied that the routine of a physician's life would be fatal to his son's constitution, obtained for him, without his knowledge, an appointment as a surgeon in the navy. He was greatly indisposed to the place, and the position he held on shipboard was always odious to him. His aversion to a sea life amounted to detestation; but he yielded to his father's wishes, and after his examination prepared himself cheerfully for his new duties.

He was appointed upon the diplomatic staff as surgeon to the first American embassy to China in 1843, when Mr. Cushing was sent out as commissioner. On the voyage out he had the advantage of stopping at Madeira and Rio Janeiro, at which latter place he improved his time by making an ascent of the eastern Andes, which rear their fantastic forms on the coast of Brazil. The notes which he made of this exploration were unhappily lost while he was traveling on the Nile. On the voyage from Rio to Bombay he employed himself assiduously in the study of navigation and modern languages. When the frigate arrived at Bombay, Mr. Cushing, who had gone out overland, intending to come on board at that port, had not come. Dr. Kane directly began to visit the caves of

Elephanta, and every other object of interest in the neighborhood, and then started on an elephant hunt in the island of Ceylon.

They reached Canton in July, 1844. Kane soon tired of the sluggishness of diplomacy in the celestial empire, and, obtaining leave of absence, set off to explore the Philippine Islands, which he effected mainly on foot. He was the first man who descended into the crater of Tael; lowered more than a hundred feet by a bamboo rope from the overhanging cliff, and clambering down some seven hundred more through the scoriæ, he made a topographical sketch of the interior of this great volcano, collected a bottle of sulphurous acid from the very mouth of the crater; and, although he was drawn up almost senseless, he brought with him his portrait of this hideous cavern, and the specimens which it afforded. The natives were much outraged at this impious invasion of the dwelling place of their deity, so that his life was also in peril from them.

After the departure of the embassy for home, he remained at Canton to establish himself as a physician; but, at the end of six months, he was brought down with the rice fever, and came near dying, recovering only after a long illness. He returned home overland. Before he reached Philadelphia, he had ascended the Himalayas, and triangulated Greece, on foot; he had visited Ceylon, the Upper Nile, and all the mythologic region of Egypt, traversing the route and making the acquaintance of the learned Lepsius, who was then prosecuting his archaeological researches. He twice narrowly escaped death; once in a skirmish with the Bedouins, in which he was wounded in the leg, and then from an attack of plague.

Dr. Kane would have resigned his post in the navy, had not honor forbidden this in view of the impending war with Mexico. He was ordered to the frigate United States, bound for the coast of Africa. Here he visited the slave factories, from Cape Mount to the river Bonny, and, through the infamous Da Souza, got access to the barracoons of Dahomey, and contracted, besides, the coast fever, from the effects of which he never wholly recovered. He came home invalided. Believing that his constitution was broken, and his health rapidly going, he called upon

President Polk, and demanded an opportunity for active service that might crowd the little remnant of his life with achievements in keeping with his ambition. He was charged with dispatches to Gen. Scott, of great moment and urgency, which must be carried through a region occupied by the enemy. Landed at Vera Cruz, he asked for an escort to convey him to the capital, but the officer in command had no troopers to spare: he must wait, or he must accept, instead, a band of ruffian Mexicans called the spy company, who had taken to the business of treason and trickery for a livelihood. He accepted them, and went forward. Near Puebla his troops encountered a body of Mexicans escorting a number of distinguished officers to Orizaba, among whom were Gen. Gaona, governor of Puebla, his son Maximilian, and Gen. Torejon, who commanded the brilliant charge of horse at Buena Vista. The surprise was mutual, but the spy company had the advantage of the ground. At the first instant of the discovery, and before the rascals fully comprehended their involvement, the doctor shouted in Spanish, "Bravo! the capital adventure! colonel, form your line for the charge!" And down they went upon the enemy; Kane and his gallant Kentucky charger ahead. Understanding the principle that sends a tallow candle through a plank, and that the momentum of a body is its weight multiplied by its velocity, he dashed through the opposing force, and turning to engage after breaking their line, he found himself fairly surrounded, and two of the enemy giving him their special attention. One of these was disposed of in an instant by rearing his horse, who, with a blow of his fore-foot, floored his man; and wheeling suddenly, the doctor gave the other a sword wound, which opened the external iliac artery, and put him *hors de combat*. This subject of the doctor's military surgery was the young Maximilian. The brief melee terminated with a cry from the Mexicans, "We surrender." Two of the officers made a dash for an escape: the doctor pursued them, but soon gave up the chase. When he returned, he found the ruffians preparing to massacre the prisoners. As he galloped past the young officer whom he had wounded, he heard him cry, "Senor, save my father." A

group of the guerilla guards were dashing upon the Mexicans, huddled together, with their lances in rest. He threw himself before them; one of them transixed his horse, another gave him a severe wound in the groin. He killed the first lieutenant, wounded the second lieutenant, and blew a part of the colonel's beard off with the last charge of his six-shooter; then grappling with them and using his fists, he brought the party to terms. The lives of the prisoners were saved, and the doctor received their swords. As soon as General Gaona could reach his son, who lay at a little distance from the scene of the last struggle, the doctor found him sitting by him, receiving his last adieu. Shifting the soldier and resuming the surgeon, he secured the artery, and put the wounded man in a condition to travel. The ambulance got up for the occasion contained at once the wounded Maximilian, the wounded second lieutenant, and the man that had prepared them for slow traveling, himself on his litter, from the lance wound received in defense of his prisoners! When they reached Puebla, the doctor's wound proved the worst in the party. He was taken to the government house, but the old general, in gratitude for his generous services, had him conveyed to his own house. General Childs, the American commander at Puebla, hearing of the generosity of his prisoner, discharged him without making any terms, and the old general became the principal nurse of his captor and benefactor, dividing his attentions between him and his son, who lay wounded in an adjoining room. This illness of our hero was long and doubtful, and he was reported dead to his friends at home.

After the war was ended, he was sent to the Mediterranean in the store-ship *Supply*, and, while on this voyage, was seized with an attack of tetanus, the most terrible of all disorders, when, to use his own expression, his body felt as though it was composed of fiddle-strings, and a host of devils were tuning him up. He had not the faintest hope of recovering from this disorder, but he did, and returned to Norfolk, not quite dead, in September, 1849. After a brief rest at home, he was employed in the coast survey.

He was bathing in the tepid waters of the Gulf of Mexico, on the 12th of May, 1850, when he received his telegraphic order to

proceed forthwith to New York, for duty upon the Arctic expedition. In nine days from that date he was beyond the limits of the United States on his dismal voyage to the polar seas. Of this first American expedition in search of Franklin, he was the surgeon, naturalist, and historian. It returned, after an absence of sixteen months, for nine of which it had been fast in the ice, without accomplishing the generous object for which it had gone. The commander of this expedition, Lieutenant De Haven, had never even heard of Doctor Kane until they met for the first time in the navy yard at Brooklyn, the day before they set sail. When he took the measure of the man upon whom the health of himself and crew must depend, he felt a misgiving that he was not the right man for the place; if there had been time, he would have requested the department to exchange him for some more promising person. He made up his mind to send the feeble-looking little doctor back as soon as he got to Greenland, if he should hold out so long. The doctor was as usual sea-sick. When they touched at Whale-fish Island, after having been thirty-one days at sea, an English transport ship was found there, in which De Haven benevolently proposed to send the doctor home as an invalid. The doctor looked at the commanding officer in blank dismay, and firmly said, "I won't go." De Haven soon knew him better.

Immediately after his return, Kane set about organizing a second expedition. Of this he was the commander. He left New York, in the *Advance*, a brig of 120 tons, May 30th, 1853, his destination being the highest point attainable through the northward of Baffin's Bay, in search of Sir John Franklin. He found a temperature of 100° below the freezing point, and verified by actual sight the fact of an open sea in this frigid region, which had long been questioned. The farthest point attained was a precipitous headland, named Cape Independence, in lat. $81^{\circ} 22' N.$, and long. $65^{\circ} 35' W.$ From it the western coast was seen stretching to the north, with an iceless horizon, and a heavy swell rolling on with white caps. Two islands on the eastern threshold of this sea were named after Sir John Franklin and his companion, Captain Crozier. On the west,

the coast was observed to be mountainous, and the farthest distinctly sighted point was a lofty mountain, estimated to be in lat. $82^{\circ} 30'$, and long. 66° west (approximate), which Dr. Kane proposed to name after Sir Edward Parry, who, "as he has carried his name to the most northern latitude yet reached, should have in this, the highest known northern land, a recognition of his pre-eminent position among Arctic explorers."

The winter of 1854 passed with many trials, and in the following summer it became necessary to abandon the brig and retreat. On the 17th of May, Dr. Kane commenced his return in sledge-boats. On the 6th of August, in eighty-three days after leaving the ship, through many perils and escapes, he arrived at Upernavik, where the Danish authorities gave him a cordial welcome. He returned to New York on the 11th of October, 1855, after an absence of thirty months. Anxiety had begun to be felt for the safety of his party, and in the spring an expedition had been sent out for its relief, under command of Lieut. Hartstene. Kane and Hartstene fell in with each other, Sept. 18th, and returned to New York together. The thrill of delight which greeted the former's appearance was saddened by the low state of his health. He visited England, hoping to be recuperated by the journey. Lady Franklin had hoped he might lead yet one more party upon the search which her devoted heart could not yet give over. But Kane's strength sank lower and lower. A resort to the mild clime of Cuba was of no avail. He died at Havana, Feb. 16th, 1857.

Dr. Kane was five feet six inches in height, and in his best health weighed about one hundred and thirty-five pounds. His complexion was fair, and his hair soft and silken, of a dark chestnut color. His eyes were dark gray, but lustrous, with a wild light, when his feelings were excited; and when he was in the torrent-tide of enraptured action, the light beamed from them like flashing scimitars, and in an impassioned moment they gleamed frightfully. In company, when the talk ran glib, and everybody would be heard, he was silent, but terse and elastic as a steel spring under pressure. He had a way of looking attentive, docile, and as interested as a child's fresh wonder; but no one would

mistake the expression for the admiration of inexperience or incapacity; yet it cheated many a talker into a self-complaisance that lost him the opportunity of learning something of the man he wanted to know. Idle curiosity never made anything of him, and he did nothing at gossip; but inquiry with an aim was never disappointed.

His biographer, Dr. Elder, asked him once, after his return from his last Arctic expedition, "for the best proved instance that he knew of the soul's power over the body; an instance that might push the hard-baked philosophy of materialism to the consciousness of its own idiocy." He paused a moment, and then said with a spring, "The soul can lift the body out of its boots, sir. When our captain was dying,—I say dying, I have seen scurvy enough to know,—every old scar in his body was a running ulcer. If conscience festers under its wounds correspondingly, hell is not hard to understand. I never saw a case so bad that either lived or died. Men die of it usually long before they are so ill as he was. There was trouble aboard; there might be mutiny. So soon as the breath was out of his body we might be at each others' throats. I felt that he owed even the repose of dying to the service. I went down to his bunk, and shouted in his ear, 'Mutiny, captain, mutiny!' He shook off the cadaveric stupor: 'Set me up,' he said, 'and order these fellows before me.' He heard the complaint, ordered punishment, and from that hour convalesced. Keep that man awake with danger, and he wouldn't die of anything until his duty was done."

Kane was a Christian gentleman. Dr. Elder makes a declaration which few biographers can make: "Bless the memory of the man for the happiness I have this day, in declaring that I have not been obliged to suppress a letter or a line for the sake of his fame." His brief life was crowded with action and adventure. He visited India, Africa, Europe, South America, the islands of the Pacific, and twice penetrated the Arctic region to the highest latitudes attained by civilized man. He encountered the extremest perils of sea and land, in every climate of the globe; he discharged in turn the severest duties of the soldier and the seaman; attached to the United States navy as a surgeon, he

nevertheless engaged at one time in the coast survey of the tropical ocean, and in a month or two we find him exploring the frigid zone; and all the while that his personal experiences had the character of romantic adventure, he was pushing them in the spirit of scientific and philanthropic enterprise, while suffering from an organic disease which might snap his thread of life at any moment.

KANSAS was organized as a territory of the United States in 1854. It includes a vast tract of country, stretching west to the crests of the Rocky Mountains; but its richest part lies along the western boundary of Missouri, and thence westward for a hundred and fifty miles. This district is watered by the Missouri, the Kansas and its tributaries, and by the many headwaters of the Osage and the Arkansas; it is a prairie country, the timber being chiefly confined to the banks of the streams; though these are so numerous that the unwooded tracts are seldom more than five miles across. The prairies are all rolling, and in some spots hilly. The soil is a rich, black loam. Coal crops out on many of the water-courses, and may be found to be abundant. The climate of Eastern Kansas resembles that of Kentucky and Missouri: it is warm in summer, and in winter mild, with now and then a few severe frosty and stormy days and nights. The wet season is in May and June, when the rivers fill, and some overflow their banks. The fall is the driest season of the year. Snow in winter rarely exceeds two or three inches in depth, and soon disappears. The greater part of the territory is salubrious, being high and dry. The low, marshy grounds form but a small portion of Kansas, and consequently there is but little danger from malaria.

The face of the country is a continual succession of undulating ridges and valleys. In the western section, there is every variety of soil and aspect, and the scenery rises to great sublimity and grandeur. There are sparkling streams and placid lakes, and an amount of water-power surpassing that of any settled portion of the United States.

The area is 114,793 square miles.

Kansas is a portion of the great tract of country ceded to the United States by France in 1803, known as the Louisiana purchase, and including also the states of Louisiana,

Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, and Minnesota, and the Indian and Nebraska territories. After the adoption of the policy of Indian removals, the domain of Kansas, except a small part reserved for the original inhabitants, was set apart as the abode of bands who had been removed from their ancient hunting grounds east of the Mississippi. Here were placed the Wyandots, the Potawatomes, the Kickapoos, the Shawnees, and other tribes, the smoke of whose wigwams once wreathed among the forests and prairies north-west of the Ohio. Some of these Indians became partly civilized, had farms, and lived much in the fashion of the poorer class of Western settlers. They had been induced to remove hither by the promise that this should be their permanent home. But the overland emigration to Oregon and California, passing directly through their territory, made its value known; the tide of emigration reached the border; the fine country was seen with greedy eyes; and the necessity of a communication with the Pacific shore, and of a settled country along the road, gave a plausible excuse for a speedy occupation. Treaties were concluded with several of the Indian tribes, by which large tracts were opened to settlers; and in May, 1854, the territories of Kansas and Nebraska were organized by act of Congress. The violent contest that sprang up between proslavery men and the friends of free labor to obtain the shaping of the destiny and institutions of this fertile empire, impelled an unprecedented tide of emigrants over the borders, while it led to many cruel wrongs and unhappy disorders. Civil war desolated the infant settlements, and the blood of freemen was poured upon the soil.

In 1858 gold was discovered at Pike's Peak, among the mountains in the western section of the territory. A large emigration rushed thither the next spring. Multitudes returned disappointed, penniless, and starving. The final result of the Kansas struggle was, that it was admitted to the Union as a free state, Jan. 29, 1861. Its capital is Topeka, and its population in 1860 was 107,206.

Leavenworth, on the Missouri, three miles below Fort Leavenworth, is the largest town in Kansas; it contains 10,000 inhabitants. Lawrence has 5,000 inhabitants.

KANT, IMMANUEL, a distinguished metaphysician, was born at Königsberg, in Prussia, April 21st, 1724, and there resided during his long and tranquil life, dying Feb. 24th, 1804.

KARS, a town of Turkish Armenia, renowned for its defense by Gen. Williams with 15,000 Turks, three months' provisions, and three days' ammunition, against the Russian general Mouravieff with an army of 40,000 infantry and 10,000 cavalry, from June 18th to Nov. 25th, 1855. The sufferings of the garrison were very great from cholera and want of food. On the 29th of September, the Russians assaulted, four times gaining the redoubt, and being as often driven back. Their loss was above 6,000; that of the garrison 800. They continued the siege, and on the 25th of November famine compelled the garrison to capitulate. The British government made the gallant defender a baronet, with the title, Sir William Fenwick Williams of Kars.

KATSBACH, a river of Silesia, near which a battle was fought Aug. 26th, 1813, between the Prussians under Blücher and the French under Macdonald. This was a part of the great conflict known as the battle of Dresden.

KAUFMAN, ANGELICA, an eminent French female painter; died 1807, aged sixty-seven.

KAUNITZ, WENCELAUS ANTHONY, Prince of, a great statesman of Austria, and the able counselor of Maria Theresa, born in 1711, died in 1794.

KEAN, EDMUND, one of the greatest tragedians that ever trod the English stage, was born in London, 1787. He came upon the boards while yet a lad, and his promise in elocution attracting the attention of Dr. Drury, that gentleman placed him at Eton, where he remained three years. After various provincial appearances, he made his debut as Shylock, at Drury Lane, Jan. 26th, 1814. The house was thin, but enough were present to render a verdict of fame, which crowded audiences thereafter stamped with approval. Kean visited America in 1820, and again soon after. The career of this meteor in the dramatic firmament was marked by many errors and weaknesses. The same impulsiveness in which they often originated, was the spring to profuse charities and large-hearted benevolence. He died in England, May 15th, 1833.

His son, Charles Kean, inherited a large share of his talents, while endowed with more prudence and stability.

KEATS, JOHN, was born in London, Oct. 29th, 1796, and in youth was apprenticed to a surgeon. The seeds of consumption were in his frame, and when "Endymion," his first poem, was savagely cut up in the *Quarterly Review*, such was the agony of the sensitive poet that he ruptured a blood vessel in the lungs. The disease progressed apace; it was not to be checked by the warm Italian clime to which he resorted; the poet "felt the daisies already growing over him," and died at Rome, Dec. 27th, 1820.

KEITH, JAMES, a field-marshal in the Russian service, was born in Scotland, in 1696. In 1715 he joined the Pretender, and was wounded at the battle of Sheriffmuir, but made his escape to France. From Paris he went to Spain, and obtained a command in the Irish brigade; but, on accompanying the Spanish embassy to Russia, he entered into the service of that state, was promoted to the rank of lieutenant-general, and invested with the order of the Black Eagle. By his skill Oczagora was taken; and, in the war with Sweden, he materially contributed to the victory of Wilmanstrand, and the taking of Åland. He had, afterward, a share in raising Elizabeth to the throne; but, not being rewarded according to his services, he left Petersburg for Prussia, where the king made him governor of Berlin, and field-marshal. He was killed at the battle of Hochkirchen, Oct. 14th, 1758. Such was the esteem he won, even from opponents, that Count Daun and Count Lacy, the Austrian commanders, wept at the sight of his lifeless remains, and ordered their burial with military honors.

KELLERMANN, FRANCIS CHRISTOPHER, Duke of Valmy, a general of the French revolution, was born at Strasburg, in 1735. His victory at Valmy, over the Austrians and Prussians, Sept. 20th, 1792, was the first of the series of victories the French were destined to win. After the fall of Napoleon, Kellermann made his peace with the restored dynasty, and died in 1820.

KEMBLE, JOHN PHILIP, was born in Lancashire, 1757. He came of a theatrical family: Roger, his father, was a country manager; Sarah, his sister, was Mrs. Siddons, than

which need more be said of her? Charles and Stephen, his brothers, were actors well liked. John, in his classic rendering of characters in tragedy, approached the greatness of his sister. He died at Lausanne, Feb. 26th, 1823, of a paralytic attack.

KENT, JAMES, one of America's greatest jurists, was a native of Dutchess county, N. Y., and born July 31st, 1763. He graduated at

Yale College in 1781, and, entering upon the study and practice of law, rose step by step, till in 1814 he was appointed chancellor of his native state. Attaining the age of sixty in 1823, a constitutional provision demanded his withdrawal from the chair he had adorned by his industry and decisions. He was afterward law professor in Columbia College, and died in 1847.



KENTUCKY has an area of 37,680 square miles; population in 1860, 1,155,681, including 225,483 slaves. In the east the country is rugged and hilly; the acclivities soften as you go westward, till they merge into almost a level plain along the Cumberland, Tennessee, and Mississippi Rivers. The greater portion of Kentucky is unsurpassed for fertility, but the region watered by the Licking, Kentucky, and Salt Rivers, is the garden of the state, exceeding in beauty of scenery and richness of soil, abounding with fine springs and streams, and sustaining the largest proportion of the wealth, population, and improvement. A substratum of limestone underlies all Kentucky, and as a consequence there are many large caverns, sinks, and subterranean waters. Some of the caves are of wonderful dimensions, as the Mammoth cave, in Edmonson country, whose magnificent avenues have been explored many miles, and still stretch into mysterious gloom for unknown spaces beyond. Streams flow through its recesses, and in their dark depths eyeless fish are found: what need of

eyes in waters over which broods the blackness of an eternal night!

The mineral resources of Kentucky have not yet been fully explored. Iron, ore, bituminous coal, and lime are frequent. Salt is cheaply made from the salt springs of the Kanawha region. These springs were called licks by the early settlers, since they were favorite resorts of the deer and other animals, who were fond of licking the saline efflorescences so abundant around them. The same name was applied to the sulphureted fountains that occur. Kentucky has made some advance in manufactures: bagging, bale-rope, and cordage are extensively made; the Bourbon whiskey is largely distilled from rye. Agriculture is the most prevalent occupation, and maize, wheat, hemp, and tobacco are the great staples. Cattle, horses, sheep, and swine are bred in great numbers.

Kentucky was originally a part of Virginia. Permanent settlements were begun within its limits in 1774. The border warfare with the Indians, in which the lives of the pioneers were often lost, gained it the

dreary name of 'the dark and bloody ground.' These dangers and trials sank gradually under the steady stream of immigration, and in 1792 Kentucky took her place in the Union. The present constitution was ratified in 1850. A normal school has been established at Lexington. The state institutions for the relief of the unfortunate consist of lunatic asylums at Lexington and Hopkinsville, a deaf-mute asylum at Danville, and a school for the blind at Louisville.

Kentucky sought to remain "neutral" in the rebellion, but was in fact on the side of the South. Bishop Polk fortified Columbus, Sept. 1861, on which Grant with a Union force instantly seized Paducah, and "neutrality" was at an end. The battle of Mill Spring, Jan. 19, 1862, gave the Unionists the command of eastern Kentucky, and the fall of Forts Henry and Donelson (Feb. 6 and 16, 1862,) forced Johnston to evacuate the center of the state and Polk the west of it at once; and the rebels after that time never did more than make incursions into it, secretly raise men and means among their numerous sympathizers within it, and use their aid in obtaining information.

Frankfort, the capital, on the right bank of the Kentucky River, surrounded by a picturesque amphitheatre of hills, had in 1853, 5,000 inhabitants. The beautiful town of Lexington is the oldest of the state. A party of hunters while encamped here first heard of the commencement of the Revolution at Lexington and Concord; hence the name; population in 1853, 12,000. The largest town in Kentucky is Louisville, founded in 1778, and christened two years after in honor of Louis XVI., the ally of America. Its commerce and manufactures are extensive, and in 1860 it had 68,033 inhabitants. Covington, Newport, and Maysville are other thriving towns.

KIDD, ROBERT, was sent out with an armed vessel to put down piracy, but the adage, 'set a rogue to catch a rogue,' did not work well, for he turned pirate himself. He was arrested at Boston, in 1699 sent to England, and there hung in 1701. The legends of treasures Kidd and his comrades buried and sunk along the New England coast or in the Hudson, have not died out even yet.

KILLICRANKIE, BATTLE OF, fought in Scotland July 17th, 1689, between the forces of William III., and the adherents of James II., commanded by Graham of Claverhouse, who fell in the moment of victory.

KING, RUFUS, a distinguished American diplomatist, orator, and statesman, born at Scarborough, Maine, in 1755, and was graduated at Harvard College, in 1777; after which he studied law under Theophilus Parsons of Newburyport. After having served a short time in the army, he commenced the practice of his profession, and obtained a seat in the congress of 1784. In 1787 he went from Massachusetts to the convention assembled for the purpose of framing a constitution, and in 1788 removed to New York city. The next year he was elected a member of the New York legislature, and chosen senator of the United States. In the spring of 1796, Mr. King was appointed by Washington minister plenipotentiary to the court of St. James, and continued in the discharge of the duties of his office until 1803, when he returned to this country. From 1813 to 1825 he was again in the federal senate. He was sent by Mr. Adams minister to England once more, but failing health compelled him to return. He died April 29th, 1827, in the seventy-third year of his age.

KING'S EVIL, supposed to be cured by the touch of the kings of England. This vulgar credulity had in the time of Charles II. arisen to such a height, that, in fourteen years, 92,107 persons were touched; and, according to Wiseman, the king's physician, they were nearly all cured! The first who touched for it was Edward the Confessor, 1058. The practice was dropped by George I.

KLEBER, JEAN BAPTISTE, a celebrated French general, born at Strasburg, in 1754. In the Austrian army he served against the Turks, and rose to the rank of lieutenant. He next enrolled himself under the banners of the French republic, and although he openly expressed his detestation of the policy of the revolutionary government, he experienced the favor of the directory, who were loath to part with so able a soldier. Of the nature of his command in Egypt, and the manner of his death, June 14th, 1800, we have already spoken. [See Egypt.]

KLE

KLOPSTOCK, FREDERICK, an eminent German poet, author of "The Messiah," born 1724, died 1803, aged seventy-nine.

KNELLER, Sir GODFREY, born at Lubeck about 1648, was a famous portrait painter in England in the days of the second Charles and James, and William III. He died in 1723.

KNIGHTHOOD, ORDERS OF. We have elsewhere given an account of the rise and decline of Chivalry, of the manner in which Tournaments were conducted, with sketches of the most famous orders, such as those of the Garter and the Bath, the Templars, and the knights of Malta. It will not be inappropriate, here, briefly to review the other important orders which gave a lustre to the institution of knighthood.

As regards those knights who, without any other addition, are thus styled, they are of the greatest antiquity. For according to the custom of the Romans (a gowned nation), who bestowed on each entering upon man's estate a virile gown, the Germans bestowed upon their young men, when fit to handle arms, armor and weapons. Tacitus speaks of this custom: "The manner was not for any one to take arms in hand, before the state allowed him as sufficient for martial service. And then in the very assembly of counsell either some one of the princes, or the father of the young man, or one of his kins folke, furnish him with a shield and a javelin. This with them standeth instead of a virile gown; this is the first honor done to youth; before this they seeme to be but part of a private house, but now within a while members of the commonweale." Hence the origin of knights, or, as they are termed in the German language, *knechts*; which was the simple form of creating a knight, used also in former times by the Lombards, the Franks, and the English, who are descended from the Germans.

Paulus Diaconus says that among the Lombards, "It is the custom for the king's son not to dine with his father, unless he have previously received arms from some foreign king." It is also recorded in the annals of the French nation, that the kings of the Franks gave arms to their sons and others, and girded them with a sword. King Alfred of England, when he dubbed his

nephew Athelstane a knight, gave him a scarlet mantle set with precious stones, and a Saxon sword with a golden scabbard. In the course of time, the English, before the arrival of the Normans, received their knightly arms with religious ceremonies. Ingulphus says: "He that was to be consecrated unto lawful warfare, should the evening before, with a contrite heart, make confession of his sins unto the bishop, abbot, monk, or priest, and being absolved, give himself to prayer, and lodge all night in the church, and on his going to hear divine service the next day, to offer his sword upon the altar: and after the gospel, the priest was to put the sword, being previously blessed, upon the knight's neck, with his benediction, and thus after he had heard mass again, or received the sacrament, he became a lawful knight." This custom did not become absolute among the Normans.

Kings were afterward accustomed to send their sons to neighboring courts to receive the honors of knighthood. Thus Henry II. sent to David, King of Scots; and Malcolm, King of Scots, to Henry II.; and Edward I. of England to the King of Castile. It was at this time also that to the sword and girdle, already in use, gilt spurs were added as an extra ornament, whence to this day knights are called in Latin *Equites aurate*. Moreover, they had the privilege of wearing and using a signet.

In the succeeding age, knights were created from their wealth. Concerning the creation of knights, Matthew Florilegus, in the time of Edward I., has written as follows: "The king for to augment and make goodly show of his expedition into Scotland, caused public proclamation to be made throughout England, that whosoever were to be made knights by hereditary succession, and had wherewith to maintain that degree, should present themselves in Westminster, at the feast of Whitsuntide, there to receive every one the ornaments of a knight (saving the equipage or furniture that belongeth to horses) out of the king's wardrobe. When as therefore there flocked thither to the number of three hundred gallant youths, the sons of earls, barons, and knights, purple liveries, fine silk scarfs, robes most richly embroidered with gold, were plentifully be-

stowed among them, according as was befitting each one: and because the king's palace (large though it were) was 'streited' of room for so great a multitude assembled, they cut down the apple-trees about the new temple in London, laid the walls along, and there set up pavilions and tents, wherein these noble young gallants might array and set out themselves one by one in their gorgeous and golden garments. All the night long also, these foresaid youths, as many as the place would receive, watched and prayed in the said temple. But the Prince of Wales, by commandment of the king his father, held his wake, together with the principal and goodliest men of this company, within the church of Westminster. Now such sound was there of trumpets, so loud a noise of minstrelsy, so mighty an applause and cry of those that for joy shouted, that the chanting of the convent could not be heard from one side of the quire to the other.

"Well, the morrow after, the king dubbed his son knight, and gave him the girdle of knighthood in his own palace, and therewith bestowed upon him the duchy of Aquitaine. The prince then, thus created knight, went directly into Westminster church for to grace with the like glorious dignity his peers and companions. But so great was the press of people thronging from the high altar, that two knights were thronged to death, and very many of them fainted, and were ready to swoon; yea, although every one of them had three soldiers at least to lead and protect him: the prince himself, by reason of the multitude pressing upon him, having divided the people by means of steeds of service, no otherwise than upon the high altar girt his foresaid companions with the orders of knighthood."

At present, a person on whom the title of knight is conferred, kneels down, when the king, with his drawn sword, slightly taps him on the shoulder, saying to him in French, "*Sois chevalier au nom de Dieu*," that is, "Be thou a knight in the name of God;" afterward his majesty adds, "*Avancez, chevalier*," "Arise, sir knight."

The honor of knighthood was formerly so highly and sacredly prized that if anything was promised on the faith and honor of a knight, it was always performed in the most

scrupulous and punctilious manner, at whatever risk it was undertaken. When a knight was disgraced for having offended the laws, and sentenced to suffer death, he was first despoiled of his ensigns of knighthood, by taking off his military girdle, taking away his sword, cutting his spurs off with a hatchet; his gauntlets or gloves were then torn from him, and the escutcheon of his arms reversed.

The first account (according to Sir William Segar) that we have of ceremonies in making a knight in England, was in the year 506. A stage was erected in some cathedral, or spacious place near it, to which the gentleman was conducted to receive the honor of knighthood. Being seated on a chair decorated with green silk, it was demanded of him if he were of good constitution, and able to undergo the fatigue required of a soldier; also, whether he was a man of good morals, and what credible witnesses he could produce to affirm the same.

Then the bishop, or chief prelate of the church, administered the following oath: "Sir, you that desire to receive the honor of knighthood, swear, before God and this holy book, that you will not fight against his majesty, that now bestoweth the honor of knighthood upon you; you shall also swear to maintain and defend all ladies, gentlemen, widows, and orphans; and you shall shun no adventure of your person in any way where you shall happen to be."

The oath being taken, two lords led him to the king, who drew his sword, and laid it upon his head, saying, "God and Saint George [or whatever other saint the king pleased to name] make thee a good knight." After this, seven ladies dressed in white, came and girt a sword to his side, and four knights put on his spurs. These ceremonies being over, the queen took him by the right hand, and a duchess by the left, and led him to a rich seat, placed on an ascent, where they seated him, the king sitting on his right hand, and the queen on his left. Then the lords and ladies sat down upon other seats, three descents under the king; and being all thus seated, they were entertained with a delicate collation; and so the ceremony ended.

If any knight absented himself dishonorably from his king's service, leaving his colors, going over to the enemy, betraying castles, forts,

&c., for such crimes he was apprehended, and caused to be armed, and then seated on a scaffold erected in the church; where, after the king had sung some funeral psalms, as though he had been dead, they first took off the knight's helmet to show his face, then his military girdle, broke his sword, cut off his spurs from his heels with a hatchet, pulled off his gauntlets, and afterward his whole armor, and then reversed his coat of arms. After this the heralds cried out, "This is a disloyal miscreant," and, with many other ignoble ceremonies, he was thrown down the stage with a rope.

The Knights of the Thistle is a Scotch order. As to the origin of this ancient order, John Lesly, Bishop of Ross, in his "History of Scotland," says it took its beginning from a bright cross in heaven, like that whereon St. Andrew the apostle suffered martyrdom, which appeared to Achaius, King of Scots, and Hungus, King of the Picts, the night before the battle was fought betwixt them and Athelstane, King of England, as they were on their knees at prayer; when St. Andrew, their tutelary saint, is said also to have appeared, and promised to these kings that they should always be victorious when that sign appeared. These kings prevailing over Athelstane in battle the next day, they went in solemn procession, barefooted, to the kirk of St. Andrew, to return thanks to God and his apostle for their victory, vowing that they and their posterity would ever wear the figure of that cross in their ensigns and banners. The place where this battle was fought retains to this day the name of Athelstane's Ford, in Northumberland. James V. of Scotland, in 1534, received the order of the Golden Fleece from the Emperor Charles V.; as also that of St. Michael from Francis I. of France, in 1535, and that of the Garter in 1536, from Henry VIII. of England; and in memory of the reception of these orders, keeping open court, he solemnized the several feasts of St. Andrew, the Golden Fleece, St. Michael, and St. George of England, that the several princes might know how much he honored their orders. He set the arms of the princes (encircled with their orders) over the gates of his palace at Linlithgow, with the order of St. Andrew. About the time of the reformation this order was scarcely used, the knights then being so

zealous for the reformed religion, that they left their order; and it was not resumed till the reign of James VII. (II. of England), who created eight knights, and for their better regulation, signed a body of statutes, and appointed the royal chapel at Holyrood to be the chapel of the order, as it still continues. Queen Anne restored this order to its ancient magnificence.

The order of Knights of St. Patrick was instituted by George III., Feb. 5th, 1783, consisting of the sovereign, a grand master, a prince of the blood royal, thirteen knights, and seven officers. The first investiture of knights of this order was performed the 11th of March, 1783, with much ceremony. Motto, *Quis separabit?* "Who shall part us?"

The order of Knights of St. Michael and St. George was instituted April 27th, 1818, for the united states of the Ionian Islands, and for the ancient sovereignty of Malta and its dependencies, consisting of eight knights-grand-crosses, twelve knights-commanders, and twenty-four knights, exclusive of British subjects holding high and confidential employ in the Ionian Islands, and in the government of Malta and its dependencies. Motto, *Auspicium melioris ævi*. Ribbon, red with blue edges.

The order of knights bachelors is the most ancient, though the lowest, in England. It was accounted the first of all military dignity, and the foundation of all honors. The word bachelor was added by Henry III., and the order so styled, because this title of honor dies with the person to whom it is given, and descends not to his posterity.

We must not omit some account of the Knights of the Round Table. Arthur, King of the Britons, succeeded his father, Uthur Pendragon, who was brother to Aurelius Ambrosius, the third son of Constantine. Uthur married Igren, Duchess of Cornwall, by whom he had this son Arthur (born at Tindagal in Cornwall), who was the eleventh king of England from the departure of the Romans, and was crowned about the year 506. King Arthur, having expelled the Saxons from England, conquered Norway, Scotland, and the greatest part of France, where he was crowned at Paris; and, returning home, lived with such splendor, that many princes and knights came from all parts to his court, to give proof of

their valor in the exercise of arms. Upon this he erected a fraternity of knights, which consisted of four and twenty, of whom he was chief; and to avoid controversies about precedence, he caused a round table to be made, from which they were denominated Knights of the Round Table. The said table, according to tradition, hangs up in the castle of Winchester, where they used to meet; the time of their meeting was at Whitsuntide.

None were admitted but those who gave sufficient proofs of their valor and dexterity in arms. They were to be always well armed for horse or foot; "they were to protect and defend widows, maidens, and children, relieve the distressed, maintain the Christian faith, contribute to the church; to protect pilgrims, advance honor, and suppress vice; to bury soldiers that wanted sepulchres; to ransom captives, deliver prisoners, and administer to the cure of wounded soldiers, hurt in the service of their country; to record all noble enterprises, that the fame thereof may ever live to their honor and the renown of the noble order." Upon any complaint made to the king, of injury or oppression, one of these knights, whom the king should appoint, was to revenge the same. If any foreign knight came to court, with desire to show his prowess, some one of these knights was to be ready in arms to answer him. If any lady, gentlewoman, or other oppressed and injured person did present a petition, declaring the same, whether the injury was done here, or beyond sea, he or she should be graciously heard, and, without delay, one or more knights should be sent to take revenge. Every knight, for the advancement of chivalry, should be ready to inform and instruct young lords and gentlemen in the exercises of arms. According to Guillim, there was no robe or habit prescribed unto these knights, nor could he find with what ceremony they were made, neither what offices belonged to the said order, except a register to record their noble enterprises.

In June, 1757, the Empress-Queen of Germany instituted the Military Order of Maria Theresa, which was at first composed of an unlimited number of knights, divided into two classes; the first of which wear the badge of the order pendent to a broad striped watered ribbon, of which two-fifths are black and three-fifths yellow, sashways over the

right shoulder, and a cross or star embroidered in silver on the left breast of their outer garment. The second class wear the badge pendent to a narrow striped ribbon at the button-hole. This order continued from its first institution until the year 1765, when the emperor added an intermediate class, styled knights-commanders, who wear the ribbon sashways, but without any star on the outer garment. The badge of the order is a cross of gold, enameled white, edged with gold; on the centre are the arms of Austria encircled with the word *fortitudine*, and on the reverse is a cipher of the letters M. T. F. (*Maria Theresa Fundator*) in gold, on an enameled ground. This order is conferred on military men only.

The Ladies' Order in Honor of the Cross is another German order. A conflagration which happened at the emperor's palace in the year 1668, was the occasion of the foundation of this order. The badge of the order is a golden medal chased and pierced; in the centre the imperial eagle, over all a cross surmounted with the letters I. H. S., and a small cross over the H., with this motto, *Salus et Gloria*, "Safety and Glory."

Eleonora di Gonzaga, widow of the Emperor Ferdinand III., instituted the order of Ladies Slaves to Virtue in 1662, and declared herself sovereign of it. The number that compose it is limited to thirty, all to be of the Romish religion, and of the best nobility. The badge worn by the ladies of this order is a golden sun, encircled with a chaplet of laurel, enameled green, with this motto over it, *Sola ubique triumphat*. It is worn pendent at the breast to a small chain of gold, or a plain narrow black ribbon.

The order of the Bear was instituted at the abbey of St. Gall, in Switzerland, by the Emperor Frederick II., in the year 1213. St. Ursus, being the patron of it, communicated the name to the same; it flourished from its institution until the revolution by which the house of Austria lost the Swiss cantons, when it was abolished. The collar was a gold chain interlaced with oak leaves, from which hung the figure of a black bear on a medallion.

The order of the Elephant is a Danish order of great celebrity. It was instituted by Christian I., on the marriage of his son John with Christina of Saxony, in the year 1478,

since which time it has subsisted without interruption or degradation. It is now conferred only on princes of the blood, foreign princes, or noblemen of the first rank. The knights of it are addressed by the title of excellency. On ordinary occasions they wear the badge of the order pendent to a sky-blue watered ribbon, worn sashways over the right shoulder, and a star of eight points embroidered in silver on the left side of their outer garments. But on days of ceremony they wear it pendent to a collar of gold composed of elephants and towers. The badge is an elephant, on his back a castle enameled, and on the side of the elephant a cross of Danebrog in diamonds.

The order of the Holy Ghost was the most illustrious order of knighthood in France. It was instituted by Henry III., in the year 1579, on Whitsunday, the festival on which he was born in the year 1551, elected King of Poland in 1573, and called to the throne of France in the year 1574. The number of persons that composed it was limited by the statutes to one hundred, exclusive of the sovereign or grand-master. Of these, four cardinals, five prelates, the chancellor, the master of the ceremonies, the treasurer, the register, and the provost, were styled commanders, without being considered as knights, though they usually wore the badges of the order. All were to profess the Roman Catholic religion; and the knights were to prove the nobility of their descent for a hundred years and upward; but no proofs of this kind were required of the commanders, whose offices or honors were commonly sold at a regulated price. The King of France was sovereign or grand-master of it; and by the statutes this office was inalienably annexed to the crown, but he could not exercise its functions until after his coronation, when he was installed, with much ceremony, as sovereign of the order. To be a knight of it, it was necessary, for all except princes of the blood, to have attained the age of thirty-three, and to have been admitted into the order of St. Michael, into which even the princes must enter at sixteen years old. The dauphin only was excepted from this rule, he being received into both orders on the day of his birth. The commanders were not knights of the order of St. Michael, and here arises the difference between their styles and titles and those by which the knights were distinguished; the

knights being called *Chevaliers des Ordres du Roy*; and the commanders, if ecclesiastics, *Commandeur de l'Ordre du St. Esprit*; if laymen, *Commandeur des Ordres du Roy*.

The Royal and Military Order of St. Louis was instituted by Louis XIV. in the year 1693, and by the statutes of it the office of the sovereign or grand-master was annexed to the crown. It was conferred on naval and military officers, who had distinguished themselves in the service at any age or at any time; but, unless they had done so, they did not obtain it until they had served five and twenty years as commissioned officers: after that period, they expected it as a matter of right, more than of favor; hence it happened that the number of knights was great and unlimited. In this order were three classes; the first of forty knights, who were styled *Chevaliers Grand Croix*. They wore a flame-colored watered ribbon sashways, to which was pendent a cross of eight points, enameled white, edged with gold; in the angles four fleurs de lis, and on the middle a circle, within which on one side was the image of St. Louis in armor, with the royal mantle over it, holding in his left hand a crown of thorns, and in his right hand a crown of laurel, and the three passion nails, all proper, with this inscription, *Ludovicus Magnus institui anno 1693*; on the reverse a sword erect, the point through a chaplet of laurel, bound with a white ribbon, enameled with this motto, *Bellicæ virtutis præmium*: besides which they wore, embroidered on the left side of their outer garment, a gold star of eight points with fleurs de lis at the angles and the figures of St. Louis, with the motto on the centre. The second class were eighty in number, and were styled *Chevaliers commandeurs*, &c. These wore the ribbon and badge in the same manner as the knights of the former class, but had no star embroidered on their outer garment. The third class was not limited to any number, and the knights of it were styled simply *Chevaliers de l'Ordre Royale et Militaire de St. Louis*. These wore the badge of the order pendent to a flame-colored watered ribbon, at the button-hole of their outer garment. The knights of the first class had pensions of from four to six thousand livres a year, and when a vacancy happened among them, it was filled by the

next seniority of the second class. The knights of the second class had pensions of from three to four thousand livres a year, and the vacancies that happened among them were filled up by the king, from among the most favored and deserving of the third class. The knights of the third class had no pensions of right, but it frequently happened that the poorest and the most distinguished of them obtained small pecuniary favors, which they termed *gratification*. It was not necessary to be of a noble family to be admitted into this order; nor did it ennoble the family of the person who obtained it, though it gave him the privileges of the *noblesse*, and if there were three knights of it, in regular succession, in a plebeian family, it ennobled all the branches of it. All knights of this order must be Roman Catholics.

The knights of the order of Bourbon were sometimes called knights of the Thistle, and knights of Our Lady. They were in number twenty-six, were instituted by Louis the Good, Duke of Bourbon, in honor of the Virgin Mary, in the year 1370, and became extinct soon after. Their motto was *Allons*, and on their collar was the word *Esperance*.

The order of the Death's Head was first instituted by the Duke of Wurtemberg, in the year 1652, and both sexes were equally admitted to it; but, having soon fallen into disuse, it was revived again in the year 1709, by Louise Elizabeth, widow of Philip, Duke of Saxe Mersburg, and daughter of the original founder. The badge of this order is a death's-head, enameled white, surmounted with a cross pattée black; above the cross pattée another cross composed of five large jewels, by which it hangs to a black ribbon edged with white, and on the ribbon these words, *Memento Mori*, worn at the breast. But on the death of any of the order, the survivors wear the badge pendent to a black ribbon over a white one, on which is the name of the deceased.

Some of the orders of knighthood in Palestine and other parts of Asia were very celebrated. The order of the Holy Sepulchre in Jerusalem, according to Favin, was instituted by Baldwin I., King of Jerusalem, who made the regular canons (which then resided in a convent adjoining to the holy sepulchre) knights of the said order; they were to guard

the holy sepulchre, to relieve and protect pilgrims. The patriarch of Jerusalem was appointed their grand-master, with power for conferring the order, and receiving the vow made by the knights, which was of chastity, poverty, and obedience. Their habit was white, and on their breast a gold cross potence, cantoned with four crosses of the same without enamel, pendent to a black ribbon. They wore the cross of yellow embroidery on the left side of their robe. When the city of Jerusalem was taken by the Saracens, the knights retired to Italy, and settled at Pengia, and were afterward united to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem. [See MALTA, KNIGHTS OF.]

The Polish order of the White Eagle was first instituted in the year 1325, by Uladislaus V.; but, having soon fallen into disuse, it lay in oblivion till the year 1705, when Augustus, Elector of Saxony and King of Poland, revived it as an instrument to attach to his own interest and person several of the Polish nobility, who, he feared, were inclined to Stanislaus, his competitor. Motto, *Pro fide, rege, lege*.

Alphonso Henriquez, King of Portugal, instituted the order of the Wing of St. Michael in the year 1165, in commemoration of a victory obtained by him over the Moors, whom he imagined he overcame by the direct interposition of St. Michael, who, according to the legend, appeared fighting in the king's right wing.

The order of St. George in Rome was instituted, according to some, by Pope Alexander VI., in the year 1496, or, according to Michaeli, by Pope Paul III., to encourage naval men to defend the coast of the Adriatic against pirates. The badge of it was a cross of gold within a circle of the same, like an open crown.

The order of St. Peter and St. Paul was instituted by Leo X. in the year 1520, to defend the sea-coasts of his territories against the Turks who threatened them.

The order of the Black Eagle was instituted by Frederick I. of Prussia, at his coronation in the year 1701. By the statutes of it, the number of knights, exclusive of the princes of the blood, is limited to thirty, who must all be admitted into the order of Generosity previous to their receiving this,

unless they be sovereign princes; the knights to prove their nobility by sixteen descents. The kings of Prussia are perpetual grand-masters of it. There belong to it a chancellor, who is also a knight, a master of the ceremonies, and a treasurer. The ensign of the order is a gold cross of eight points enameled blue, having at each angle a spread eagle enameled black, and charged with a cipher of the letters F. R. This each knight wears commonly pendent to a broad orange ribbon, worn sashways over the left shoulder, and a silver star embroidered on the left side of their outer garment, whereon is an escutcheon containing a spread eagle, holding in one claw a chaplet of laurel, and in the other a thunderbolt, with this motto in gold letters round it, *Suum cuique*. The king chose the Black Eagle, being the arms of Prussia, and the color of the ribbon, on account of his mother, a Princess of Orange.

First among the Russian orders is that of St. Andrew. Peter the Great instituted this order in the year 1698, and chose for its patron St. Andrew (on account of this apostle's having been, according to tradition, the founder of Christianity among the Muscovites). His motive for instituting this order was to animate his nobles and chief officers in their wars against the Turks; and he conferred it on those who had signalized themselves in his service.

The order of the Sword in Cyprus was instituted by Guy de Lusignan, about the end of the twelfth century, soon after he had acquired the kingdom of Cyprus by purchase from Richard Cœur de Lion. This order was on its institution conferred on three hundred barons, who were then created: it continued to flourish until it became extinct on the Turks conquering the island of Cyprus. Motto, *Securitas regni*.

The most celebrated Spanish order was the Order of the Golden Fleece. This order was instituted at Bruges, in Flanders, the 10th of January, 1429 (the day of his marriage with his third wife, Isabella of Portugal), by Philip, Duke of Burgundy. The occasion of its institution is a subject of controversy among antiquaries: but it appears most probable, that, having determined to institute an order of knighthood, he chose for the badge of it the material of the staple manufactories of his

country, which was the fleece; and this emblem might have been the more agreeable to him from the figure it made in the heroic ages of the world, when the Argonautic expedition was undertaken for it. The order consisted of thirty-one knights, including the sovereign, who were of the first families in the Low Countries. The knights wore a scarlet cloak lined with ermine, with a collar opened, and the duke's cipher, in the form of a B, to signify Burgundy, together with flints striking fire, with the motto "*Ante ferit, quam flamma micat*." At the end of the collar hung a golden fleece, with this device, "*Pretium non vile laborum*." When the Netherlands fell to Spain, the king of that country was grand-master, and the order became common to all the princes of the house of Austria, as being descended from Mary of Burgundy, daughter of Charles the Bold, last duke of that country.

The order of St. Mark was conferred by the Doge of Venice, and by the senate, upon persons of eminent quality, or such as had deserved well of the state. In the year 828, the body of St. Mark was removed from Alexandria in Egypt (where it was buried) to the city of Venice. This saint was taken for their tutelar saint and guardian. His picture was anciently painted upon their ensigns and banners. Motto, *Pax tibi, Marce Evangelista Meus*.

The title of knight was sometimes given to women also. As an instance (the first we read of), it was conferred on the women who preserved the city of Tortosa from falling into the hands of the Moors in 1149, by their stout resistance to the attacks of the besieged, by which means the Moors were forced to raise the siege. Large immunities and favors were bestowed upon them and their descendants for their heroism on this occasion.

KNOX, JOHN, the celebrated Scotch reformer, was born in 1505, at Gifford, in the county of East Lothian. Though bred a friar, he early embraced the doctrines of the Reformation. He became tutor to some young gentlemen whom he carefully brought up in Protestant principles. Notwithstanding his life was sought by Cardinal Beaton, and his successor, Archbishop Hamilton, Knox went on propagating the new doctrines; and, in 1547, preached publicly at St. An-

drews; but that place being taken the same year by the French, he was carried off with the garrison. In 1549 he recovered his liberty, and landed in England, where he was appointed chaplain to Edward VI. On the accession of Mary, he went to Geneva and thence to Frankfort, where he took part with the English exiles who opposed the use of the liturgy; but their adversaries prevailing, Knox returned to Geneva, and soon after went to Scotland. While engaged in the ministry, he received an invitation to return to Geneva, with which he complied; and, in his absence, the bishops passed sentence of death on him for heresy. In 1558 he printed "The First Blast of the Trumpet against the Monstrous Regiment of Women," intended as an attack upon Mary of England and his own sovereign; but it had afterward the effect of provoking Queen Elizabeth and her ministers against the author. The year following he returned to his own country, where he rendered the Reformation triumphant. In 1567 he preached the sermon at the coronation of James VI. He died at Leith, Nov. 24th, 1572.

KNOX, HENRY, was born at Boston, July 25th, 1750. He was a bookseller before the Revolution, but volunteered and served at Bunker Hill. Throughout the war he had command of the artillery department, and distinguished himself by his bravery, particularly at Yorktown, after which he was created major-general by Congress. As secretary of war, he served eleven years. His death took place Oct. 25th, 1806, at Thomaston, Maine.

KORAN. The Koran, or Alcoran (Al Koran), of Mahomet was written about A.D. 610. Its general aim was to unite the professors of idolatry and the Jews and Christians in the worship of one God (whose unity was the chief point inculcated), under certain laws and ceremonies, exacting obedience to Mahomet as the prophet. It was written in the Koreish Arabic, and this language, which possesses every fine quality, was said to be that of paradise. Mahomet asserted that the Koran was revealed to him during a period of twenty-three years, by the angel Gabriel. The style of this volume is beautiful, fluent, and concise, and where the majesty and attributes of God are described, it is sublime and magnificent. Mahomet

admitted the divine mission both of Moses and Jesus Christ. The leading article of faith which he preached, is compounded of an eternal truth and a necessary fiction, namely, that there is only one God, and that Mahomet is the apostle of God. The Koran was translated into Latin in 1143, and into English and other European languages about 1763, *et seq.* It is a rhapsody of three thousand verses, divided into one hundred and fourteen sections.

KÖRNER, THEODORE, a celebrated German poet, born in 1791. Feeble and sickly during his early youth, he roamed the garden and forest in pursuit of health, and was not prematurely doomed to study. His earliest instructions were received at Freyburg, but he afterward went to Leipzig, which imprudent conduct compelled him to quit. The month of August, 1811, the date of Körner's arrival at Vienna, commenced the most important era of his life. Shielded by the purity of his principles and the strength of his religious convictions, he was uninfluenced by the fascinating allurements of that gayest and most light-hearted of cities; nor did he for a moment forget that the improvement of his literary taste, and the development of his moral character, was a primary object in his visit to Vienna. The brilliant talents which then encircled the Viennese theatres with a halo of brightness, fired the imagination of Körner, and he resolved to appear publicly as a candidate for the dramatic laurel. Sixteen pieces, of different kinds, composed or finished in the space of fifteen months, and the greater part performed with a success which far exceeded the expectations of the youthful poet, were, together with a few fugitive poems, the first fruits of his residence in a world which was completely literary, as well as the earliest proofs of his talent for easy versification. On the first representation of one of his tragedies, the audience demanded the appearance of the author, an honor to poetic talent rarely accorded in Vienna. Cherished and admired by the public, he was soon made the dramatic poet of the court. This appointment secured his worldly fortune, and, as if to fill his happiness to the brim, he was inspired by an ardent passion for a worthy object, and no dark shadow fell upon the tide of his affections.

Such was the enviable situation of Körner,

when, at the commencement of the year 1813, Prussia called upon her sons to win back for her the priceless guerdon of her national independence. This appeal found an echo in the bosom of the poet. From this moment, all his thoughts, all his affections, turned on the liberation of his country, to whose service he devoted his person and his pen, and to whom he was ready to sacrifice his life, his fortune, and his prospect of glory and love. As soon as he had resolved to fight for the emancipation of Germany, warmed with that enthusiasm which has ever been repaid with victory, he wrote thus to his father: "The Prussian eagle, extending his pinions, awakes in every bosom a hope of national liberty. At this moment, when the stars of fate are pouring down on me a flood of brightness, when all the fascinating joys of life are within my reach,—at this moment, I swear to God that it is a noble sentiment which animates me; a firm belief that no sacrifice is too great for the greatest of blessings, the liberty of our beloved country. I feel compelled to rush into the fury of the tempest. Shall I, far from the path of my victorious brethren, send them hymns and songs inspired by a safe and cowardly enthusiasm?"

He set out from Vienna on the 15th of March, and at Breslau was admitted into the corps of volunteers commanded by Lützow, whose care had formed the band that bore his name. Youth distinguished by the high tone of their sentiments, and the finish of their education; officers already known by honorable services; men of high rank and reputation, filled with a patriotic and religious enthusiasm,—had assembled in crowds beneath the banners of Lützow, burning to avenge the humiliation of Prussia. A few days after the admission of Körner, the affecting and inspiring ceremony of the consecration of Lützow's corps took place in the village church.

Ardent, brave, and devoted to his military duties, Körner avoided no fatigues and perils, but, on the contrary, was only wearied with inaction. He rose, by degrees, to the post of adjutant to Lützow, and owed this advancement only to the intrepidity and intelligence which he displayed on every occasion.

Still, poetry and song occupied his leisure moments; but instead of being his recreations, they had become his arms: his lyre was no less formidable than his sword. The events of the day, his personal emotions, and the patriotism of his country are displayed in his verses.

On the 26th of August, the corps of Lützow confronted the French at Kitzén. During an hour's halt in a forest, Körner composed his famous "Sword Song." At break of day he wrote it in his portfolio, and was reading it to a friend, when the signal for attack was given. The enemy, although superior in point of numbers, made but a brief resistance. Körner showed himself fiercely eager in the pursuit. Of a shower of balls which the French artillerists poured upon the Prussians, but three took effect, and one of these carried to the bosom of the poet, at the age of twenty-two, that glorious death which he had so poetically prophesied and so religiously desired. His mortal remains were interred by the wayside, at the foot of an oak, the tree whose leaves were employed by the ancient Romans to form their civic crowns.

KOSCIUSKO, THADDEUS, a Polish general, was born of a respectable family of Lithuania, in 1756, and was educated at the military school of Warsaw, after which he went to France, and next to America, where he served as aid-de-camp to Washington. On his return home he was made major-general, and distinguished himself in the war of 1792 against the forces of the royal thieves who had divided Poland among themselves. Two years afterward the Poles again took up arms, and were headed by Kosciusko; but all his exertions were fruitless, and he was made prisoner by the Russians. Catharine threw him into a dungeon; Paul released him, and tendered him his own sword, which the illustrious patriot declined: "I no longer need a sword, for I have no longer a country." Kosciusko visited America a second time, but, in 1798, returned to France, where he settled. Bonaparte vainly endeavored to procure his services. His death was occasioned by a fall with his horse down a precipice, in the vicinity of Vevay, Switzerland, Oct. 16th, 1817.

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LABOR. Some account of the wages which labor received in England in the olden time may not be uninteresting. The wages of sundry workmen were first fixed by act of parliament, 25th Edward III., 1352. Hay-makers had but one penny a day; a mower of meadows 5*d.* per day, or 6*d.* an acre. Reapers of corn, in the first week of August, 2*d.*, in the second 3*d.*, per day, and so till the end of August, without meat, drink, or other allowance, finding their own tools. A master carpenter 3*d.* a day, other carpenters 2*d.* per day; a master mason 4*d.* per day, other masons 3*d.* per day; and their servants 1½*d.* per day. By the 34th Edward III., 1361, chief masters of carpenters and masons, 4*d.* a day, and the others 3*d.* or 2*d.* as they are worth; 13th Richard II., 1389, the wages of a bailiff of husbandry 13*s.* 4*d.* per year, and his clothing once a year at most; the carter 10*s.*; shepherd 10*s.*; oxherd 6*s.* 8*d.*; cowherd 6*s.* 8*d.*; swineherd 6*s.*; a woman laborer 6*s.*; driver of plough 7*s.* From this up to the time of 23d Henry VI., the price of labor was fixed by the justices by proclamation. In time of harvest, a mower 4*d.* a day; without meat and drink 6*d.*; reaper or carter 3*d.* a day; without meat and drink 5*d.*; woman laborer, and other laborers, 2*d.* a day; without meat and drink 4½*d.* per day. By the 11th Henry VII., 1496, there was a like rate of wages, only with a little advance; as, for instance, a free mason, master carpenter, rough mason, bricklayer, master tiler, plumber, glazier, carver, joiner, was allowed from Easter to Michaelmas to take 6*d.* a day, without meat and drink, or with meat and drink 4*d.*; from Michaelmas to Easter to abate 1*d.* A master having under him six men was allowed 1*d.* a day extra. By the 6th Henry VIII., 1515, the wages of shipwrights were fixed as follows: a master ship-carpenter, taking charge of the work, having men under him, 5*d.* a day in the summer season, with meat and drink; other ship-carpenter, called a hewer, 4*d.*; an able clincher, 3*d.*; holder, 2*d.*; master caulker, 4*d.*; a mean caulker, 3*d.*; a day laborer, by the tide, 4*d.*

LA FAYETTE, GILBERT MOTTIER, Marquis de, was born at Chavagnac, near Brionde, in Auvergne, Sept. 6th, 1757. He was educated at Paris, appointed an officer in the guards of honor, and, at the age of sixteen, married the daughter of the Duke de Noailles. In 1777 he left France secretly, lest his generous scheme should be thwarted, and hastened to America, arriving at Charleston, S. C., to wield his sword in behalf of liberty. He received a command in the continental army, and raised and equipped a body of men at his own expense. The gallant actions which he performed will forever live in the annals of our country. In 1779 he returned to France, for the purpose of assisting the cause of America, and materially influenced the treaty which was then concluded with France. He returned and assumed the command of a body of 2,000 men, whose equipments were furnished partly at his own expense. After displaying chivalric gallantry, as at Yorktown, the young marquis once more set sail for his native country. In 1784 he complied with the various urgent entreaties to visit this country, and was everywhere received with the most touching marks of gratitude and esteem. During the French revolution he appeared the warm and consistent friend of liberty, but the enemy of licentiousness, and, as commander-in-chief of the national guard of Paris, saved the lives of the royal family at Versailles. He organized the club of Feuillans, in opposition to the infamous Jacobin club, the members of which he openly denounced. He was appointed, in 1792, one of the major-generals of the French armies, and vainly endeavored to save the king. His exertions in the cause of humanity procured his denunciation before the bar of the assembly; a price was set upon his head, and he was compelled to fly from France. But he was taken by the Austrians, and confined in the castle of Olmutz, until Aug. 27th, 1797, when he was released. La Fayette opposed the usurpations of Napoleon, whose conciliatory offers he refused without a single exception. In 1824, he was once

more the guest of the American nation. He landed at New York in August, and passed triumphantly through each of the states, being received everywhere with every demonstration of delight. The war-worn veterans of the Revolution hailed his return to the scenes of his earliest exploits, and there was not one dissentient voice in the acclamations which welcomed him. Sept. 7th, 1825, the frigate *Brandywine* restored him to his country. In the December following, Congress granted him \$200,000, and a township of land. During the French revolution of 1830, La Fayette was appointed general-in-chief of the national guards, an office which he resigned in December. The death of this great man was duly noticed both in France and this country. A political opponent, once out of the arena, was to La Fayette no longer anything but a friend; the circle of those admitted to share his private hospitality was so ample that it comprised the partisans of nearly every doctrine, and almost the natives of every clime; but no feeling was ever wounded, nor even a prejudice assailed, within its sacred limits. It was, doubtless, to this admirable feature in his private character that he owed much of the affectionate esteem with which every party regarded him, and which turned Paris—frivolous, volatile Paris—into a city of mourning at his death. He died May 21st, 1834, at the age of seventy-seven, of a malignant fever, occasioned by walking bareheaded at the funeral of M. Du-long, a member of the chamber of deputies.

LAMB, CHARLES, one of the quaintest humorists in modern literature, and the author of the genial and delightful "Essays of Elia," was a school-mate of Coleridge at Christ's Hospital. His life was passed as a clerk in the East India House, London. Crown Office Row in the Inner Temple was "the place of his kindly engender," Feb. 18th, 1775. He died at Enfield, in September, 1835.

LANGDON, JOHN, an American patriot, born at Portsmouth, N. H., in 1739, was bred up to the business of a merchant, and early entered into the cause of the colonies. In 1775 he took his seat in the general congress; in 1776 was appointed navy agent; in 1777 was speaker of the assembly of New Hampshire, and in 1785 president of the senate. He was afterward a senator in Con-

gress, and governor of New Hampshire. He died Sept. 18th, 1819.

LANNES, JOHN, marshal of France, and Duke of Montebello, was born in 1769, and in 1792 entered the army as sergeant-major. In Italy, Egypt, and Austria he raised himself in the estimation of Napoleon, and was created by him marshal of the empire. At the battle of Esslingen, May 22d, 1809, he lost both his legs by a cannon-ball, and expired a few days after.

LAOCOON. This exquisite piece of sculpture, one of the triumphs of Grecian art, was modeled by Agesander, Athenodorus, and Polydorus, all of Rhodes, and of great eminence as statuaries. It represents the death of the Trojan hero, Laocoön, priest of Neptune, and his two sons, in the folds of two monstrous serpents, as described by Virgil in the second book of the *Æneid*. It was discovered in 1506 in the Sette Sale near Rome, and purchased by Pope Julius II. It is now in the Vatican.

LA PEROUSE, JOHN FRANCIS GALAUP DE, a French navigator, born in Languedoc, in 1741, who, after making a successful voyage of discovery, was probably wrecked on one of the New Hebrides, in 1788.

LA PLACE, PIERRE SIMON, Marquis de, born near Honfleur in March, 1749, died at Paris, May 5th, 1827. He ranks among the greatest of mathematicians. The "Mecanique Celeste" is the monument of his mind's might.

LATIMER, HUGH, was born at Thurcaston, in Leicestershire, about 1470, the son of a respectable yeoman. He was bred in the Romish faith, but was led to change his views by Thomas Bilney, a strenuous advocate of the doctrines of Luther. Being an admired preacher, his influence was of great importance, and in consequence he soon became obnoxious to the papal party. The martyrdom of Bilney, at Norwich, served only to animate Latimer, who had the courage to write a letter of remonstrance to the king, on the evil of prohibiting the use of the Bible in England. Henry VIII. took this in good part, and presented the writer to the living of West Kingston, in Wiltshire; but this only redoubled the malice of his enemies, who were still more provoked at his elevation, in 1535, to the bishopric of Worcester; for

which he was indebted to the good offices of Anne Boleyn and Thomas Cromwell. Of his plain dealing, the following circumstance is a proof. It was then the custom for the bishops to make presents, on new year's day, to the king, and among the rest Latimer waited at court with his gift, which, instead of a purse of gold, was a New Testament, having the leaf turned down at a passage denouncing the ruling passion of the king. Henry, however, was not offended by this bluntness; and when, some time afterward, Latimer was called before him to account for a sermon which he had preached at court, he justified it so honestly that the monarch dismissed him with a smile.

But after the fall of Cromwell, his adversaries prevailed, and he was sent to the Tower for speaking against some measures of the king; and there he remained for the rest of Henry's reign. On the accession of Edward, he was released; but though he was now in favor at court, no arguments could induce him to resume the episcopal function. He resided with Cranmer at Lambeth; and when Mary ascended the throne, "Father Latimer," as he was generally called, was cited to appear before the privy-council, by whom he was sent to the Tower. On passing through Smithfield, he said, "This place has long groaned for me;" but he was not sacrificed there, the triumphant party ordering him to be conveyed to Oxford, with his friends, Ridley and Cranmer. There, after a mock conference and degradation, Latimer and Ridley were brought to the stake, Oct. 16th, 1555. On coming to the spot, Latimer said to his companion, "Be of good comfort, master Ridley, and play the man; we shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England as, I trust, shall never be put out."

LATINUS, a son of Fannus, by Marcia, and king of the Aborigines in Italy, who were called from him Latini. He married Amata, by whom he had a son and a daughter. The son died in his infancy, and the daughter, Lavinia, was secretly promised in marriage by her mother to Turnus, king of the Rutuli, one of her most powerful admirers. The gods opposed this union, and the oracle declared that Lavinia must become the wife of a foreign prince. The arrival of Æneas in

Italy seemed favorable to this prediction, and Latinus, by offering his daughter to the foreign prince, and making him his friend and ally, seemed to have fulfilled the commands of the oracle. Turnus, however, disapproving of the conduct of Latinus, claimed Lavinia as his lawful wife, and prepared to support his cause by arms. Æneas took up arms in his own defense, and Latium was the seat of war. After mutual losses, it was agreed that the quarrel should be decided by the two rivals, and Latinus promised his daughter to the conqueror. Æneas obtained the victory, and married Lavinia. Latinus soon after died, and was succeeded by his son-in-law about 900 B.C.

LAUD, WILLIAM, Archbishop of Canterbury, and a favorite minister of Charles I., was born at Reading in 1573. Of all the prelates of the time Laud departed farthest from the principles of the reformation, and drew nearest to Rome. His passion for ceremonies; his reverence for holidays, vigils, and sacred places; his ill-concealed dislike of the marriage of ecclesiastics; the ardent and not altogether disinterested zeal with which he asserted the claims of the clergy to the reverence of the laity,—would have made him an object of aversion to the Puritans, even if he had used only legal and gentle means for the attainment of his ends. But his understanding was narrow, and his commerce with the world had been small. He was by nature rash, irritable, quick to feel for his own dignity, slow to sympathize with the sufferings of others, and prone to the error, common in superstitious men, of mistaking his own peevish and malignant moods for emotions of pious zeal. Under his direction every corner of the realm was subjected to a constant and minute inspection. Every little congregation of separatists was tracked out and broken up. Even the devotions of private families could not escape the vigilance of his spies. Such fear did his rigor inspire, that the deadly hatred of the church, which festered in innumerable bosoms, was generally disguised under an outward show of conformity. On the very eve of troubles fatal to himself and to his order, the bishops of several extensive dioceses were able to report to him that not a single dissenter was to be found within their jurisdiction. His attempt to force the

liturgy upon Scotland hurried on the storm already muttering. Laud did not escape. Like Strafford, he was attainted, and on the 10th of January, 1644-5, he was beheaded on Tower Hill.

LAURENS, HENRY, was born at Charleston, S. C., in 1724. He was a merchant, and amassed an ample fortune by his industry. He was in London at the breaking out of the revolutionary troubles, but returned to America in 1774. In 1776 he took his seat in Congress, of which body he was president until 1778. In 1779 he was appointed minister plenipotentiary of the United States to Holland, but on his way was captured by the British and confined fourteen months in the Tower. He died Dec. 24, 1792, at nearly seventy years of age.

LAURENS, JOHN, lieutenant-colonel, son of the preceding, was educated in England, and joined the American army in 1777. In 1780 he was sent as a special minister to France; by his boldness in presenting to the king a memorial at the levee, he received a definite answer to his application for a loan, and it was satisfactorily arranged. His first essay in arms was at Brandywine. At the battle of Germantown he exhibited prodigies of valor, in attempting to expel the enemy from Chew's house, and was severely wounded. He was engaged at Monmouth, and greatly increased his reputation at Rhode Island. At Coosahatchie, defending the pass with a handful of men, against the whole force of Provost, he was again wounded, and was probably indebted for his life to the gallantry of Captain Wigg, who gave him his horse to carry him from the field, when incapable of moving, his own having been shot under him. He headed the light infantry, and was among the first to mount the British lines at Savannah; displayed the greatest activity and courage during the siege of Charleston; entered, with the forlorn hope, the British redoubt carried by storm at Yorktown, and received with his own hand, the sword of the commander; by indefatigable activity thwarted every effort of the British garrison in Charleston, confining them, for upward of twelve months, to the narrow limits of the city and neck, except when, under protection of their shipping, they indulged in distant predatory expeditions;

and, unhappily, at the very close of the war, too careless by exposing himself in a trifling skirmish, near Combahee, sealed his devotion to his country by death, Aug. 27th, 1781, at the early age of twenty-nine.

LAVALETTE, MARIE CHAMANS, Count de, was born in Paris, in 1769, of obscure parents; notwithstanding which he received a good education, became the aid-de-camp of Bonaparte,* and was intrusted with several important offices, besides being made a peer of France. In 1815, on the restoration of the Bourbons, he was tried, and condemned to death for high treason; but, the day before the execution, his heroic wife, who was permitted to visit him for a final farewell, changed clothes with him in prison, and the count passed the guard unnoticed, and entered the sedan-chair with his daughter. He found means to escape to Munich, but the government had the inhumanity to detain the countess in prison, which harshness deprived her of reason. Her husband was pardoned, and returned to France in 1821. Madame Lavalette was a niece of Josephine's first husband.

LAVATER, JOHN GASPAR, the great physiognomist, was born at Zurich in 1741, and was pastor of the chief church of that city. When Zurich in 1801 was taken by the French under Massena, Lavater was mortally wounded.

LAWRENCE, JAMES, was born at Burlington, N. J., in 1781. In 1798 he entered the navy as a midshipman, and, for his services in the Tripolitan war, was made first lieutenant. Feb. 24th, 1813, Lawrence, in command of the *Hornet*, took the British brig-of-war *Peacock*, after an action of fifteen minutes. June 1st, 1813, he sailed out of Boston harbor, in command of the frigate *Chesapeake*, to accept the challenge of Captain Brooke of the *Shannon*. The result might have been easily foretold. The *Chesapeake* was an inferior vessel, and her crew shipped upon the spur of the moment; while the *Shannon* was a fine vessel, well manned, with a crew in perfect training. Lawrence was mortally wounded, but survived the action four days. His last words, before he was carried below, were, "Don't give up the ship!" The flag of the *Chesapeake* was not hauled down until almost all her officers were killed or wounded.

LAWRENCE, Sir THOMAS, an eminent

portrait painter, born at Bristol, May 4th, 1769, died in London, Jan. 9th, 1830.

LEDYARD, JOHN, a celebrated American traveler, born at Groton, Connecticut, in 1751. At the age of nineteen he entered Dartmouth College, for the purpose of acquiring the information necessary for his becoming a missionary among the Indians. He acquired knowledge with great facility, but poverty forced his withdrawal from college. So ardent a desire did he have for travel, that he shipped as a sailor, went to Gibraltar, enlisted there, procured his discharge, and returned home in one year. He crossed the Atlantic again, working his passage to Plymouth, and thence begging his way to London, where he became acquainted with Capt. Cook, whom he accompanied in his last and fatal voyage. In 1782 he returned to Connecticut. Having formed a plan of making the tour of the globe on foot, departing from London to the eastward, he went as far as Irkutsk, where he was arrested, by an order from the empress, as a French spy, and conducted to the borders of Poland, and there liberated, with an intimation that his presence in the dominions of the czarina was so little desirable, that a repetition of his visit would produce a warrant for his execution. He reached London, after an absence of fifteen months, in a destitute condition, at the age of thirty-seven. He immediately accepted a proposal to travel into the interior of Africa, on behalf of the African association. When Sir Joseph Banks first mentioned the enterprise to him, and asked him how soon he could set out, "To-morrow morning," was the reply. He was taken ill at Cairo, and died Jan. 17th, 1789.

His uncle, Col. **WILLIAM LEDYARD**, commanded Fort Griswold when captured by the British, Sept. 6th, 1781, and was murdered by the British officer to whom he delivered his sword.

LEE, ARTHUR, brother of Richard Henry, was born in Virginia, Dec. 20th, 1740. He was educated in England at Eton, took the degree of M. D. at Edinburgh, and commenced the practice of medicine in Virginia. Afterward he returned to England, and studied law at the Temple. He was a secret agent of our government at London and Paris, associated with Deane and Franklin, and, on the

return of Franklin to America, became the sole agent of Massachusetts. In 1777 he was appointed by Congress commissioner to Spain, and he was subsequently employed in Prussia. He returned to America in 1780, and the next year he was chosen to the assembly, from which he went to Congress. He was called to the board of treasury, of which he continued to be a member from 1784 to 1789. He died at his farm, Dec. 12th, 1792.

LEE, CHARLES, was a native of North Wales, the son of a general in the British army, in which at the age of eleven he also held a commission. He came to America in 1756, and distinguished himself in the war with the French. For a time he dwelt among the Mohawks, who made him a chief, with the apt name of Boiling Water. After this he served as a colonel under Burgoyne in Portugal. Several pamphlets that he wrote in opposition to the ministry demolished the hope of promotion which his exploits had earned, and he entered the Polish army as aid to Poniatowski, just then elected king. On one occasion he was sent to accompany the Polish ambassador to Constantinople. The diplomatic gentleman traveled too slowly for him; so he dashed ahead. When on the frontiers of Turkey, he came near perishing with cold and hunger, among the Bulgarian mountains; and, after his arrival at Constantinople, he was very near being buried in the ruins of his house by an earthquake. He became a major-general. "I flatter myself," said he, "that a little more practice will make me a good soldier," and he tried a severe campaign in the Russian service. After this he led a wandering life through the south of Europe, troubled with gout, rheumatism, and the effects of "a Hungarian fever," and pestered with a temper more cynical and irascible than ever, embroiling him in many rencontres, in one of which he slew his antagonist, and lost two of his fingers. The irony and sarcasm that he vented upon the British ministry through the journals, gained him a reputation sufficient for a conjecture that perchance he was the mysterious Junius. He had early espoused the cause of the colonies, and in 1773 he came again to America, where his military renown and his dashing manner made him a welcome acquisition to

the patriot cause, and alarmed even the British ministry. Purchasing an estate in Virginia he was often a guest at Mount Vernon. When war broke out, Lee was one of the first major-generals commissioned. He was taken prisoner, and remained some time in the hands of the British, but was released Oct. 17th, 1777. At the battle of Monmouth he permitted his command to retreat, and was reproached by Washington, to whom he used disrespectful language. He was tried by a court-martial, and sentenced to a year's suspension, Aug. 12th, 1778. He died Oct. 2d, 1782. He was an able officer, but proud and ambitious.

LEE, FRANCIS LIGHTFOOT, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was a brother of Richard Henry, and born at Stratford, Va., Oct. 14th, 1734. He was educated at home. He was elected to the house of burgesses in 1765, and continued a delegate therein till 1775, when he was sent to Congress. He retired to private life in 1779, and died in April, 1797.

LEE, HENRY, was born in Virginia, Jan. 29th, 1756, and was graduated at Princeton College in his eighteenth year. In 1776 he obtained the command of a troop of the Virginia light horse, and in 1777 joined the main army under Washington. His conduct throughout the whole revolutionary struggle merits the highest praise. Ever in the front of danger, he performed several daring feats which have been rarely equaled. After the termination of the war, he was alternately a member of Congress, and of the assembly of his state, of which he was governor for three successive years. He died in 1818.

LEE, RICHARD HENRY, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Stratford, Westmoreland county, Va., in 1732, but was bred in England, where he received a finished education. He returned home at nineteen, and, till the age of twenty-five, busied himself in literary and philosophical studies. Then he was chosen to the house of burgesses, where he won himself a high position as a talented debater and a patriotic legislator. He was appointed, in 1764, to draw up an address to the king, and brought forth a masterly state paper; and in 1765 he assisted Patrick Henry's resolutions against

the stamp act with great zeal. He was a member of the continental congress, 1774-1780 and 1784-1787; and he has been styled the Cicero of the famous congress of 1776, so graceful and effective was his oratory. June 7th, 1776, he moved "that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown; and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, dissolved;" supporting the measure with one of his most eloquent speeches. In 1784 he was chosen president of Congress; and from 1789 to 1792 he was senator from Virginia. He died June 19th, 1794.

LEGENDRE, ADRIAN MARIE, an illustrious mathematician of France, born in Paris, 1751, died there Jan. 16th, 1833.

LEIBNITZ, GODFREY WILLIAM, born at Leipsic, July 3d, 1646, died at Hanover, Nov. 14th, 1716. He was the great rival of Newton in science.

LEIPSIC (LEIPZIG), the second city in Saxony, founded in the tenth century, and now containing 79,000 inhabitants. It is famous for its fairs, is the centre of the German book-trade, and is also distinguished by its university. Here was fought an important battle between the allies and the French, Oct. 16th, 17th, and 18th, 1813. Napoleon with 160,000 men contended against 240,000 Austrians, Russians, and Prussians. Against such odds he might have conquered, had not, at a critical moment, his Saxon allies gone over to the enemy. Of 80,000 men left dead on the field, more than half were French. Gustavus Adolphus won a great victory over Tilly, on the plain of Leipsic, Sept. 7th, 1631.

LENTULUS, a celebrated family at Rome, which produced many great men in the commonwealth. PUBLIUS LENTULUS SURA joined Cataline's conspiracy, was convicted, imprisoned, and afterward executed.

LEO. There have been twelve popes of this name. The greatest was LEO X. (Giovanni de Medici), born at Florence in 1475, being the second son of Lorenzo de Medici. At the age of thirteen he was made a cardinal. He succeeded Julius II. in 1513, and

assumed the name of Leo. He was a patron of literature, and particularly encouraged the study of the Greek language. He desired to complete the church of St. Peter, and the sale of indulgences to raise the money swelled the wave that soon broke in the Reformation. He died in 1521.

LEONIDAS, a celebrated king of Sparta, sent by his countrymen to oppose Xerxes. When the Persian monarch demanded his arms, Leonidas answered, "Come and take them!" With his three hundred Spartans, and a few auxiliaries, he defended the pass of Thermopylæ against the whole Persian army, 480 B.C. He died surrounded by heaps of slain enemies.

LEPANTO, GULF OF, a narrow sea between the northern coast of the Peloponnesus and the mainland of Greece; anciently the Gulf of Corinth. The famous sea fight of Lepanto, between the Turks and Spaniards, in which Cervantes lost his hand, was fought Oct. 7th, 1571. The Turks, being at anchor in the gulf, and hearing that the Christians were bearing down upon them from Corfu, reinforced their fleet, which consisted of 250 galleys, 70 frigates and brigantines. The Christian fleet consisted of 210 galleys, 28 transports, and 6 galeases, furnished with heavy artillery, commanded by Don John of Austria (natural son of Charles V.), including the Spanish squadron furnished by Philip II., the Venetian, with the flower of the nobility of Venice, and the pope's galleys. The two forces engaged with all the ancient and modern weapons of attack and defense, arrows, javelins, grappling-irons, cannon, muskets, pikes, and swords. They fought hand to hand, as most of the galleys grappled together. Don John of Austria and Veniero, the Venetian commander, attacked the Ottoman admiral Ali, and having taken him and his galley, immediately struck off his head, and placed it on the top of his own flag. The Turks lost upward of 150 vessels. Their loss in killed was about 15,000; as many more were made prisoners, and 5,000 Christian slaves were set at liberty. The Christians are said to have lost about 5,000 men. The battle lasted from six in the morning till evening, when the approaching darkness, and the roughness of the sea, compelled the victors to put into the nearest

haven, whence they dispatched couriers to all Christian courts, with the news of the triumph. The Christians gave no quarter in the heat of the fight.

LEPIDUS, MARCUS ÆMILIUS, one of the triumvirs with Augustus and Antony. He was sent against Brutus and Cassius, and some time after leagued with Mark Antony, who had gained the hearts of his soldiers by artifice, and their commander by address. He received Africa as his portion in the division of the empire; but his indolence soon rendered him despicable in the eyes of his soldiers and of his colleagues, and Augustus, who was well acquainted with the unpopularity of Lepidus, went to his camp, and obliged him to resign the power to which he was entitled as triumvir. After this degrading event, he sunk into obscurity, and retired, by order of Augustus, to Cerceii, a small town of the coast of Latium, where he ended his days, B.C. 13, forgotten as soon as he had fallen.

LESSING, GOTTHOLD EPHRAIM, was born in Upper Lusatia, 1729. As a dramatist and a critic on the fine arts, he held a high rank in German literature. His death occurred at Wolfenbüttel in 1781.

LEUCTRA, a village of Bœotia, famous for the victory which Epaminondas, the Theban general, here obtained over the superior force of Cleombrotus, King of Sparta, B.C. 371. From that time the Spartans lost the ascendancy which they had for centuries held in Greece.

LEWIS, FRANCIS, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Llandaff, in the south of Wales, March, 1713. His education was finished at Westminster, and he entered a mercantile house in London. At the age of twenty-one, he came to America. He became an active politician, espoused the cause of liberty, and was elected a delegate from New York to the continental congress in 1775. He suffered the loss of much property on Long Island during the war. He died Dec. 30th, 1803.

LEWIS AND CLARKE. In 1804, Capt. Meriwether Lewis and Lieut. William Clarke, with a party of twenty-eight men, were dispatched by government to explore the north-western territory between the Mississippi and the Pacific. It was the first expedition of

the kind undertaken. They crossed the Rocky Mountains and reached the mouth of the Columbia, their observations and surveys being eminently successful, and furnishing the first reliable details of that vast region. The expedition was absent two years and three months.

LEXINGTON, a town of Massachusetts, eleven miles north-west of Boston, where the struggle for liberty was commenced, April 19th, 1775. Gen. Gage dispatched a force of 900 men on the night of the 18th to seize a magazine of military stores that the patriots had gathered at Concord. The expedition had been planned and prepared with great secrecy, yet wind of it had blown, and as the British stealthily crept forth on their nocturnal march, the booming of alarm guns and the clang of village bells told that the country was rising. Lieut. Col. Smith sent back for re-enforcements, and pushed Major Pitcairne forward with six companies to secure the bridges at Concord. He advanced rapidly, capturing every one that he met or overtook. When a little more than a mile from Lexington, a horseman was too quick for him, and galloped into the village with the cry that the redcoats were coming. When the British came marching up the road, between four and five in the gray morning, seventy or eighty yeomen were mustered in military array on the green near the meeting-house. It was a part of the 'constitutional army,' pledged to resist by force any open hostility of British troops. Besides these, there were a number of lookers on, armed and unarmed. The major rode forward, brandishing his sword, and shouted, as his men advanced at double quick time, "Disperse, ye villains! Lay down your arms, ye rebels, and disperse." The yeomanry stood their ground. A scene of confusion ensued, with firing on both sides: by which party commenced it is not certain. Eight of the patriots were killed, ten wounded, and all put to flight. The British formed on the common, discharged a volley, and gave three cheers; Col. Smith came up; the whole force pushed on for Concord. There they did the work for which they had been detailed, so far as they could, for many of the stores had been removed. The militia were not strong enough to oppose them, but the minute-men were hurrying in from every quarter.

About ten o'clock a squad ventured to dislodge the British from the north bridge. As they came near, the British fired, killing two; a skirmish ensued, and the enemy retreated from the bridge. About noon, the jaded troops commenced their march for Boston. The country was astir. All along the road, from the cover of trees, sheds, houses, fences, rustic marksmen dealt a deadly retaliation, and a long line of killed, wounded, or fatigued marked the way.

At Lexington they were joined by 900 more troops, sent out from Boston, under Lord Percy. These brought two cannon with them, and the country people were now kept more at bay. They still fired upon the troops, however, with terrible havoc. The regulars, as the English troops were called, scrambled into Charlestown at sunset. Sixty-five of their number had been killed, one hundred and eighty wounded, and twenty-eight made prisoners. Of the provincials, forty-nine were killed, thirty-nine wounded and missing. There were never more than three or four hundred of the latter, fighting at one time, and these fought as they pleased, without order. The regulars were obliged to keep in the main road; but the militia, knowing every inch of the country, flanked them, and fired upon them at all the corners. The British, maddened by the galling fire, burned many dwellings in their retreat.

Bancroft eloquently narrates the effects produced by this conflict. Darkness closed upon the country and upon the town, but it was no night for sleep. Heralds on swift relays of horses transmitted the war-message from hand to hand, till village repeated it to village; the sea to the backwoods; the plains to the highlands; and it was never suffered to droop, till it had been borne north, and south, and east, and west throughout the land. It spread over the bays that receive the Saco and the Penobscot. Its loud reveille broke the rest of the trappers of New Hampshire, and ringing like bugle-notes from peak to peak, overleaped the Green Mountains, swept onward to Montreal and descended the ocean river, till the responses were echoed from the cliffs of Quebec. The hills along the Hudson told to one another the tale. As the summons hurried to the south, it was one day at New York; in one more at Philadelphia; the next it lighted a

watchfire at Baltimore; thence it waked an answer at Annapolis. Crossing the Potomac near Mount Vernon, it was sent forward without a halt to Williamsburg. It traversed the Dismal Swamp to Nansemond along the route of the first emigrants to North Carolina. It moved onward and still onward through boundless groves of evergreen to Newbern and to Wilmington. "For God's sake, forward it by night and by day," wrote Cornelius Harnett by the express which sped for Brunswick. Patriots of South Carolina caught up its tones at the border, and dispatched it to Charleston, and through pines and palmettoes and moss-clad live oaks, still further to the south, till it resounded among the New England settlements beyond the Savannah. Hillsborough and the Mecklenburg districts of North Carolina rose in triumph, now that their wearisome uncertainty had its end. The Blue Ridge took up the voice and made it heard from one end to the other of the valley of Virginia. The Alleghanies, as they listened, opened their barriers, that the 'loud call' might pass through to the hardy riflemen on the Holston, the Watauga, and the French Broad. Ever renewing its strength, powerful enough even to create a commonwealth, it breathed its inspiring word to the first settlers of Kentucky; so that hunters who made their halt in the matchless valley of the Elkhorn, commemorated the nineteenth day of April by naming their encampment Lexington.

With one impulse the colonies sprung to arms; with one spirit they pledged themselves to each other "to be ready for the extreme event." With one heart, the continent cried "Liberty or Death."

The first measure of the Massachusetts committee of safety, after the dawn of the 20th of April, was a circular to the several towns in Massachusetts. "We conjure you," they wrote, "by all that is dear, by all that is sacred,—we beg and entreat, as you will answer it to your country, to your consciences, and above all, to God himself, that you will hasten and encourage by all possible means the enlistment of men to form the army; and send them forward to headquarters at Cambridge with that expedition which the vast importance and instant urgency of the affair demands."

The people of Massachusetts had not waited for the call. The country people, as soon as they heard the cry of innocent blood from the ground, snatched their firelocks from the walls; and wives, and mothers, and sisters took part in preparing the men of their households to go forth to the war. The farmers rushed to "the camp of liberty," often with nothing but the clothes on their backs, without a day's provisions, and many without a farthing in their pockets. Their country was in danger; their brethren were slaughtered; their arms alone employed their attention. On their way the inhabitants gladly opened their hospitable doors, and all things were in common. For the first night of the siege, Prescott of Pepperell with his Middlesex minute-men kept the watch over the entrance to Boston, and while Gage was driven for safety to fortify the town at all points, the Americans already talked of nothing but driving him and his regiments into the sea.

At the same time the committee by letter gave the story of the preceding day to New Hampshire and Connecticut, whose assistance they entreated. "We shall be glad," they wrote, "that our brethren who come to our aid may be supplied with military stores and provisions, as we have none of either, more than is absolutely necessary for ourselves." And without stores, or cannon, or supplies even of powder, or of money, Massachusetts by its congress, on the 22d of April, resolved unanimously that a New England army of thirty thousand men should be raised, and established its own proportion at thirteen thousand six hundred. The term of enlistment was fixed for the last day of December.

Long before this summons the ferries over the Merrimack were crowded by men from New Hampshire. "We go," said they, "to the assistance of our brethren." By one o'clock of the 20th, upward of sixty men of Nottingham assembled at the meeting-house with arms and equipments, under Cilley and Dearborn; before two they were joined by bands, from Deerfield and Epsom; and they set out together for Cambridge. At dusk they reached Haverhill ferry, a distance of twenty-seven miles, having run rather than marched; they halted in Andover only for refreshments, and, traversing fifty-five miles in less than twenty hours, by sunrise of the

21st paraded on Cambridge common. Thus in three days two thousand men volunteered in New Hampshire.

In Connecticut, Trumbull, the governor, sent out writs to convene the legislature of the colony at Hartford on the Wednesday following the battle. Meantime the people could not be restrained. On the morning of the 20th, Israel Putnam, of Pomfret, in leather frock and apron, was assisting hired men to build a stone wall on his farm, when he heard the cry from Lexington. Leaving them to continue their task, he set off instantly to rouse the militia officers of the nearest towns. On his return, he found hundreds who had mustered and chosen him their leader. Issuing orders for them to follow, he himself pushed forward without changing the checked shirt he had worn in the field, and reached Cambridge at sunrise the next morning, having ridden the same horse a hundred miles within eighteen hours.

From Wethersfield, a hundred young volunteers marched for Boston on the 22d, well armed and in high spirits. From the neighboring towns, men of the largest estates, and the most esteemed for character, seized their firelocks and followed. By the second night, several thousands from the colony were on their way. Some fixed on their standards and drums the colony arms, and round it in letters of gold, the motto, that God who brought over their fathers would sustain the sons. In New Haven, Benedict Arnold, captain of a volunteer company, agreed with his men to march the next morning for Boston. "Wait for proper orders," was the advice of Wooster; but the self-willed commander, brooking no delay, extorted supplies from the committee of the town, and on the 29th reached the American headquarters with his company. There was scarcely a town in Connecticut that was not represented among the besiegers.

The nearest towns of Rhode Island were in motion before the British had finished their retreat. At the instance of Hopkins and others, Wanton, the governor, though himself inclined to the royal side, called an assembly. Its members were all of one mind; and when Wanton, with several of the council, showed hesitation, they resolved, if necessary, to

proceed alone. The council yielded, and confirmed the unanimous vote of the assembly which authorized raising an army of fifteen hundred men. "The colony of Rhode Island," wrote Bowler, the speaker, to the Massachusetts congress, "is firm and determined; and a greater unanimity in the lower house scarce ever prevailed." Companies of the men of Rhode Island preceded this early message.

The conviction of Massachusetts gained the cheering confidence that springs from sympathy, now that New Hampshire and Connecticut and Rhode Island had come to its support. The New England volunteers were men of substantial worth, of whom almost every one represented a household. The members of the several companies were well known to each other, as to brothers, kindred, and townsmen; known to all the old men who remained at home, and to all the matrons and maidens. They were sure to be remembered weekly in the exercises of the congregations; and morning and evening, in the usual family devotions, they were commended with fervent piety to the protection of Heaven. Every young soldier lived and acted, as it were, under the keen observation of all those among whom he had grown up, and was sure that his conduct would occupy the tongues of his village companions while he was in the field, and perhaps be remembered his life long. The camp of liberty was a gathering in arms of schoolmates, neighbors, and friends; and Boston was beleaguered round from Roxbury to Chelsea by an unorganized, fluctuating mass of men, each with his own musket and his little store of cartridges, and such provisions as he brought with him, or as were sent after him, or were contributed by the people round about.

The British officers, from the sense of their own weakness, and from fear of the American marksmen, dared not order a sally. Their confinement was the more irksome, for it came of a sudden before their magazines had been filled, and was followed by "an immediate stop to supplies of every kind." The troops, in consequence, suffered severely from unwholesome diet; and their commanders fretted with bitter mortification. They had scoffed at the Americans as cowards, who

would run at their sight; and they had saved themselves from destruction only by the rapidity of their retreat.

Men are prone to fail in equity toward those whom their pride regards as their inferiors. The Americans, slowly provoked and long-suffering, treated the prisoners with tenderness, and nursed the wounded as though they had been members of their own families. They even invited Gage to send out British surgeons for their relief. Yet Percy could degrade himself so far as to calumniate the countrymen who gave him chase, and officially lend himself to the falsehood that "the rebels scalped and cut off the ears of some of the wounded who fell into their hands." He should have respected the name which he bore, famed as it is in history and in song; and he should have respected the men before whom he fled. The falsehood brings dishonor on its voucher; the people whom he reviled were among the mildest and most compassionate of their race.

LIBERIA. In 1821 the American Colonization Society established a colony of emancipated slaves on the western coast of Africa, east of Sierra Leone. The settlement in 1847 became the republic of Liberia. Its area is about 24,000 square miles, and its population in 1863 was 422,000. Its institutions are modeled on those of the United States. Whites are not admitted to citizenship. Monrovia is the capital.

LIBRARIES. The first public library of which we have any certain account in history, was founded at Athens, by Pisistratus, 544 B.C. The first private library known was that of Aristotle, 334 B.C. The great library at Alexandria was founded by Ptolemy Philadelphus, 284 B.C., and was nearly destroyed when Julius Caesar set fire to the city, 47 B.C., four hundred thousand valuable MSS. being lost. On its ruins a second collection was gathered, consisting of seven hundred thousand volumes. This was totally destroyed by the Saracens, who heated the water of their baths for six months, by burning books instead of wood, under orders from the Caliph Omar in 642. The early Chinese literature suffered a similar loss, the Emperor Cheewhang-tee ordering all writings to be destroyed, that everything might begin anew from his reign. Pope Gregory I. burned the

library of the Palatine Apollo, desiring to confine the clergy to the study of the Scriptures. From that time all ancient learning not sanctioned by the authority of the church, has been emphatically distinguished as profane, in opposition to sacred.

The first public library in Italy was founded by Nicholas Niccoli, one of the great restorers of learning. At his death, he left his library for the use of the public, A.D. 1436. Cosmo de Medici enriched it, after the death of Niccoli, with the invaluable Greek, Hebrew, Arabic, Chaldaic, and Indian MSS. Among the great libraries of Europe are the following: That of the Vatican, at Rome, founded by Pope Nicholas V. in 1446; improved by Sixtus V., 1588; it contains 150,000 volumes, and 40,000 manuscripts. The Imperial Library of Vienna, founded by Frederick III., 1440, and by Maximilian I., 1500; one of the most choice existing. The Imperial library of Paris, founded by Francis I. about 1520; it contains 900,000 volumes, and 84,000 manuscripts. The Escorial, at Madrid, commenced with the foundation of that sumptuous palace, by Philip II. in 1562; the Spaniards regard it as matchless. The library of Florence, by Cosmo de Medici, 1560, of great value in illustrated and illuminated works. The library of the University of Munich contains 400,000 volumes, and 10,000 manuscripts; and that of Göttingen, 300,000 volumes, and 6,000 manuscripts. The Imperial Library at St. Petersburg was founded in 1714, but it consists principally of the spoils of Poland.

Richard de Bury, chancellor and high treasurer of England, so early as 1341, raised the first private library in Europe. He purchased thirty or forty volumes of the Abbot of St. Albans for fifty pounds weight of silver. The following are among the principal libraries in England: The Bodleian, at Oxford, founded 40 Eliz., 1598; opened in 1602; this library contains nearly 400,000 volumes, and upward of 30,000 manuscripts. The Cottonian Library, founded by Sir Robert Cotton, about 1600; appropriated to the public, 13 Will. III., 1701; partly destroyed by fire, 1731; removed to the British Museum, 1753. The Radcliffean, at Oxford, founded by the will of Dr. Radcliffe, who left £40,000 to the university, 1714; opened,

1749. The library at Cambridge, 1720, when George I. gave £5,000 to purchase Dr. Moore's collection. The library of the Royal Institution, in 1803. That of the London Institution, of Sion College, &c., and the great library of the British Museum, containing above 562,000 volumes and 100,000 manuscripts, including the Cottonian, the Harleian, and other collections. The library of the University of Dublin, and the Advocates' Library in Edinburgh, are among the most extensive and valuable in Ireland and Scotland.

The Astor Library, New York, contains 120,000 books; the Boston City Public Library, 112,000; the Congressional Library at Washington, 85,000; the Boston Athenæum Library, 80,000; the New York Mercantile Library, 64,000; and the New York State Library at Albany is somewhat larger. Of college libraries in the United States, the largest are:—Harvard University, 140,000; Yale College, 64,000; Brown University, 34,000; Dartmouth College, 32,000.

LINCOLN, ABRAHAM, sixteenth President of the United States, was born in Hardin Co., Ky., Feb. 12, 1809, of poor parents, in a rude, log cabin. When he was eight years old they removed to Indiana. All the school education of his life, did not exceed one year. But his character was moulded by a noble, christian mother. He said of her, after her death, with tears in his eyes, "All that I am or hope to be, I owe to my angel mother." He early became a reader, devouring every book he could find. When 21 years old he engaged in flat boating to New Orleans. Removing to Illinois he was employed in a store, where he earned the *soubriquet* of "Honest Abe." In 1832 he was Capt. of a company in the Black Hawk War. He then studied law, was Mem. of the Legislature 1834-40, Mem. of Congress 1846, and a successful lawyer in Springfield, Ill. In 1858 he had his great contest for the U. S. Senatorship with Mr. Douglas. Though defeated by the unfair apportionment of the legislative districts, yet he fought the "Little Giant" with such wonderful power as to surprise the nation. Who is this Illinois lawyer coping with the ablest, most adroit debater of the West with a fairness, magnanimity and skill rarely if ever equalled,

became the question. In his speeches during this contest, there are passages as noble and sublime as ever fell from the lips of statesmen. Evincing such clear comprehension of the designs of the Slave power, exposing the sophistries of its friends with such marvelous skill, putting the claims of manhood and liberty in such luminous statement, he in this contest prepared the way for his nomination for the Presidency. He was elected President in 1860, defeating Mr. Douglas. The southern leaders then hastened their treasonable plans. The plotters in Mr. Buchanan's Cabinet constrained and fettered him, and with congressional conspirators in Washington, were in constant communication with their respective States, urging on the work of national destruction. Floyd, Sec. of War, had the national arms transferred from northern armories to southern arsenals. Toucey, Sec. of the Navy, had sent away beyond call, all but two of the vessels of war. Howell Cobb, Sec. of the Navy, resigned on the plea that the finances of the country were hopelessly embarrassed. So. Carolina led off in secession, followed at once by other States. Forts and arsenals were seized in the South, a southern confederacy formed, and thus the most fearful and criminal rebellion was inaugurated that ever imperiled a nation. Washington was full of treason. The governmental departments were crowded with it. Loyalty was derided and dishonored. Southern sympathizers were scattered over the whole North, and those who loved the Union were oppressed with terrible apprehensions. Such was the condition of the country when, Feb. 11, '61, Mr. Lincoln started from his home in Springfield, Ill., for Washington. He had watched the coming storm, and he asked as he bade adieu to his fellow citizens, their prayers to Almighty God, that he might have wisdom and help to see the right path and pursue it. Those prayers were answered. He guided the ship of State safely through the angriest storm that ever demanded a brave and good pilot. He issued his emancipation proclamation Sept. 22, '62, thus disenthraling 4,000,000 slaves, and executing his own words of 1858, that "this government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free." He called over a million men to arms, and thus

the republic was vindicated, against the fiercest, foulest conspiracy of which history has any record.

Mr. Lincoln, reelected President, entered upon his second term March, '65. In April the confederate armies surrendered and the Rebellion was ended. In company with Gen. Grant, he walked unarmed the streets of Richmond, late the capital of the confederate government. But only a few days after, and in the height of the nation's triumph and joy, having saved his country, he fell a victim to the long nursed and remorseless hate of its foes. As a chief part of the plot to destroy the heads of the government, he was assassinated at Ford's Theatre, April 14, '65, by John Wilkes Booth.

Mr. Lincoln had unsurpassed fitness for the task he had to execute. Without any thing like brilliancy of genius, without breadth of learning or literary accomplishments, he had that perfect balance of thoroughly sound faculties, which give an almost infallible judgment. This, combined with great calmness of temper, inflexible firmness of will, supreme moral purpose, intense patriotism, made up just that character which fitted him, as the same faculties fitted Washington, for the salvation of his country in a period of stupendous responsibility and frightful peril. No man ever had a greater trust, and no man ever discharged one with more illustrious success or purer renown.

He was the least pretentious of men. He never even professed his determination to do his duty. Samson like he could rend a lion, and tell neither father nor mother of it. No thought of self, no sensitiveness for his own good name, ever seemed to enter his mind. An intense, all-comprehensive patriotism was the constant and sole stimulus of all his public exertions. A public trust was to him a sacred thing. Sublimar moral courage, more resolute devotion to duty, more conscientious patriotism, cannot be found in history, than he displayed in the greatest emergencies that ever befell a people.

In every city and town of prominence, services in sympathy with his funeral solemnities at Washington, were held, and the great heart of the Republic throbbed with pain and lamentation. Then the martyred President was borne to his final resting place

in Springfield, Ill., with demonstrations of love, gratitude and veneration, all along the journey of a 1000 miles, such as no statesman or emperor ever received. "Never was such a funeral given to a national ruler. He was a statesman without a statesman's craftiness, a politician without a politician's meannesses, a great man without a great man's vices, a philanthropist without a philanthropist's impracticable dreams, a christian without pretensions, a ruler without the pride of place and power, an ambitious man without selfishness, and a successful man without vanity. Humble man of the backwoods—boatman, ax-man, hired laborer, clerk, surveyor, captain, legislator, lawyer, debater, orator, politician, statesman, President, saviour of the republic, emancipator of a race, true christian, true man,"—this is the summary of the pure, patriotic life and grand work of Abraham Lincoln.

LINCOLN, BENJAMIN, born at Hingham, Mass., Jan. 13th, 1733, O. S., was major general of the provincial militia, and in Feb., 1777, received the same rank in the continental forces. At Saratoga, he was wounded in the leg. At Yorktown, he distinguished himself, as he had done throughout the whole Revolutionary struggle. He afterward commanded the militia which quelled Shay's rebellion. In 1787, he was elected Lt. Gov. of Mass., and from 1789 till near his death, in 1810, was collector of customs in Boston.

LINNÆUS, (CARL VON LINNÆ,) the great naturalist, was a native of Sweden. He excelled chiefly in botany, and raised entomology to the rank of a science. He died Jan. 10th, 1778, aged 71.

LIVERPOOL, ROBERT BANKS JENKINSON, Earl of, premier of England, 1812-1827.

LIVINGSTON, BROCKHOLST, son of William, Gov. of New Jersey, was born in the city of New York, Nov. 25, 1757, and served with great distinction under Schuyler, and Arnold. He was admitted to the bar in 1783, became judge of the supreme court of New York in 1802, judge of the supreme court of the U. States in 1807, and died Mar. 18, 1823.

LIVINGSTON, PHILIP, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, born at Albany, Jan. 15th, 1716, became a successful merchant in New York, after graduating at Yale Coll. He was a Mem. of the colonial assem-

bly in 1759, chairman of the legislature in 1770, Mem. of the Continental Congress 1774-8, and died at York, Pa., June 12, 1778.

LIVINGSTON, ROBERT R., born in New York city, Nov. 27, 1746, was graduated at King's Coll. in 1765. As a lawyer he won a very high reputation, was Mem. of the first general congress, was one of the committee to draw up the Declaration of Independence, in 1780 was Sec. of foreign affairs; for several years chancellor of N. York, and 1801-5 minister to France. He died Mar. 26, 1813.

LIVY. TITUS LIVIUS PATAVINUS, the illustrious historian, was born at Patavium, (now Padua) B. C. 59. The greater part of his life was spent in Rome, where he died A. D. 18.

LOCKE, JOHN, born in 1632, was educated at Westminster and Christ Church, Oxford. This eminent philosopher was a prominent defender of civil and religious liberty. The most celebrated of his works is "An Essay Concerning Human Understanding." He died in 1704.

LODI, a town in Austrian Italy. One of Napoleon's most daring exploits was performed here, May 10, 1796, by forcing the passage of the bridge over the Adda, though defended by 10,000 Austrians. He always spoke of it as "that terrible passage of the bridge of Lodi."

LOMBARDS, also called Longobardi, (long-beards) was originally a Scandinavian tribe. About the middle of the sixth century, their king, Alboin, conquered all upper Italy and a part of middle Italy. Desiderius, the last king, was conquered A. D. 774, by Charlemagne, who subverted their kingdom in Italy. Lombardy belonged to the Austrian empire until 1859, when it was united with Italy.

The iron crown of Lombardy takes its name from the narrow iron band within it. The outer circlet consists of six equal pieces of beaten gold, united by hinges and set with large rubies, emeralds and sapphires, on a ground of blue gold enamel. Within the circlet is the iron crown, without a speck of rust, though it has been exposed more than 1500 years.

LONDON, the metropolis of England and the British Empire, is situated on the Thames, about 50 miles from the sea. Its population in 1861, was 2,803,034, having doubled in about forty years. Its

2,800 streets, if put together, would extend 3,000 miles in length. As a compact mass of houses, the metropolis may be considered a parallelogram about six miles in length by three and a half in width, thus covering an area of twenty-one square miles. With the suburbs included in the census returns, it comprised an area of 122 square miles.

London includes the cities and liberties of London and Westminster, the boroughs of Southwark, Marylebone, Finsbury, Tower Hamlets, and Lambeth, and a number of suburban parishes and precincts on all sides of these central portions. The City proper is that space which lay within the ancient walls and liberties, and is divided from Westminster by Temple Bar. The streets are for the most part narrow and inconvenient, for in old walled towns space was precious. Just outside of the eastern limit of the city is the Tower, once the royal residence, then for centuries the Bastile of England, and the scene of many a historic tragedy, and now little else than an armory and curiosity-shop. In the City is St. Paul's, in whose crypt the great admiral and the great general, Nelson and Wellington, are buried side by side.

The city and liberty of Westminster commences at Temple Bar, and extends to Kensington and Chelsea. Here is Westminster Abbey, where lie the ashes of some of England's greatest men, whether in letters, in war, or in counsel. Over the way is the palace of Westminster, in which parliament meets. In this quarter is St. James's Palace, a dingy pile of brick, where kings and queens once dwelt, and where the court is yet held. Back of it is St. James's Park, at whose west end is Buckingham Palace, the town residence of Victoria. Still beyond is Hyde Park, and the fashionable section of London, known as the West End. Our limits would not allow even a meagre catalogue of the spots and buildings in London that have historic or other interest. We can barely notice the most important incidents in its annals.

London fortified by the Romans, 50. Walled, and a palace built, 306. Made a bishopric, 514. Repaired by Alfred, 884. Greatly damaged by fire, 798, 982, 1086, and 1180. Tower built by William I., 1078. Houses of timber thatched with straw, but to

prevent fire, ordered to be built with stone, and covered with slates, 1192, but the order not observed. Awful fire at London Bridge, then covered with buildings; 3,000 persons were drowned in the Thames, 1212. A charter by King John to the Londoners to choose a mayor out of their own body annually (this office formerly was for life), to elect and remove their sheriffs at pleasure, and their common-councilmen annually, 1215. A common hunt first appointed, 1226. Aldermen first appointed, 1242. The houses still thatched with straw, Cheapside lay out of the city, 1246. All built of wood, 1300. Terrible pestilence, in which 50,000 citizens die, 1348 to 1357. Privileges taken away, but restored on submission, 1366. The first lord mayor sworn at Westminster that went by water, and the lord mayor's show instituted, 1453. A sheriff fined £50 for kneeling too near the lord mayor, when at prayers in St. Paul's cathedral, 1486. Streets first paved, 1533. The Thames water first conveyed into the city, 1580. The city yet chiefly built of wood, and in every respect very irregular, 1600. Plague sweeps off 30,578 persons, 1602. The New River brought to London, 1613. The lord mayor and sheriffs arrested at the suit of two pretended sheriffs, April 24th, 1652. Great plague, in which 68,596 persons perish. The Great Fire broke out near the Monument and burnt three days and three nights, destroying 13,200 houses, the city gates, Guildhall, &c., eighty-nine churches, amongst which was St. Paul's cathedral, and laying waste 400 streets; the ruins covered 436 acres, and the conflagration was only checked by blowing up buildings, Sept. 2d, 1666. Streets first lit by lamps, 1682. Pilkington and Shute, the city sheriffs, sent prisoners to the Tower, for continuing a poll after the lord mayor had adjourned it, 1682. The charter of the city declared forfeited to the crown, June 12th, 1682. Privileges taken away, but restored, 1688. Built a new mansion house, 1737. Furnished and inhabited the same, 1753. Repaired London bridge, 1758, when government granted them £15,000, and permitted them to pull down the gates, 1760. Began Blackfriars bridge, Oct. 31st, 1760. The common council ordered to wear blue mazarine gowns, Sept. 14th, 1761. Lost the cause against the dissenters serving sheriffs,

July 5th, 1762. The city remonstrated on the king's paying no attention to their petition for a redress of grievances, and were censured, March, 1770. Brass Crosby, Esq., lord mayor, and Alderman Oliver, sent to the Tower by the house of commons, for committing their messenger, March, 1771. The common councilmen discontinued the wearing of their mazarine gowns in court, in 1775. The city abandoned to the mercy of Lord George Gordon's 'no-papery' mob, June 2d to 7th, 1780. Gas-lights used in London, August, 1807; Pall Mall lit in 1809; and the city generally lighted in 1814. Thames Tunnel opened, March 25th, 1843. Great Chartist demonstration, April 10th, 1848.

LONG ISLAND, BATTLE OF. The British attacked the Americans at Brooklyn, L. I., Aug. 26th, 1776, and after a severe conflict, in which the raw levies of the latter fought well, drove them into their intrenchments. Washington, fearing lest the plan included an attack on New York, could send but few re-enforcements. Gen. Sullivan and Lord Stirling were made prisoners. Gen. Howe preferred regular approaches to a bloody assault, and on the 28th, under cover of a dense fog, the Americans retreated over the river to New York. In the battle 5,000 Americans were beset by more than twice as many British. The loss of the former in all was nearly 2,000; the latter acknowledged 380 killed and wounded. The Hessians, here first introduced on the field, plied the bayonet with sanguinary fury.

LONGINUS, an eminent Greek philosopher and rhetorician, the teacher of Zenobia, put to death by the Roman emperor Aurelian, A.D. 273.

LORETTO. At this village, in Italy, there is shown the *Casa Santa*, or Holy House, in which it is pretended the Virgin Mary lived at Nazareth. According to the legend, it was carried by angels into Dalmatia from Galilee in 1291, and next brought here. The famous lady of Loretto stands upon an altar, holding the infant Jesus in her arms, and is surrounded with gold lambs, whose glare conceals her face. She is clothed with a cloth of gold, set off with jewels, with which the child, though in a shirt, is covered also. Loretto was taken by the French in 1796, and the holy image

carried to France; but it was brought back with pious pomp, and welcomed with the discharge of cannon and the ringing of bells, borne in procession to the holy house on a rich frame, resting on the shoulders of eight bishops, Jan. 5th, 1803.

LOUDON, GIDEON ERNEST, an Austrian general, was born at Tootzen, in Livonia, in 1716, of a family that originally came from Scotland. He displayed great talents in the seven years' war, and was made a major-general, and invested with the order of Maria Theresa. In 1757 he contributed to the victory of Hochkirchen, and afterward gained that of Kunersdorf. He next defeated the Prussians at Landshut, and made himself master of Glatz. On the conclusion of the peace, he was created a baron of the empire; in 1766 nominated an aulic counselor; and in 1778 made field-marshal. He next commanded against the Turks, and in 1789 took Belgrade. He died July 14th, 1790. His modesty was proverbial. The Duke of Aremberg, being once asked by the empress at a court party where Loudon was, answered: "There he is, as usual, behind the door, quite ashamed of possessing so much merit."

LOUIS IX. of France, commonly called St. Louis, was the son of Louis VIII., and was born in 1215. Being an infant at the time of his father's death, the regency was confided to Blanche of Castile, the queen-dowager. Scarcely had Louis attained the age of twenty-one years, and taken the reins of government into his own hands, when Henry III. of England demanded the provinces which Louis VIII. had promised to restore. A tender was made of Poitou, and part of Normandy; but Henry was resolved to try the issue of a battle, and his army was defeated on the banks of the Charente. In 1248 Louis undertook a crusade to the holy land, and landed in Egypt. Damietta was abandoned by the Saracens on the approach of his troops, who advanced to Cairo, in full confidence of success. But famine, the sword, and disease so wasted his forces that he fell, with all his nobility, into the hands of the enemy. His ransom was the city of Damietta, and 400,000 francs. Louis remained five years in Palestine, repaired the fortifications of some cities, and ransomed

nearly twelve hundred prisoners; but, on the news of his mother's death, he returned promptly to France, and employed himself in securing the enjoyment of peace and justice. His piety caused him to build many churches and hospitals, and his subjects blessed a reign which appeared as peaceful as it was happy, when ill news from Palestine roused the enterprising spirit of the king, and another crusade was determined upon. He departed with his three sons, but instead of going directly to Palestine, landed at Tunis, and commenced the siege of that place. The heat of the climate and the plague thinned the ranks of the army; Louis lost one of his sons, and died himself at the age of fifty-five years, after a reign of forty-four. He was placed among the saints by Pope Boniface VIII.

LOUIS XI. of France, the son of Charles VII., was born in 1423. In 1440 he put himself at the head of a faction against the king his father, and when unsuccessful fled to the court of Burgundy. His father's death took place July 1st, 1461, and Louis was crowned August 15th. His arbitrary measures against the nobility engaged the principal persons of the kingdom in a compact to which they gave the name of League of the Public Good. The Duke of Berri, the king's brother, the Dukes of Bretagne and Bourbon, and the Count of Charolais, Charles the Bold, afterward Duke of Burgundy, were the chiefs of this party. The king, who marched to defend Paris, engaged them July 2d, 1465, without much advantage; but he broke up the league by a peace concluded in October following, at Conflans, in which he agreed to give Normandy to his brother, and to cede some territories to Burgundy. Louis, however, did not keep his pledges; his brother was soon poisoned, and it was thought that Louis was the author of the atrocious deed. Charles the Bold of Burgundy determined to revenge the death of his friend, but he fell, in the midst of brilliant projects, in a battle with the Swiss. Louis passed his last years in the chateau of Plessis-les-Tours, a prey to the horrors of a guilty conscience, and died there in 1483. Atrocious executions, tyranny, and sinister intrigues had stained his reign: yet Pope Paul II. bestowed upon him the title of

Most Christian King. In his last illness, it is chronicled, he drank the warm blood of infants, in hope of restoring his wasted strength. His intrigues engendering a necessity for speedy intelligence, he established post-houses throughout France in 1470, the first institutions of the kind in Europe.

LOUIS XII., born in 1462, the son of Charles, Duke of Orleans, and Mary of Cleves, succeeded to the throne of France in 1498. In early life his temper had been violent, but he bravely resolved that the King of France would not revenge the injuries of the Duke of Orleans. He attempted the conquest of Genoa, Naples, and Milan: the issue proved unfortunate. In his war against the Spaniards he was equally unsuccessful. His army won the field of Ravenna, but Gaston de Foix, his nephew and great general, was slain. When courtiers congratulated the king, he said, "I wish my enemies such triumphs." Henry VIII. of England, having waged a successful war on the French territory, suddenly broke with his allies, and made peace with Louis. In the midst of his preparations to recover the loss he had sustained in Italy, Louis died in 1515. Louis married in 1473, Jeanne, daughter of Louis XI. He repudiated her upon his accession, in order to wed Anne of Bretagne, the widow of his predecessor, Charles VIII. The latter died in 1514, and he married some three months before his death, Mary, sister of Henry VIII. of England, afterward wife of the Duke of Suffolk, and grandmother of Lady Jane Grey.

LOUIS XIII., born in 1601, succeeded his father, Henry IV., in 1610, the state being placed under the regency of his mother, Mary de Medicis. In 1611 Sully retired from the court, and was succeeded by an Italian, Concini, Marshal d'Ancre, who obtained an unlimited sway. He supported Mary de Medicis in all her prodigal measures; but his unpopular career was terminated by Louis through an assassin, and the queen-mother was exiled to Blois. Richelieu reconciled the queen and Louis, and in 1624 was put at the head of the administration. He died in 1642, and his death was soon followed by that of Louis, who survived the cardinal only a few months. Louis married Anne of Austria in 1615. The louis-d'or

(now called the napoleon) was first struck in his reign.

LOUIS XIV., son of the preceding, born Sept. 5th, 1638, ascended the throne in 1643, under the regency of his mother, Anne of Austria, who chose Cardinal Mazarin as her minister. In the war against Spain and Austria, the Duke d'Enghien (afterward so gloriously known as Conde) and Marshal Turenne were victorious in Germany and the Netherlands. By the peace of Westphalia, in 1648, France gained Alsace, and Sundgau, Brisach, and the right to garrison Phillipsburg. In the same year began the civil war of the Frondeurs, against Mazarin, who was relieved by the great Prince of Conde. In 1650 Conde formed an independent party, but was arrested and imprisoned, and in 1652 was defeated by the royalists, under Turenne, at the battle of St. Antoine. In 1653 Conde joined the Spaniards, the war against whom was vigorously carried on by Turenne. By the peace of the Pyrenees, in 1659, Louis gained Roussillon and Conflans, a great acquisition of territory; and in 1660 he received Maria Theresa, daughter of Philip IV., in marriage. In 1661 Mazarin died, and Louis took upon himself the affairs of government, appointing Colbert his minister of finance, under whom the arts, commerce, and manufactures greatly flourished. On the death of Philip IV. of Spain, Louis began the career of those conquests which acquired him the title of Great. By virtue of his marriage with the infanta, he laid claim to Cambresis, Franche-Comte, Luxemburg, and a great part of the Spanish Netherlands, and entered Flanders at the head of an army of 35,000 men. However, the triple alliance of England, Sweden, and Holland compelled the French monarch to renounce all but Flanders, and to conclude the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1668. Louvois now became minister of war; and in 1670 Louis effected the dissolution of the triple alliance; pensioned off the English king; overran great part of Holland, and compelled the Elector of Brandenburg to conclude a treaty of neutrality in 1673. In 1674 Louis, being abandoned by his former allies, formed a league with Sweden, and resolved to humble the republic of Holland. He made a sham attack on Bommel by sea; but the Prince of

Conde being compelled to retreat with his army, the united provinces were lost to France. William of Orange was the great leader of the Dutch armies.

In 1675 Turenne perished before Salzbach. At length, a treaty was signed at Nimeguen, in 1678, whereby all the provinces wrested from the Dutch were restored, and Louis gained Franche-Comte, Dunkirk, and part of Flanders. In 1681 the chambers of reunion were erected; and in 1684 Louis seized Strasburg, Luxemburg, and Deux-Ponts. In the same year Louis sent a fleet against Genoa; and in the following year he bombarded Tripoli and Tunis. In 1685 he revoked the edict of Nantes, and the Protestants were compelled to fly the kingdom for safety. In 1688 he took possession of Avignon and the palatinate of the Rhine, which he devastated in the following year. When William of Orange became King of England, the fortune of Louis turned on the decline. Louvois died in 1691, and in 1692 the French fleet was destroyed by the British at La Hogue. The French were, however, victorious in Spain and the Netherlands, under Vendome and Luxemburg.

In 1696 Louis concluded the peace of Turin with Savoy; and in the following year the peace of Ryswick was concluded, whereby Louis restored his conquests made after the death of Charles II. of Spain. In 1700 the war of the Spanish succession commenced, when Louis declared for Philip of Anjou, his grandson, in opposition to Charles, Archduke of Austria, who was supported by the European confederates. War was declared against France; the French were defeated at Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet, and Prince Eugene was everywhere triumphant. Louis sued for peace in vain, till a change in the English cabinet gave a new turn to the politics of Europe; and in 1713 the peace of Utrecht was concluded, followed by that of Radstadt, between Marshal Villars and Prince Eugene, when Louis ceded his possessions in America to England, and his Italian dominions to Austria and Savoy. In 1715 Louis died, in the seventy-second year of his reign, at the age of seventy-seven.

After the death of Maria Theresa, Louis privately married Madame de Maintenon. The ability of such statesmen as Colbert developed

the resources of France, in this reign, but the long and costly wars had a terrible harvest of corruption and impoverishment.

LOUIS XV., the son of the Duke of Burgundy and Maria Adelaide of Savoy, was only five years of age at the death of the preceding monarch, his great-grandfather, and was placed under the regency of the Duke of Orleans. In 1726 the regency of Cardinal Fleury commenced, on whose death Louis took on himself the management of public affairs, and declared war against Germany and Hungary. After a life spent in the greatest voluptuousness, he died, an object of general odium, in 1774. His queen was Maria Leczenski, daughter of Stanislaus of Poland.

LOUIS XVI. was the second son of the dauphin (son of Louis XV.) and Maria Josepha of Saxony, daughter of Frederick Augustus of Poland. He was born in 1754, and succeeded his grandfather. Amiable, but timid, he had to bear the brunt of the crimes of his ancestors, and was guillotined Jan. 21st, 1793. [See FRANCE and MARIE ANTOINETTE.]

LOUIS PHILIPPE, King of the French, was the eldest son of Philippe Joseph, Duke of Orleans, cousin of Louis XVI., and known to the world by the sobriquet of Philippe Egalité. His mother was Marie, daughter of the Duke of Penthièvre, and he was born in Paris, Oct. 6th, 1773. His education was intrusted to Madame de Genlis. In 1792, being then Duc de Chartres, he was commander of a troop of dragoons under Kellermann, making his first campaign, and distinguishing himself against the Austrians at Valmy and Jemappes. In April, 1793, he was summoned with Gen. Dumouriez before the committee of public safety, which interfered with a scheme Dumouriez had nursed, for raising the young duke to the French throne. Both fled, and with difficulty escaped to Austria, whence the duke made his way in disguise to Switzerland, to join his sister and Madame de Genlis. The course of Egalité made his children hated by the French royalists. At Zurich, his daughter, being recognized in the public square, was openly insulted by an emigrant, who rudely tore away a part of the poor girl's dress with his spur. Instead of granting protection, the authorities bade them move on. After more insults and sufferings, the ladies sought refuge, under assumed names, in a convent

near Brengarten, and Louis Philippe became a solitary wanderer. After many straits of indigence, and some curious experiences for a future king, he obtained a professorship in the college at Reichenau. His pay was \$258 a year, and he taught history, geography, mathematics, and the English language. None but the director of the institution was aware of the teacher's rank. In this quiet retreat he received news of his father's death by the guillotine: he threw up his professorship, and retired to Brengarten. He carried with him an honorable testimonial of the services he had rendered at the academy, and was justly proud of the document when he sat upon the throne of France, reputed the wisest monarch of his time.

Melancholy, and weary of his fate, the exile pined to quit Europe, and in a new world "to forget the greatness and the sufferings which had been the companions of his youth." But he was literally without a farthing. A friend wrote on his behalf to Mr. Morris, who had been ambassador to France from the United States, had been acquainted with Egalité, and was then at Hamburg, about to return to his native country. Mr. Morris answered promptly and kindly, offering the prince a free passage to America, and his services after arrival there; and he transmitted an order for £100 to defray the expenses of the journey to Hamburg. Louis Philippe accepted this friendship in the spirit in which it was offered.

On the 10th of March, 1795, Louis Philippe left Brengarten, and, traveling still *incognito*, reached Hamburg at the end of the month. He missed his kind friend, who was employed upon diplomatic business in Germany. Some months must go before Mr. Morris could return to Hamburg, and these the young adventurer resolved to employ in exploring Northern Europe, an undertaking beset with difficulties unknown to the tourist of to-day. From Denmark he crossed to Sweden, and thence passed into Norway, making excursions that were remembered long afterward, to the iron and copper mines of that country. The northward journey did not end even here: the traveler was not content until he had advanced some degrees beyond the arctic circle. Returning southward, he traversed on foot the desert which separates the Northern Ocean from the river Tornea. Fifteen days were

occupied in the journey, during which no other nourishment than the milk and flesh of the reindeer could be procured.

Upon his return from this expedition Louis Philippe received the gratifying intelligence that the French directory were prepared to grant liberty to his brothers, who had been kept close prisoners since their father's death, upon condition that the Duke of Orleans with them would consent to banishment from Europe. The consent was given as soon as asked, and on the 24th of October, 1796, Louis Philippe landed in Philadelphia. It was not until the 7th of February following that, after a cruel and protracted separation, the three brothers met in the same city. They soon heard, to their dismay, that their mother too had been expelled from her native land. Concluding that she would be sent to Cayenne, they determined to reach that colony before her, and were on their way, when they learned that Spain was her destination. This rendered necessary an alteration of their plans: they would go to Havana, and thence sail direct to Europe. Their route was to New Orleans by the Ohio and Mississippi. The winter had set in severely, and the danger and difficulty of the expedition were fearful. On the Ohio the cold was so bitter that the cider and milk were congealed in the cabin of the boat, although it was heated by a large fire, and by the presence of seven or eight passengers. Four of the boatmen, disabled by cold and fatigue, gave way, and the princes took their place. Where the Ohio falls into the Mississippi, matters were even worse; for the travelers, having no boatmen with them who knew the river, were obliged, in spite of the cold, to keep watch themselves by day and night. For three hundred leagues, at one part of their course, they met with but three habitations. After many hardships, from which two of the three adventurers never thoroughly recovered, New Orleans was reached at last, whence they embarked for Cuba on board an American vessel under a Spanish flag. The devoted young men reached Cuba, to be immediately expelled by the captain-general. Orders had been received to deny them hospitality. They proceeded to the Bahamas, thence to Halifax; and by the kindness of the Duke of Kent (the father of Queen Victoria), then governor of Nova Scotia,

they were enabled finally to set sail for England. They reached London on the 15th of February, 1800.

Their destination, however, was Spain, not England. Obtaining a passage in a British frigate as far as Minorca, they sailed from that island in a Spanish ship to Barcelona. They were now within hail of that dear mother whom they had traveled so far to comfort with their presence. Nevertheless, they were not permitted to land at Barcelona; and the poor woman was not even told that they had reached the harbor on their affectionate pilgrimage. The princes returned to England, and took up their abode on the banks of the Thames near Twickenham. Not to remain together long. The Duc de Montpensier died of consumption in 1807, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. The funeral was scarcely over before the Comte de Beaujolais was attacked with the same disease, and ordered to a warmer climate. Louis Philippe accompanied the invalid to Malta, and there buried him. There was only a sister left.

After fifteen years' absence, brother and sister met again at Portsmouth. The meeting is described as most affecting. They vowed to each other never again to separate, and the vow was sacredly kept. In company they went once more in search of their mother. With difficulty they managed to convey a letter to her, fixing a rendezvous at Minorca, and the 7th of September, 1809, they landed at that island to embrace at last the object of such long and anxious search. After a short sojourn in the island, the three set sail for Palermo, where, on the 25th of the following November, Louis Philippe married the daughter of Ferdinand, King of Naples. In Sicily, tranquillity first dawned upon the agitated career of the Duke of Orleans. His mother, his sister, and his wife were at his side; children were born to him; public affairs ceased to harass or depress him; he sought, and found happiness at the family hearth, where Heaven provides it for all. In the midst of the profound calm there fell a thunderbolt. Napoleon was beaten. Louis XVIII. was set upon the throne of France. Louis Philippe heard the news, and started for Paris that very moment.

Marvelous vicissitudes of life! The man who had been refused his bed of straw at a

farm-house, reached the French metropolis, and hurried to the Palais Royal to set foot again in his magnificent ancestral home. His heart beating high, his soul pierced with a hundred conflicting sensations that expressed themselves in visible tears, the restored heir paced the well known galleries and visited the well remembered gardens. The doors of the grand staircase chanced to be opened. The visitor involuntarily entered, but was stopped by a porter wearing the imperial livery, who said that strangers were not allowed in the private apartments. Louis Philippe, overcome with emotion, fell upon his knees, and in his bewilderment kissed the lowest step of the staircase. He was recognized and admitted.

That dry stick of Bourbonism, Louis XVIII., was scarcely on the throne before schemes were on foot to overthrow the old dynasty, and to place the Duke of Orleans at the head of a constitutional monarchy. Intriguers on every side were as busy as possible, when the astounding announcement was made that the lion chained at Elba had burst his bonds, and was advancing, with such strides as that lion alone could take, rapidly on Paris. Intrigues were postponed for the present. Louis XVIII. as quick as lightning was beyond the frontier. Louis Philippe, accompanied by his family, was again at Twickenham. Waterloo put matters straight for the Bourbons, had the men been wise enough to keep them so. But they were both imbecile and infatuated. Louis XVIII. was much worried by the popularity of the Duke of Orleans. "I perceive," said he, "that although Louis Philippe does not stir, he advances. How must I manage to prevent a man from walking who appears as if he did not make a step?" Charles X. was admirably adapted for completing the ruin of his own fortunes and those of all who belonged to him. Revolution became necessary again. France had another struggle for her rights. Fighting again took place in the streets of Paris, whilst Charles X. was playing a rubber of whist at St. Cloud, and Louis Philippe was nervously watching the issue of a more intricate game at the palace of Neuilly. The friends of a republic threatened to shoot all who should dare to speak of a monarchy. Odillon Barrot hit upon a happy sentence in reply:

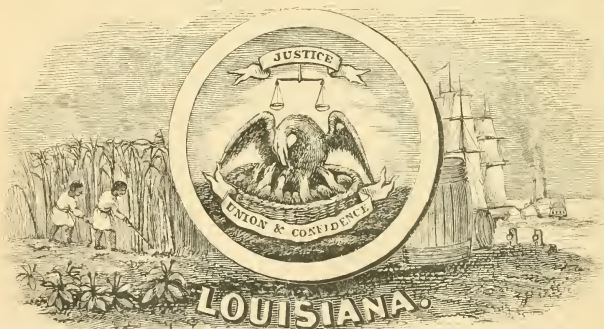
"The Duke of Orleans is the best of republics." Louis Philippe was created lieutenant-general of the kingdom, from which it was hardly a step to the throne; and on the 9th of August, 1830, the great-grandson of the Regent grasped the sceptre which for two centuries the family of Orleans had vainly endeavored to clutch.

In the presence of God, Louis Philippe, King of the French, swore to govern only by the laws, and "to cause good and exact justice to be administered to every one according to his right, and to act in everything with the sole view to the interest, the welfare, and the glory of the French people. It was a great oath, but such as might have been expected from a king cradled in misfortune, and conscious of the crying necessities of the people who had freely elected him to be their chief. Louis Philippe, no doubt, took it in sincerity, and fell a sacrifice afterward to his great good fortune. He, too, gradually forgot the teachings of history.

A sad event happened in 1842: the Duke of Orleans, the heir to the throne, was thrown from his carriage, and killed, on the 13th of July. His sister, the Duchess of Wurtemberg, who excelled in sculpture, had died

Jan. 2d, 1839. The king was often near death: many attempts for his assassination were made. Oct. 10th, 1846, his son the Duc de Montpensier married the infanta of Spain. On the last day but one of 1847, Madame Adelaide, whose counsel had often been serviceable to her royal brother, departed from life. In February, 1848, the revolution broke out. On the 24th, Louis Philippe abdicated in favor of his infant grandson. The act was of no use. A republic was proclaimed. The king shaved off his whiskers, put on green spectacles, called himself Smith, and escaped with his family to England. He took up his abode at Claremont, where he died Aug. 26th, 1850.

LOUISBURG, formerly a considerable town and fortress of the island of Cape Breton. It was taken from the French by the English fleet under Sir Peter Warren, and the provincial forces commanded by Sir William Pepperrell, in the year 1745; but afterward was restored to France by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. It was again taken by the English, under the command of Admiral Boscawen and General Amherst, in 1758, and its fortifications were afterward demolished. It is now deserted.



LOUISIANA has an area of 41,346 square miles; population in 1860, 708,002, of which 331,726 were slaves and 18,647 free negroes. The surface is low, and in general level, with some hilly ranges of slight elevation in the western part, and numerous basins or depressions of the soil. Extensive marshes line the southern coast. The Mississippi, as it nears

the Gulf of Mexico, sends off numerous branches from its main channel, of which the Atchafalaya, Iberville, and La Fourche are the most important, covering the country with a net-work of lakes and streams. The main channel debouches by a delta of six mouths, or passes. The waters of the mighty stream periodically overflow large alluvial tracts.

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Great dikes, or levees, are necessary to keep the Father of Waters in good behavior, and through these he often bursts deep breaches, or crevasses, as they are termed. The richest region is a strip each side of the Mississippi, extending from a hundred and fifty miles above New Orleans to forty miles below. Here great crops of sugar are raised. All the river bottoms have a fertile soil. The Red River pours its tribute to the great stream within the limits of Louisiana, but soon after leaving Arkansas, it enters a swampy tract, choked with numerous thickets and fallen timber, which is called the Raft. The water scatters in numerous channels and spreads over broad expanses. The Raft extends some seventy miles in length, and is an unfortunate barrier to navigation. At great expense the general government has made a passage for steamboats. The rivers of Louisiana often spread into broad sluggish lagoons, called bayous. The staples of the state are cotton and sugar. Large herds of cattle and horses are raised on the fine pastures of the western prairies. Rice, maize, and tobacco are grown. Large pine forests cover the sandy tracts in the north and west, yielding tar and pitch plentifully.

The Mississippi River was discovered by land. For two centuries the Spanish mariners sailed in the Gulf of Mexico, unaware that one of the largest rivers in the world emptied its waters there. The French after their establishment in Canada, heard of it, and in 1663 reached its upper banks. Louisiana was explored in 1682 by La Salle, a Frenchman, and its name was bestowed in compliment to Louis XIV., then seated on the throne of France. It was not until 1699 that a regular settlement was commenced at Iberville, by M. de Iberville, who discovered the mouth of the great river. It passed into the hands of Spain, by treaty, in 1762, but was restored to France in 1800, and was purchased by the United States in 1803, for \$15,000,000. The vast territory thus acquired includes Louisiana, Missouri, Iowa, Minnesota, Arkansas, and the country beyond to the Rocky Mountains. Louisiana was admitted into the Union as an independent state in 1812. It had been organized in 1804 into the territory of Orleans. The state seceded Jan. 25, 1861, the U. S. prop-

erty within it having been seized a fortnight before. It experienced much of the severities of war, and much actual fighting. The most remarkable of the combats within its border was the tremendous naval combat of April 22, when Farragut with his fleet, after bombarding the forts below New Orleans for four days, broke the rebel boom, passed the forts amid a terrific fire, and enabled the Union forces to occupy the city without resistance. Owing to this occupation, the form of establishing a legal government was early gone through with.

The legislative power is vested in a general assembly, meeting biennially, on odd years. The governor is elected by the people for four years, and ineligible for four years after his term. Dueling disfranchises. A supreme court of five judges (chosen by the people for ten years) has appellate jurisdiction. The judges and officers of inferior courts are elected by the people. The constitution directs the election of a superintendent of education once in two years, and the establishment of free public schools, but the educational system needs improvement. The state maintains an asylum for the deaf, dumb, and blind, at Baton Rouge, in which all such unfortunates in Louisiana can be educated without charge for board or tuition. When

Baton Rouge, a pretty town with many old houses in the French or Spanish style, on the east bank of the Mississippi, above New Orleans, is the capital. The United States army has barracks here. Population, in 1853, 4,500. New Orleans, the great commercial city of the South-west, is situated on the Mississippi, about one hundred miles from its mouth, following the course of the stream. It contained in 1860, 168,675 inhabitants. A large part of the population are French and Spaniards, and the dwellings and manners of the inhabitants are more European than American. It is built on ground lower than the surface of the river when full, and an embankment, called the levee, protects the city from inundation. The yellow fever periodically visits New Orleans and commits great ravages. A bend in the river gives the city that form which has won it the name of the Crescent City. The city was founded in 1717, and named in honor of the Duke of Orleans who was re-

gent of France during the minority of Louis XV. By an extraordinary rise of the Mississippi, a year or two later, the spot on which several buildings had been erected was overflowed, and was for a time abandoned. In 1722 the settlement was again commenced, with a view of making it the chief town of the province. The next year, when Charlevoix arrived from Canada by way of the river, the place contained about one hundred cabins, without much order, two or three better dwellings, a miserable storehouse occupied as a chapel, a shed being converted into a house of prayer, one large wooden warehouse, and a population of about two hundred. Soon after this, an accession was made to the population by the arrival of a company of Germans, whose descendants still remain, occupying what is called the German Coast. In 1727 the Jesuits and Ursuline nuns arrived, and were accommodated on a tract of land in the lowest part of the Faubourg St. Mary. In 1763 the Jesuits, being expelled from the dominions of France, Spain, and Naples, were obliged to leave Louisiana. Their property in New Orleans then seized and sold for \$180,000, is worth at this day some \$15,000,000. In 1764 British vessels began to visit New Orleans, and to trade with the inhabitants. The exports during the last year of its subjection to France amounted to \$250,000; and the population was 3,190. In 1769 it was occupied by the Spaniards. The commerce suffered at first by the restrictions of the Spanish; but shortly afterward, through a more liberal policy, revived again. In 1785 the population of the city proper was 4,980. In 1788 a great fire consumed 900 houses. In 1791 academies and schools began to be opened by some of the immigrants, the education of the young having previously been in the hands of the priests and nuns. In 1792 Baron Carondelet arrived, who divided the city into four wards, and recommenced lighting it and employing watchmen. He erected new fortifications, and organized the militia. In 1794 the first newspaper was published here. When it became a possession of the United States, the population of New Orleans did not much exceed 8,000; and its revenues were less than \$20,000. In

1804 it was made a port of entry and delivery; and in 1805 it received a charter of incorporation as a city. January 10th, 1812, the first steamboat arrived from Pittsburg. [See NEW ORLEANS, BATTLE OF.]

LOYOLA, IGNATIUS (DON INIGO LOPEZ DE RECALDE), the founder of the Jesuits, was born in 1491, the son of a Biscayan gentleman, and in early life was a page in the court of Ferdinand and Isabella. A wound at Pampeluna entailed long confinement, from which he emerged a religious enthusiast; so that he renounced the world, and begged his way to Palestine. After his return his strangeness of manner and speech brought him under the ban of the Spanish inquisition, and he repaired to Paris, in 1528. There Francis Xavier became his disciple. Loyola conceived the plan of the society of Jesuits. Its history we have already given. [See JESUITS.] He was its general till his death, July 31st, 1556. Loyola and Luther were contemporaries, the one laboring to exalt the hierarchy which the other was pulling down.

LUCAN, a Latin epic poet, born at Corduba (Cordova) in Spain, A.D. 37, was put to death by Nero in the year 64. He was a nephew of Seneca.

LUCCA, a small duchy of Italy, originally a colony of the Romans. Its area is only 512 square miles, but it supports a population of 261,000. The city of Lucca has 24,000 inhabitants. In the middle ages Lucca was a republic. It is now a province of Tuscany.

LUCRETIA, a noble Roman matron, the wife of Collatinus, who lived in the reign of Tarquin the Proud. While other ladies were engaged in frivolous amusements, she was found at work in the midst of her handmaids. Sextus, the son of Tarquin, inflamed by her extreme beauty with a base passion, gained entrance to her apartment at midnight, during the absence of her husband, and dishonored her. Lucretia, unable to survive her shame, killed herself. Brutus (her kinsman) had the body conveyed to the forum, and delivered so moving and inspiring an address, that the populace rose against their oppressors, and the regal dignity was abolished in Rome, B.C. 510. Brutus and Collatinus were the first consuls.

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LUCRETIVS, a Latin poet and philosopher, born at Rome, B.C. 95, died by his own hand 52, aged forty-three.

LUCULLUS, **LUCIUS LICINIUS**, a great Roman general, born about B.C. 115, distinguished himself in the war against Mithridates till supplanted by Pompey, B.C. 66. The luxury and elegance of his life in retirement have made his name a by-word. When Cicero and Pompey thought to surprise him, he ordered his attendants to serve a slight refecton in the hall of Apollo: the sumptuous banquet would have sufficed for three hundred patricians.

LUNDY'S LANE. This obstinate conflict (known also as the battle of Bridgewater) was fought in Canada, near the falls of Niagara, between the Americans and British, July 25th, 1814, the former gaining a gallant victory. The contest was prolonged by moonlight, and it was not till midnight that the British yielded the field. Generals Brown and Scott of our army, and the British generals Drummond and Riall, were severely wounded. The loss in killed and wounded was about 900 on each side.

LUNEVILLE, an open city of Lorraine, department of Meurthe, containing 12,500 inhabitants. A treaty between Austria and the French republic, was concluded here, Feb. 9th, 1801, confirming the cessions of Campo Formio, and making the Rhine to the Dutch territories the boundary of France.

LUTHER, MARTIN, was born Nov. 10th, 1483, at Eisleben, in Lower Saxony, the son of a poor miner. Martin, after receiving an excellent education, became an Augustine monk. In 1508 he became lecturer in philosophy at Wittenberg, and, while thus employed, received orders from his superiors to go to Rome, where he had ample opportunity of observing the corruptions of popery. In 1517 Leo X. published indulgences to enable him to complete the building of St. Peter's, which measure proved the cause of an incurable breach in the Roman church. Tetzel, the Dominican, who had the sale of these pardons in Germany, behaved so scandalously that Luther published a thesis in which he denied the validity of papal indulgences. Tetzel, who was then at Frankfurt, caused Luther's thesis to be burnt, and published another in answer to it, which

roused the indignation of the students of Wittenberg to such a degree that they burnt his thesis in return. Luther, in the midst of these proceedings, wrote to the pope in terms of respect, and though he did not retract his positions, he expressed his readiness to submit to authority. Meantime, the contention became fiercer between the champions for indulgences, and their opponents. The pope aggravated the matter by citing Luther to appear at Rome; but the latter wisely declined putting himself in a place where destruction was certain. He had now secured the protection of the Elector of Saxony, who, instead of giving him up, demanded that the cause should be heard in Germany. With this the pope complied, and Cajetan was sent to Augsburg, whither Luther repaired; but after two conferences, he left the place, from an apprehension of a design upon his life. In 1519 a conference was held at Leipsic, between Luther and Eck, professor of divinity at Ingolstadt, which ended without bringing the parties nearer to each other.

The pope, on his side, became exasperated, and issued his bull of excommunication against the reformer, who caused it to be publicly burnt in the presence of the whole university of Wittenberg. On his way home from the diet of Worms, in 1521, he was carried off by a party of horsemen to one of the castles belonging to his friend the elector, who adopted this method to secure him from his enemies. In this Patmos, as he called it, Luther remained ten months, and then returned to Wittenberg, where he published a sharp reply to Henry VIII. of England, who had written a book against him on the seven sacraments. In 1529 the emperor assembled a diet at Spire, to check the progress of the new opinions; and here it was that the name of Protestants first arose, from the protest made by the electoral princes who were in favor of the reformation, against the rigorous measures which were proposed in this assembly. In 1534 Luther's translation of the whole Bible was published; and the same year he printed a book against the service of the mass. At length, worn out more by labor than age, this illustrious man died at his native place, February 18th, 1546, and his remains were solemnly interred

in the cathedral of Wittenberg. A little before he expired, he thrice repeated, "Into thy hands I commit my spirit. God of truth, thou hast redeemed me."

LUTZEN, a small town of Prussian Saxony, in the government of Merseburg, the neighborhood of which is famous for two bloody battles. The first was fought Nov. 6th, 1632, in which the Austrians were defeated by Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, who was himself killed in the action. This is also called the battle of Lippstadt. In the second, fought May 2d, 1813, the French, under Bonaparte, defeated the combined forces of Prussia and Russia, commanded by Gen. Wittgenstein.

LUXEMBURG, capital of the Dutch province of the same name, and now one of the strongest fortresses in the world, was besieged, in 1794, by the victorious armies of France, and capitulated on the 17th of June, 1795.

LUXURY. The instances of extravagance and luxury are numerous in the history of almost all countries, ancient and modern, and many laws have been enforced to repress them. Horace mentions fowls dressed in Falernian wine, mussels and oysters from the Lucrine lake and Circean promontory, and black game from the Umbrian forests. Lucullus, at Rome, was distinguished for the immoderate expenses of his meals. His halls were named from the different gods; and when Cicero and Pompey attempted to surprise him, they were amazed by the costliness of a supper which had been prepared upon the word of Lucullus, who merely ordered his attendants to serve it in the hall of Apollo: this feast for three persons casually met, would have sufficed for three hundred nobles specially invited. In England, luxury was restricted by a law wherein the prelates and nobility were confined to two courses every meal, and two kinds of food in every course, except on great festivals. The law also prohibited all who did not enjoy a free estate of £100 a year from wearing furs, skins, or silk; and the use of foreign cloth was confined to the royal family alone; to all others it was prohibited, A.D. 1337. An edict was issued by Charles VI. of France, which said, "Let no man presume to treat with more than a soup and two dishes," 1340.

LYCEUM. The Lyceum took its name

from its having been originally a temple of Apollo Lyceus; or rather, a portico, or gallery, built by Lyceus, son of Apollo. The Lyceum was a celebrated spot near the banks of the Ilissus, in Attica, where Aristotle taught philosophy; and as he generally taught his pupils while he walked, they were hence called *peripatetics*, *walkers about*, and his philosophy was called from this place the philosophy of the Lyceum, 342 B.C.

LYCURGUS, a celebrated lawgiver of Sparta, the son of King Ennomus, and brother to Polydectes, was born 926 B.C. He traveled with the spirit of a philosopher, and visited Asia and Egypt without suffering himself to be corrupted by the licentiousness and luxury which prevailed there. He returned home at the earnest solicitations of his countrymen. The disorders which reigned at Sparta induced him to reform the government. This happened 884 years before the Christian era. Lycurgus established a senate, composed of twenty-eight senators, whose authority was designed to preserve the tranquillity of the state, and maintain a due and just equilibrium between the kings and the people, by watching over the encroachments of the former, and checking the seditious convulsions of the latter. All distinctions of rank were destroyed, and by making an equal and impartial division of the land among the members of the commonwealth, Lycurgus banished luxury, and encouraged the useful arts. The use of gold or silver was totally forbidden, and the introduction of heavy brass and iron coin brought no temptations to the dishonest, and left every individual in possession of his effects without any fear of robbery or violence. All the citizens dined in common, and no one had greater claims to indulgence and luxury than another. The intercourse of Sparta with other nations was forbidden, and few were permitted to travel. The youths were intrusted to the public master, as soon as they had attained their seventh year, and their education was left to the wisdom of the laws. They were taught early to think, to answer in a laconic manner, to attempt to excel in repartee. They were encouraged to steal, to make them vigilant and self-reliant, and only punished for being discovered. Thus we are told that a youth, who carried

off a fox beneath his cloak, permitted the animal to gnaw into his vitals, rather than disclose his theft by dropping the prize. These laws gave rise to a race of warriors distinguished for their intrepidity, fortitude, and independence.

After promulgating his code, Lycurgus retired from Sparta to Delphi, or, according to others, to Crete; and, before his departure, he bound all the citizens of Lacedæmon by a solemn oath, that neither they nor their posterity would alter, violate, or abolish the laws which he had established, before his return. He soon after died, having ordered his ashes to be thrown into the sea, fearful lest, if they were carried to Sparta, the citizens would consider themselves freed from the oath which they had taken, and empowered to make a revolution. The wisdom and the good effect of the laws of Lycurgus were well demonstrated at Sparta, where, for four hundred years they remained in full force, but the legislator has been censured as cruel and impolitic. Lycurgus has been compared with Solon, the celebrated legislator of Athens, and it has been judiciously observed, that the former gave to his citizens morals conformable to the laws which he had established, and that the latter gave to the Athenians laws which coincided with their customs and manners. The office of Lycurgus demanded resolution, and he showed himself inexorable and severe. In Solon, artifice was requisite, and he showed himself mild and even indulgent. The moderation of Lycurgus is highly commendable; particularly when we recollect that he treated with the greatest humanity and confidence Alcander, a youth who had put out one of his eyes in a seditious tumult. The laws of Lycurgus were abrogated B.C. 188.

LYDIA, anciently Mæonia, a celebrated kingdom of Asia Minor, whose boundaries were different at different times. It received the name of Lydia from Lydus, one of its kings. It was governed by monarchs, who, after the fabulous ages, reigned 249 years, in the following order: Ardysus began to reign 797 B.C.; Alyattes, 761; Meles, 747; Candaules, 735; Gyges, 718; Ardysus II., 680; Sadyattes, 631; Alyattes II., 619, and Cræsus, 562, who was conquered by Cyrus B.C. 548, when the kingdom became a province of the Persian empire. Three different races

reigned in Lydia, the Atyadæ, the Heraclidæ, and the Mermnadæ. The history of the first is obscure and fabulous; the Heraclidæ began to reign about the time of the Trojan war, and the crown remained in their family for about five hundred years, and was always transmitted from father to son. Candaules was the last of the Heraclidæ; and Gyges the first and Cræsus the last of the Mermnadæ. The Lydians were great warriors in the reign of the Mermnadæ. They invented the art of coining gold and silver, and were the first who exhibited public sports, &c. Lydia remained a part of the eastern Roman empire until 1326, when it was conquered by the Turks.

LYMAN, PHINEAS, born at Durham, Ct., about 1716, graduated at Yale College in 1738. He was afterward a tutor in this institution, studied law, settled in Suffield, and practiced with success. After serving as a member of the assembly of Connecticut, he was elected to the council, and, in 1755, appointed major-general and commander-in-chief of the Connecticut forces. In the battle of Lake George the command devolved upon him, and he also commanded the American forces in the expedition to Havana. After spending some years in England, he returned to America, and embarked for the Mississippi, where a grant of land had been given him in the vicinity of Natchez. He was followed by his family, but died in 1774, before their arrival.

LYNCHLAW. There are various accounts of the origin of this designation for summary vengeance upon criminals in cases where the law is considered too slow or too uncertain. According to one, it took its name from the stern act of one James Lynch Fitz Stephen, a merchant of the Irish town of Galway, and in 1526 its mayor or warden. The son of this Lynch Fitz Stephen, having committed a foul murder, his father, exercising his authority as magistrate, had him arrested and brought for trial before himself. The son was convicted, and the father not only sentenced him to suffer the extreme penalty of the law, but fearing a rescue from the prison, caused him to be brought home and to be hanged before his own door. For this harsh act Lynch has sometimes been termed the Irish Brutus. The incident was commemorated by a skull and crossbones sculptured over the door before

which the son was hanged. Another version of the story says that when the pitiless father could not find any person willing to act as hangman, he himself went to the place of his son's confinement, with his own hands tied the cord about his neck, and swung him off into the dread hereafter. The father afterward bitterly repented this deed.

The American system of Lynch Law began in what is now known as the Piedmont country of Virginia, which was at the time the western frontier. Having no law of its own, and being several miles from the nearest court of criminal jurisdiction, controversies were constantly referred to men of sound judgment and impartiality in the district, whose decisions were regarded as final. Prominent among these umpires was a man whose awards were so just, sound, and unbiased that he was known as Judge Lynch throughout the country. In the course of time criminals were brought before him, and he dealt such punishment as he considered due. There were other persons, in different districts, who acted as arbitrators and who awarded punishments; but Judge Lynch was the most conspicuous, and consequently the system took his name, and was called Lynch Law. This was a compliment to his integrity and high character. But of late years the term has been regarded as a reproach, because violent and unprincipled men—such men as Lynch was wont to punish—have set the laws at defiance, and while inflamed with passion, or maddened by a thirst for revenge, have usurped the prerogatives of the courts of justice.

LYNCH, THOMAS, Jr., one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, was born in St. George's, S. C., Aug. 5th, 1749, and educated in England, studying law in London. In 1775 he joined the Revolutionary army, but a severe sickness compelled him to relinquish his plan of serving his country in the field. He was elected to Congress, and signed the Declaration of Independence, but his health failing, he was advised to go to St. Eustatia, and embarked with his wife in December, 1779, after which date the vessel was not heard of.

LYSANDER, a great Spartan general, in

the last years of the Peloponnesian war. He drew Ephesus from the interest of Athens, and gained the friendship of Cyrus the Younger. He gave battle to the Athenian fleet, consisting of 120 ships, at Ægos Potamos, and destroyed it all, excepting three ships, with which the enemy's general fled to Cyprus. In this celebrated battle, which happened 407 B.C., the Athenians lost 3,000 men, and with them their empire and influence among the neighboring states. Lysander well knew how to take advantage of his victory, and the following year Athens, worn out by a long war of twenty-seven years, and discouraged by its misfortunes, gave itself up to the power of the enemy, and consented to destroy the Piræus, to give up all its ships except twelve, to recall all who had been banished, and, in short, to submit in everything to the power of Lacedæmon. Besides these humiliating conditions, the government of Athens was totally changed, and thirty tyrants were set over it by Lysander. This glorious success, and the honor of having put an end to the Peloponnesian war, increased the pride of Lysander. He had already begun to pave his way to universal power, by establishing aristocracy in the Grecian cities of Asia, and now he attempted to make the crown of Sparta elective. The sudden declaration of war against the Thebans saved him from the accusations of his adversaries, and he was sent, together with Pausanias, against the enemy. He was defeated and killed, 394 B.C., in the Boeotian war.

LYSIMACHUS, a son of Agathocles, who was among the generals of Alexander. He sided with Cassander and Seleucus against Antigonus and Demetrius, and fought with them at the celebrated battle of Ipsus. He afterward seized Macedonia, after expelling Pyrrhus from the throne, B.C. 286, but his cruelty rendered him odious, and the murder of his son Agathocles so offended his subjects that the most opulent and powerful revolted from him and abandoned the kingdom. He pursued them to Asia, and declared war against Seleucus, who had given them a kind reception. He was killed in a bloody battle, 281 B.C., in the eightieth year of his age.

LYS

M.

MACARTNEY, GEORGE, Earl, celebrated in diplomatic history, principally for his embassy to China in 1793, died in 1806, aged sixty-nine.

MACBETH, an usurper and tyrant who filled the Scottish throne during a part of the eleventh century. He murdered his kinsman and king, Duncan, 1040, and was slain in battle by Macduff, at Dunsinane in 1057. Shakspeare's "Macbeth" is one of the most powerfully drawn of his tragedies.

MACDONALD, STEPHEN JAMES JOSEPH ALEXANDER, was descended from a Scotch family that fled to France in the time of the rebellion. He was one of Napoleon's noblest generals, and reached the rank of Duke of Tarentum and marshal of the empire. He died in 1840, at the age of seventy-five.

MACDONOUGH, THOMAS, born in Delaware, December, 1783, gained a brilliant victory over the British fleet on Lake Champlain, Sept. 11th, 1814. Commodore Macdonough, on his return from commanding the Mediterranean squadron, died of consumption, Nov. 10th, 1825.

MACEDONIA, an ancient kingdom of Europe, founded by Caranus and Perdiccas, B.C. 800. It first became powerful under Philip and his son Alexander the Great (360-323 B.C.), the last of whom gave it new splendor, subdued the neighboring states, destroyed the liberties of Greece, and conquered the Persian empire. Macedonia continued in the family of Alexander, or of his generals, until 168 B.C., when by the defeat of Perseus it became a Roman province. It continued to belong to the Eastern empire until 1393, when the Turks under Bajazet IV. invaded the country, which was finally conquered by them in 1429.

MACHIAVELLI, NICOLÒ, was born of a noble family of Florence, in 1469. His first efforts produced a comedy called *Mandragora*, which proved so popular, on account of its satire, at Florence, that Leo X. sent for the actors to exhibit it to a Roman audience. Machiavelli acquired, however, greater fame by his political writings. By the influence of the Medicis, and as a recompense for the suffering he had endured on the rack on suspi-

cion of a conspiracy with the Soderini against Julius, afterward Clement VII., he was made secretary and historiographer to the republic of Florence. He died in 1527, of a medicine which he had taken.

MACKINTOSH, Sir JAMES, was born October 24th, 1765, at Alldowrie in the county of Inverness, Scotland, and was educated at King's College, Aberdeen, where he had for a fellow-student the celebrated Robert Hall. He shone as a philosophical historian, critic, and politician. He died in London, rather suddenly, May 30th, 1832.

MACKLIN, CHARLES, an eminent actor, born in Ireland 1690, continued on the stage until 1789! Shylock was his greatest triumph. He died at the age of a hundred and seven.

MACOMB, ALEXANDER, was born at Detroit in 1782. He commanded the army which co-operated with Macdonough's squadron on Lake Champlain, in 1814, and won the day at Plattsburg. In 1835 he became commander-in-chief. He died in 1841.

MACPHERSON, JAMES, a Scottish writer, was born in 1738. His fame rests upon his translation from the Gaelic of the poems of Ossian, the authenticity of which, denied by many writers, was partially allowed after a severe literary investigation. The question gave rise to warm dispute between Macpherson and Dr. Johnson. Macpherson died in 1796.

MADAGASCAR, a large island of Africa, 960 miles long, and from 200 to 500 broad; population, 4,500,000. It is extremely fertile. It was first visited by the Portuguese in the beginning of the sixteenth century. It is situated in the Indian Ocean, near the southern part of Africa, from which it is separated by the Mozambique Channel. Madagascar yields, in plenty, wheat, tobacco, rice, sugar, grapes, honey, and excellent fruits. Almost all the European animals are kept in abundance. The forests are composed of a prodigious variety of trees, and furnish vast quantities of ornamental wood. The island is divided among many petty kings or chiefs, but most of them have been subjugated by the Ovahs,



MONTPELIER, MADISON'S RESIDENCE.

The religion is Mohammedan, mingled with idolatry and Judaism. The climate is very hot, but the air is, in most parts of the country, healthful. The French have several times attempted to form settlements, but in general unsuccessfully.

MADERA, an island off the western coast of Africa, belongs to Portugal; population, 100,000. It is situated between the straits of Gibraltar and the Canaries, is fifteen leagues long, and sixty in circumference. It was discovered by Zarco, a Portuguese, in 1419. It has been celebrated for its excellent wines. Funchal is the capital. Sugar was formerly grown, but gave way to wine, which now seems to be yielding to coffee.

MADISON, JAMES, the fourth president of the United States, was born in Orange county, Va., March 16th, 1751. His ancestors were from Wales, and among the early emigrants to Virginia. James received a thorough preparatory education, and graduated at Princeton, N. J., in 1771, remaining afterward another year at college, and continuing his studies under Dr. Witherspoon, the president. His close application impaired his constitution, and for many years his health was feeble.

He commenced the practice of law in Virginia, but the stirring exigency of the Revolution called him early into public life. He was elected a member of the general assembly of Virginia in 1776, and in the winter of 1779-80 was chosen a delegate to the continental congress, of which body he continued an active and prominent member till 1784. He was a distinguished member of the convention which framed the federal constitution, in whose debates he took a leading part, and his views were the basis of the instrument that was draughted. Mr. Madison represented Virginia in the lower branch of the first federal congress, and bore an active part in the adoption of measures for the organization of the government. He continued a representative till 1797, opposing the measures of those afterward known as Federalists, and in his views of national policy coinciding with Jefferson, with whom through life he was connected in warm personal friendship. During the eight years of Jefferson's administration, Madison was secretary of state, and he succeeded his friend as president in 1809. He filled the executive chair eight years, during which (1812-1814) our country was

MAD

engaged in war with Great Britain. In the latter year the British took Washington, and President Madison, with some other principal officers of the government, barely escaped capture by a hurried flight. The close of Madison's administration was prosperous and tranquil. Upon the accession of Mr. Monroe to the presidency, Mr. Madison retired from public life to his seat at Montpelier in Orange county, Virginia, where he passed the remainder of his days. He died June 28th, 1836, at the ripe age of eighty-five. He was an able debater, and unexcelled as a political writer. He survived all other signers of the constitution, and the part he bore in framing that instrument, and his subsequent advocacy of it, obtained for him the title of Father of the Constitution.

In his forty-third year, 1794, Mr. Madison wedded Mrs. Dolly Paine Todd, of Philadelphia, the daughter of a Virginian Quaker, and the widow of a Pennsylvanian lawyer who had died in less than three years after her first marriage. No children were born to Mr. Madison. His wife was twenty years his junior, and she survived him many years.

MÆCENAS, CAIUS CILNIUS, the intimate friend and counselor of Augustus, and so great a patron of men of letters, that it has been customary to style every minister of a sovereign prince imitating his example, the Mæcenas of the age or country in which he lived. According to Horace, he was descended from the kings of Etruria. Augustus, one day, being on the tribunal, passing sentence of death on several persons, Mæcenas sent him a paper with this inscription, "Come down, butcher!" which struck the emperor so forcibly that he immediately descended from his seat. Mæcenas was the patron of Virgil and Horace, who immortalized him in their works. He distinguished himself also in the field, particularly at the battles of Modena and Philippi. When Augustus and Agrippa went to Sicily, Mæcenas assumed the administration of the government, though he was not ambitious of power. He died 8 B.C. In private life his character was stained by a devotion to sensual pleasures. The dedication of books was first introduced in his time.

MAGALHAENS, or MAGELLAN, FERNANDO DE, a Portuguese navigator, who, having

served under Albuquerque, obtained the command of a fleet from the Emperor Charles V., and discovered the straits at the extremity of South America which bear his name. He took possession of the Philippine Islands, where he was slain in a skirmish with the natives in 1521. His companions completed the circumnavigation of the globe, which had been Magalhaens' bold design. It was the first ever performed.

MAGNA CHARTA (the Great Charter), the charter extorted from King John by the English barons at Runnymede, June 15th, 1215, which laid the foundation of the public rights of the people of England.

MAHOMET, or, according to the orthography and pronunciation of the orientals, MOHAMMED (the Glorified), surnamed Aboul Cassem, the founder of the Arabic empire, and of the religion to which he gave his name, was born at Mecca, the 10th of November, A.D. 570, according to the most probable opinion. He was of the tribe of the Koreishites, the noblest and the most powerful of the country. He lost his father before he was two years old, and his mother before he was eight; but their affectionate attention was supplied by the care of his uncle, Abu Taleb, a merchant. In the family of this friendly protector, he was employed to travel with his camels between Mecca and Syria, till his twenty-fifth year, when he entered into the service of Khadjjah, a rich widow, whom, though twelve years older than himself, he married three years after. Thus suddenly raised to affluence and consequence above his countrymen, he formed the secret plan of obtaining for himself the sovereign power, and judging there was no way so likely to gain his end as by effecting a change in the religion of his countrymen, he adopted that as his instrument.

He spent much of his time alone in a cave near Mecca, employed, as he gave out, in meditation and prayer; though it is said that in reality he called to his aid a Persian Jew, well versed in the history and laws of his sect, and two Christians, one of the Jacobite and the other of the Nestorian sect. With the help of these men he framed his Koran, or the book which he pretended to have received at different times from heaven by the hands of the angel Gabriel. At the age of forty he

avored a few with news of his prophetic character, calling himself the Apostle of God. His disciples at first consisted only of his wife, nephew, and servant, but in the course of three years he had greatly increased the number of his followers. On these he imposed tales generally well adapted to deceive ignorant and superstitious minds. He pretended to have passed into the highest heavens in one night, on the back of a beautiful ass called Al Borak, and accompanied by the angel Gabriel; and that he there had an interview with Adam, Abraham, Moses, and Jesus Christ, who acknowledged his superiority, which was confirmed to him by the Deity himself. This romance staggered even some of his best friends, and a powerful party being formed against him, he was forced to quit Mecca, and to seek refuge in Medina. This expulsion dates the foundation of his empire, and of his religion. The Mohammedans adopt it as their chronological era, calling it the Hegira, being the 16th of July, A.D. 622.

Mahomet had still a number of disciples, upon whom he inculcated the principle, that they were not to dispute for their religion by words, but by the sword. No doctrine could possibly be better suited to a lawless and wandering people; it was soon carried into practice, and the Jewish Arabs were the first to experience its effects. Upon them the followers of Mahomet committed the most shocking cruelties: numbers were put to death, others were sold for slaves, and their goods distributed among the soldiers.

A faith thus propagated could not but succeed in a country like Arabia. Its adherents were not only rewarded by plunder here, but a sensual felicity hereafter was held out to them. To those who fell in battle he promised a voluptuous immortality,—a paradise, where cooling fountains tempered the warm air, and where the exertions of the faithful were rewarded by the charms of the divine Houris. He inculcated the doctrine of an irresistible destiny, declaring that ages before his birth the time of each man's death was fixed; and by impressing on his followers a belief in this, he enabled them to perform deeds of unequalled bravery, rushing to the charge with an impetuosity almost supernatural, and counting death as the pass-

port to those transports which were to have no transitory existence, but a blessed immortality. Backed by followers whom his instructions inspired with indomitable spirit, he beheld his arms completely triumphant.

In 627 Mahomet made a treaty with the inhabitants of Mecca; within two years he violated it, and captured the place. Having made himself master of Arabia, he extended his conquests into Syria, where he took several cities, and laid some of the princes under tribute. His career was stopped only by his death, which was supposed to be occasioned by poison, administered to him by a Jewess, and sprinkled on a shoulder of mutton, of which the prophet partook with a high relish. When the woman was examined she declared that she had perpetrated the deed, on purpose to try whether he was a true prophet. The poison is said to have taken effect three years after it had been administered. When he found himself dying, Mahomet caused himself to be supported to the mosque, where he celebrated the praise of God, demanded pardon for his sins, and then, mounting his throne, said: "If any one complaineth that I have stricken him unjustly, lo! here is my back; let him return the blows. If I have injured the reputation of any one, let him treat me in the same manner. If I have taken money from any one, I am here ready to restore it." His last words were, "Lord, pardon me; and place me among those whom thou hast raised to grace and favor." He died the 8th of June, A.D. 632, having lived sixty-three years.

He was of small stature, and of a sanguine temperament; he had a large head, regular and decided features; his eyes were large, black, and full of fire; his forehead was large, his nose aquiline, his cheeks full, and his mouth large. His teeth were white, but set a little apart from each other, and between his eye-brows was a vein which swelled when he was in anger. Notwithstanding his corpulency, his gait was easy and graceful. After the death of Khadijah, he had several wives and concubines, by whom he had many children, but left only one daughter, named Fatima, who married his successor Ali.

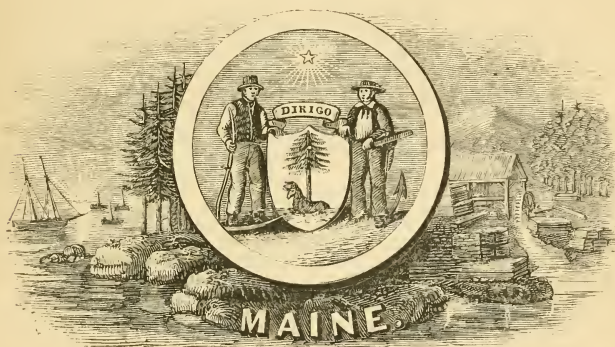
MAHOMET I., Emperor of the Turks, was the son of Bajazet I., and succeeded his

brother Moses in 1413. He re-established the glory of the Ottoman empire, which had been ravaged by Tamerlane, fixed the seat of government at Constantinople, and died in 1421.

MAHOMET IV. was born in 1642, and became emperor in 1649, after the tragical death of his father, Ibrahim I. He marched in person against Poland, and having taken several places, made peace with that country on condition of receiving an annual tribute. Sobieski, however, defeated him near Choczim, and obtained so many other advantages that

a peace favorable to Poland was concluded in 1676. The Janizaries, attributing this and other misfortunes to the indolence of the sultan, deposed him in 1687, and sent him to prison, where he died in 1691.

MAHRATTAS, a powerful nation of mountaineers in India, who maintained a series of wars with the British in the first part of the present century. Their capital, Poona, was taken in 1817. The possessions of the Mahrattas formerly extended from the coast of Malabar to that of Orissa, in the Ghaut Mountains, but they have been much narrowed.



MAINE occupies almost half the surface of New England, with its area of 31,766 square miles. In 1860 there were 628,279 inhabitants. The aspect of the north-western part is decidedly mountainous; some of the summits have an elevation of 4,000 feet. Mount Katahdin, a rugged and isolated group of hills between the east and west branches of the Penobscot, is 5,335 feet in height. It has been estimated that one-sixth of the surface of Maine consists of water. Some of the many lakes are most picturesque. Moosehead is the largest of these sheets. The streams abound with salmon and large trout. The St. John, in its upper course, skirts the northern line of Maine; the St. Croix the eastern. The Penobscot, Kennebec, Androscoggin, and Saco are fine and important streams; the former two of which are some ways navigable; but the frequent falls and rapids in all the rivers, caused by the uneven

face of the country, interdict their use for internal communication, while furnishing valuable water-power and mill-seats. Along the jagged coast are inlets, harbors, and bays, sheltered from the ocean by headlands and islands, which verdant groves crown and snowy beaches line.

The great wealth of Maine has been found in her wide forests of pine and cedar, which her hardy loggers and her busy mills turn into lumber and shingles. Beneath the surface she has little treasure. Some iron-ore has been found. Granite and marble are quarried and exported. Lime is largely burnt at Camden and Thomaston. Plentiful crops of grain, flax, and hemp are grown, and between the Kennebec and Penobscot is a very fertile country. Maine has more shipping than any other state except Massachusetts and New York, and in ship-building she takes the lead of all.

Maine was discovered by one of the Cabots in 1497. Afterward the French came, who called the country west of the Kennebec, Maine, and that east of that river, Acadie. About 1630, English settlements were founded in the former region. The first charter, which was proprietary, was granted to Sir Ferdinand Gorges in 1639; but in 1652 his schemes of colonization had fallen through, and the tract, under the name of the county of Yorkshire, came into the hands of Massachusetts, by whom, a quarter-century later, it was purchased from the Gorges family. The wars between the French and English, and the maraudings of the Indians, long retarded the growth of the colony. After the Revolution it continued in the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, as the district of Maine, or as a waggish South Carolinian said, in allusion to its noble area, "the main district of Massachusetts." In 1820 a separation was quietly effected, and Maine came into the Union as a sovereign state.

Both houses of the legislature, and the usual state officers, are elected annually. A council of seven is chosen by joint ballot of the legislature, to advise the executive. Every male citizen aged twenty-one or more (excepting paupers, persons under guardianship, and Indians not taxed), who has had a residence in the state three months, has the right of suffrage. Judges are appointed by the governor, by and with the advice of the council, for terms of seven years. Good provision is made for education, and a school for the reformation of juvenile delinquents is supported by the state.

Augusta, at the head of navigation on the Kennebec, is the capital; population in 1853, 9,500. Portland, on Casco Bay, is the great commercial city of Maine, with a harbor hardly excelled for capacity and safety on our coast; population in 1860, 26,341. Bangor, at the head of tide-water on the Penobscot River (population, in 1860, 16,407), is a flourishing and pleasant town, and contains a theological seminary.

MAINTENON, FRANCES D'AUBIGNE, Marchioness de, grand-daughter of Theodore Agrippa d'Aubigné, was born in 1635, in the prison of Niort, where her dissolute father was confined. On his death, Frances was sent to France, being patronized by her

parental aunt, Madame de Villette. From her, however, she was removed by an order of court, lest she should be brought up a Protestant. In 1651 she married the celebrated Scarron, from whom she learned the Latin, Spanish, and Italian languages. On his death, being in straitened circumstances, she accepted a pension from the queen, which was renewed to her after the death of that princess, through the favor of Madame de Montespan; and she undertook the education of the children of Louis XIV. by that mistress.

In this situation she acquired the esteem of the king, who in 1674 purchased for her the estate of Maintenon, which name she assumed. In 1685 the king, over whom she had gained a complete ascendancy, made her his wife, though the marriage was never publicly avowed. She has been accused of moving him to revoke the edict of Nantes; but this is improbable, as she exerted her influence in behalf of the suffering Protestants.

Her better actions deserve, beyond all doubt, much of the notice which has been given to the meaner part of her story. She exhibited all the characteristics of a woman striving to be great beyond the sphere of her sex, and the usual inconsistencies of famous women were very conspicuous in her: yet many of her acts were undoubtedly great. The royal institution of St. Louis, for the young and indigent female nobility, was founded by Madame de Maintenon, and liberally endowed by the king. This was afterward called the society of St. Cyr, and was distinguished by many excellent regulations. To her influence has been attributed the settlement of that peace so salutary to the French affairs after the destructive effects of the seven years' war, carried against all the ambitious designs and mortified impatience of the French generals. For a considerable time she lived on terms of intimacy with Fenelon, and on his recommendation patronized Madame Guion; but afterwards she joined the persecutors of that excellent man. On the death of Louis she retired to St. Cyr, where she died in 1718.

MALBONE, EDWARD G., an eminent miniature painter, resident at Newport, R. I., died 1807.

MALEBRANCHE, NICHOLAS, an idealistic philosopher, born at Paris 1638, died 1715.

MALESHERBES, CHRISTIAN WILLIAM DE LAMOIGNON, an eminent French counselor, was born at Paris in 1721. In 1775 he was made minister of state for the interior. Under his administration numerous abuses were removed; but the year following, when Turgot withdrew, he resigned, and traveled into different countries, in a plain attire, and under an assumed name. Of the revolution, he conceived a hope that it would be productive of good; yet he voluntarily pleaded the cause of Louis XVI., and defended him with all the ardor of conscious rectitude. He was condemned to death, with his daughter and grand-daughter, by the revolutionary tribunal, April 22d, 1793.

MALHERBE, FRANCIS, a French lyric poet; died 1628, aged seventy-two.

MALPLAQUET, BATTLE OF. This memorable battle, ten miles south of Mons, in Belgium, was fought on the 11th of September, 1709. Of the allied troops, altogether amounting to almost 120,000 men, two armies had been formed, one commanded by the Duke of Marlborough, and the other by Prince Eugene of Savoy. The French troops were, for the most part, newly raised men, ill clothed, and ill mounted, but in numbers equaling the foe. To re-enforce their army in Flanders, they had drawn 15,000 men from Germany. Marshal Villars was commander-in-chief; Marshal Boufflers had been sent to assist him at the battle, but without encroaching upon his authority.

The manner in which the French were posted may be thus described. Their right wing was covered by the wood of Taisnieres on one side, and by that of Jansart on the other. The latter had thick hedges behind it, with three ditches and artificial intrenchments one behind another; the access also was difficult, because of a marshy ground which lay before them. Against this wing the Dutch infantry were to make their attack. Their centre took up all the open space between the wood of Jansart and that of Sart. A hamlet toward the middle covered the depth of this centre, which was also defended by a line extending from one wood to the other. Their left wing was posted, partly in the wood of Sart, and

partly behind in the plain; the wood served as a natural covert, besides which they had felled trees, and raised banks of earth and fascines, fortified with cannon. In the lines of their centre were openings, to let their cavalry advance. Their artillery was posted on advantageous eminences, and they had nothing in their camp to encumber them.

The signal for the attack was given by the discharge of fifty pieces of cannon. Prince Eugene then advanced with his right, to penetrate into the wood of Sart. In the charges of this wing, General Shulemburg, the Duke of Argyle, and other generals led on eighty-six battalions, and Count Loween twenty-two other battalions, to attack the intrenchments in the woods of Sart and Taisnieres. General Withers also, with nineteen battalions, attacked the enemy in another intrenchment beyond the woods of Taisnieres and in Great Blagniere. The design in both succeeded: the fight, however, was long and obstinate, the enemy defending themselves with equal vigor. The allies were repulsed more than once, but notwithstanding the barricadoes of felled trees and other impediments, the action wavering almost two hours, they saw themselves at last masters of the wood, and had penetrated so far that they could see the hind part of the intrenchments of the enemy's centre.

The attack of the left wing did not begin till half an hour after that of the right, but it lasted longer, and was much more bloody. Thirty battalions, sustained by fifteen others, Prussians, Hanoverians, or Hessians, engaged with above seventy. These thirty battalions were commanded by Prince Friso of Nassau, general of the foot, and by Baron Fagel. Following his example, the troops of his attack advanced as far as the third intrenchment. But these they could not force, as the enemy were well seconded by fresh battalions drawn from their centre. The assailants were even driven back to their own post. Nevertheless the prince led on his troops a second time, to attack those intrenchments which he had once gained and lost again. They recovered the two first, but the third still remained impregnable. When the enemy's left retired, Marlborough directed the Earl of Orkney, with fifteen battalions, to attack and post himself in the intrenchments in the

plain between the woods of Sart and Jansart. This was executed, and gave the horse an opportunity to enter them, and advance into the plain. The first squadrons, led by the Prince of Hesse and the Prince D'Auvergne, were thrown into disorder by the household troops, but rallied, under the fire of those battalions. Advantages and disadvantages succeeded alternately six times, till the Prince of Hesse turning to the left, fell upon the rear of the infantry that had been engaged with the Prince of Nassau. This was the decisive stroke. On the sight of the diversion made by the Prince of Hesse, the Dutch battalions recovered new strength, broke through the third and last intrenchment, and drove all opposition before them. In general, the French made their retreat in good order; but three regiments of Danish cavalry made a terrible slaughter among several battalions of their right that had been surrounded. The allies pursued as far as the village of Quierrain. The enemy lost sixteen of their cannon, twenty colors, twenty-six standards, and left other indisputable marks of victory, including a number of prisoners. Many were taken next morning in Bavay and the neighboring places, weariness or their wounds not permitting them to follow their army. Great carnage was there on both sides; the allies lost 18,000 men.

MALTA, anciently *Melita*, and formerly dependent on Sicily, has a population of 146,000 inhabitants on its narrow limits of 115 square miles. Gozo and Comino are two small islands in its vicinity. Valetta, the capital of Malta, is one of the strongest places in the world, and has a valuable harbor, of great importance in the commerce of the Archipelago and the Levant. The island formerly belonged to the order of Malta, or knights of St. John. The French gained possession of it in 1798, but the English have held it since 1800. The soil of this island, which is rock covered with a light bed of earth, produces all sorts of vegetables, excellent fruits (the oranges, in particular, being famous), silk, sugar, and cotton. The climate is mild, and the atmosphere so clear that almost at every sunrise and sunset the summit of *Ætna*, 128 miles away, can be

distinctly descried. The Maltese are sober, fine seamen, and devoted to commerce.

MALTA, KNIGHTS OF, called also HOSPITALERS OF ST. JOHN OF JERUSALEM, KNIGHTS OF ST. JOHN, and KNIGHTS OF RHODES. Certain Christian merchants of Malphis in the kingdom of Naples, who traded to Palestine, obtained leave from the Caliph of Egypt in 1048, to dwell near the Holy Sepulchre of Christ, and to erect a small house for the entertainment of pilgrims, which they named the Hospital of Christians, with a small oratory dedicated to the Virgin Mary. Their number increasing, they built another house for women, and dedicated it to St. Mary Magdalen. Their number still increasing, they built a more convenient house, the other being too small, and dedicated it to St. John the Baptist. They entertained all pilgrims that came for devotion, and cured the diseased among them. They grew eminent for their devotion, charity, and hospitality. In 1118 they became a military order; St. John the Baptist being their patron, they were called Brethren Hospitalers of St. John Baptist of Jerusalem, to distinguish them from the knights of the Holy Sepulchre; they took the black habit of the Hermits of St. Augustin, and on the left side of the breast, they wore a cross of white cloth, with eight points. In war they wore crimson, with a white cross, but in their monasteries and on the day of their profession the black garment only. This order increased in wealth after the suppression of the Templars, most of whose lands were given to them. They had in several parts of Christendom 20,000 manors; in England the lord prior of the order was accounted the prime baron of the realm.

Their first great master was Gerald de Saint Didier, by whom they were founded. After Jerusalem was taken by Saladin, they retired to Acre, valiantly defended by them in 1290. The last master that had his residence in the Holy Land was John de Villiers, in whose time, being driven out of Palestine, they removed to Cyprus, and then to the isle of Rhodes, which they possessed till the year 1522, when they were expelled by Solyman the Magnificent, who took it by force, through want of succor by the Christian princes. The city was admirably defended by the

knights, under the conduct of their great master, Philip de Villiers.

After the loss of the isle of Rhodes, they removed to the island of Malta, which with Tripoli and Gaza were granted to them in fee by the Emperor Charles V., A.D. 1530, under the tender of one falcon yearly to the viceroy of Sicily, and to acknowledge the King of Spain and Sicily for their protector. In this isle they continued a bulwark to those parts, and from this their settlement, were called Knights of Malta.

In May, 1566, they were besieged by Solymán, with a navy of 160 galleys full of Turkish soldiers, and 100 vessels with provisions. The siege was sustained for four months by the bravery of the knights, and the conduct of their great master, John de Valet, so that the Turks were obliged to raise the siege, and leave 30,000 of their men behind, and the greater part of their artillery, on the 8th of September in the same year. Upon that day there is annually a procession at Malta, in memory of this deliverance.

These knights were in number 1,000; 500 to reside in the island of Malta, the remainder dispersed at their seminaries in Spain, Germany, Italy, and France, and at any summons to make their personal appearance. They had a seminary in England till the suppression of it by Henry VIII.; yet they continued to appoint one to whom they gave the title of the grand prior of England. Out of the following nations they chose their officers: Provence, the grand prior; Auvergne, the marshal of the order; Italy, the admiral of the order; Arragon, the conservator of the order; England they used to appoint the great colonel of the cavalry; Germany, the high bailiff of the order; Castile, the high chancellor of the order.

None were admitted into this order, but such as could prove their gentility for six descents; they swore to defend the church, to obey their superiors, and to live upon the revenues of their order only. There were sixteen called the great crosses, out of whom the officers of the order, as the marshal, admiral, chancellor, &c., were chosen, who, together with the master, punished such as were convicted of any crime.

When the grand master died, they suffered no vessel to go out of the island till another

was chosen, lest the pope should interfere in their election, which was as follows: the several seminaries named two knights each, allowing also two for the English; and those sixteen from among themselves chose eight; those eight chose a knight, a priest, and a friar servant; and these three, out of the sixteen great crosses, elected the great master, who, being chosen, was styled 'The most illustrious and most reverend Prince, the Lord Friar N. N. Great Master of the Hospital of St. John of Jerusalem, Prince of Malta and Gaza.'

The badge of the order was a gold cross of eight points, enameled white, pendent to a black watered ribbon, worn at the breast. This order having been composed of persons of different countries, the badge was decorated so as to distinguish the country of the bearer; Germany, by an imperial crown and eagle; France, the crown and fleurs-de-lis, &c.

In 1798 the knights of Malta yielded their dominion to the French power, from whom it was soon after wrested by the British, in which crown it was finally vested by the peace of 1814.

MAMELUKES (from the Arabic *Memalik*, a slave), a body of cavalry, formed in Egypt, 1214, from Georgian and Circassian slaves, chosen for their beauty and strength. From 1254 they governed that country for two hundred and sixty-three years, and expelled the Christians from Palestine in 1291. They remained a military body in Egypt, till the year 1810, but their chiefs were treacherously destroyed by Mohammed Ali in 1811. They were mounted on superb Turkish horses, which, although spirited and full of fire, were docile, and obedient to the word and bit. The prevailing color of this breed is gray, and the unfailling tenderness with which the horses of the Turks are treated, is repaid by astonishing fidelity on the part of these fine animals. The horses of the Mamelukes were splendidly caparisoned, and their studded trappings and rich bits rang in their gallop. The saddles had high pommels and cruppers, and the huge shovel stirrups were occasionally gilded and curiously ornamented. The riders wore full turbans, light jackets, loose short sleeves, and flowing trowsers. Their arms were an ataghan, or sabre, of Damascus

steel, which is so finely tempered that a blade composed of it breaks in the hand of an unskilful swordsman. The Mamelukes were skilled in the use of these sabres, and never gave slight wounds. Besides the ataghan, the Mameluke had a carbine slung at his back, and a brace of pistols at his saddle-bow.

At the famous battle of the Pyramids, the Mamelukes were almost annihilated by the French infantry under Bonaparte. The impenetrable squares of the French regiments received them with a most galling fire. The horses reared and plunged, and the riders fell by hundreds. In the very agony of death, while expiring upon the ground, some of the dismounted Moslems dragged themselves to the feet of the French troops, and cut at their legs with their long crooked sabres. Some backed their chargers upon the infantry, and caused them to strike the soldiers with their heels. But their rout was complete. Many perished in the Nile, and but a remnant escaped to Upper Egypt. Although individually the finest cavalry in the world, they were incapable of acting in concert.

MANLIUS, MARCUS CAPITOLINUS, a Roman consul and commander, who, when Rome was taken by the Gauls, retired into the capito and preserved it from a sudden attack made upon it in the night. The dogs which were kept in the capitol made no noise; but the geese, by their cry, awoke Manlius who had just time to repel the enemy. Geese from that period were always held sacred among the Romans, and Manlius was honored with the surname of Capitolinus. He afterward endeavored to subvert the liberties of his country, and was thrown down the Tarpeian rock, 383 B.C.

MANLIUS, TITUS TORQUATUS, a famous Roman, who displayed great courage in his youth as a military tribune. In the war against the Gauls he accepted a challenge given by one of the enemy, and having slain him took his collar from his neck, on which account he assumed the name of Torquatus. He was the first Roman advanced to the dictatorship without being previously a consul. But he tarnished his glory by putting his son to death, for defeating the enemy without having received orders to attack them. This gave great disgust to the Ro-

mans; and on account of his severity in his government, all edicts of extreme rigor were called *Manliana edicta*. He flourished B.C. 340.

MANSFIELD, WILLIAM MURRAY, Earl of, was born in Perthshire, March 2d, 1705. He was chief-justice of the King's Bench from 1756 to 1788, in which year he retired; and five years after, he died.

MANTINEA, a village of Greece, where 363 B.C. a battle was fought between the Thebans and Lacedæmonians, in which Epaminondas was killed.

MARAT, JEAN PAUL. The name of this monster revives the recollection of the worst atrocities of the French revolution. He wrote strongly in favor of the worst of parties, and was a member of the convention. Marat, who belonged to the Mountain party, and was deeply implicated in their sanguinary proceedings, was assassinated by Charlotte Corday, in 1793. He was born in Neufchatel, Switzerland, in 1746.

MARATHON, a village of Greece, eighteen miles north-east of Athens. It is famous for the battle fought on its plains Sept. 28th, 490 B.C., in which Miltiades, with a small Grecian force, totally defeated the numerous army sent by Darius, King of Persia, to conquer Greece.

MARCY, WILLIAM L., was born in South-bridge, Mass., December 12th, 1786. In the war of 1812 he served gallantly as a lieutenant of infantry. He was bred to the law in the state of New York, and was thrice elected governor of the state. He was at the head of the war department during Polk's administration, and secretary of state under President Pierce. He died suddenly July 4th, 1857.

MARENGO, a village in the Sardinian duchy of Montferrat, celebrated for the victory of Bonaparte over the Austrians, June 14th, 1800. Some details of this most severe conflict, which, perhaps beyond all others, established the military character of Bonaparte, then consul, are well entitled to a place in a compendium of history. The French headquarters were removed to Voghera, which the army passed through on its way to Tortona, taking up a position round Tortona to blockade it by divisions; the advance-guard quickly went round the town, and passed without any-

thing remarkable having taken place. If the Austrian commander was doubtful as to what line of conduct he ought to pursue, this was his time to determine: the possession of Genoa gave him choice either to fight, or shut himself up in the garrison he held; and he should not have forgotten that so long as he held Genoa, his army had a retreat from the port, and to have kept the communication open with that city should have been his chief concern. The French fought for Genoa from a knowledge of its value, and Bonaparte hastened to derive advantage from the neglect of the Austrians. He ordered the banks of the Po opposite Valenza to be guarded, lest they should escape that way, and the passes between Piedmont and Genoa to be gained. Massena and Suchet were rapidly advancing to annoy the rear of the Austrians, and the first consul, in his letter to his colleagues, does not seem ignorant of the movements in his favor by the army of Italy. The French army understood that Melas had evacuated Turin, and was advancing to meet them with 60,000 men. General Gardanne retired to take post at Marengo, on the plain of which his great body of cavalry would be of much service. Bonaparte skirted Marengo, and was seen examining the ground with attention, by turns meditating and giving orders.

The army passed that night at St. Julian's, at the entrance of the plain of Marengo. On the morning of the 14th of June, some discharges of cannon roused them from their repose. All was soon in readiness. Gardanne was attacked at seven o'clock; the enemy showed much vigor of preparation; a few weak points were touched on, but his intentions were unknown till late in the morning. Berthier was first in the field, and wounded soldiers arriving, owned that the Austrians were in force. General Victor's division was drawn up in order of battle. General Lannes' division formed the right wing. The French army was in two lines, and the cavalry supported its wings. Bonaparte, about eleven o'clock, hastened to the field of battle. General Desaix was ordered to support Victor. The Austrians were careful of their position near the bridge, on the Bormida; but the principal point of action was at St. Stefano: from hence they could cut off the retreat of the French, and they gave their attention to

this point. The division under Victor began to give way, and many corps of cavalry and infantry were driven back. The firing came nearer, and a sudden and dreadful discharge was heard on the Bormida; the French were soon seen retreating, carrying the wounded on their shoulders, and the Austrians gained upon them. Bonaparte advanced, and urged all he met with; his presence encouraged them; his own guards no longer continued about his person, but near him shared in the battle. The grenadiers of the consular guard advanced against the enemy: although they were only about 500 men, they still advanced, and forced everything in their passage; they were three times charged by the enemies' cavalry; they surrounded their colors and wounded, and having exhausted all their ammunition, they then slowly fell back, and joined the rear-guard.

The army fought retreating in all directions; the Austrians turned the right wing, the garrison of Tortona made a sortie, and the French were thus surrounded. Bonaparte in the centre, encouraged the gallant corps that defended the defile which crossed the road, shut up on one side by a wood, and on the other by some thick vineyards of lofty growth; the village of Marengo was on the left. Of the French artillery, the few gunners that remained had little ammunition left. Thirty pieces of cannon, well served by the enemy, cut up the French. In the midst of this slaughter, the first consul appeared to brave death. The ground was ploughed up by the enemies' shot, even between the legs of his horse; but undaunted, and with the greatest coolness, he gave his orders as events required: he was urged to retire, but discovered no change. Marengo seemed the prize for which both parties contended. Gardanne flanked the corps going to attack it; the Austrians for a moment gave way, but being re-enforced, marched on. General Kellerman, the younger, supported the left; a regiment of dragoons routed a column of Austrian cavalry, but was charged by superior numbers, and was giving way, when two more columns advanced to his assistance, and took one hundred prisoners.

The consul being informed that the reserve of General Desaix was not yet arrived, hastened to the division of General Lannes to slacken its retreat: he told them it was his

practice to sleep on the field of battle. The enemy, however, advanced; the retreat was absolutely necessary, and took place in good order. Though eighty pieces of cannon were playing on them, this did not annoy the firmness of the French: they manœuvred as though they were on parade. At four in the afternoon, not more than 6,000 infantry stood to their colors, and six pieces of cannon only could be made use of; one-third of the army was unable to combat, and more than another third was occupied in removing the sick and wounded, owing to the want of carriages.

Every circumstance was eminently discouraging to the French army, but their fortitude and courage changed their situation in the course of two hours afterward. The divisions of Mounier and Desaix showed themselves; they arrived on a gallop, after a forced march of ten leagues, anxious to avenge their fallen comrades. The crowd of dead and wounded might well have damped their ardor, but one opinion only reigned among them, and they rushed on to glory. General Melas, ignorant of what passed in the French line, and also ignorant of the re-enforcements that had timely arrived to their succor, changed that disposition which had given him success, and which it was his interest as well as duty to have followed up. He extended his wings, thinking, by this manœuvre, to cut the enemy off, but it only brought on his own disaster. Bonaparte, whom nothing escaped, seized on this favorable opportunity, and altered his plan accordingly.

When Desaix reached the heights, the consul, the generals, and the staff went through the ranks inspiring confidence. This took up near an hour, while the Austrian artillery was bearing upon their ranks, and many were thus killed without moving, except to cover their comrades' dead bodies. The signal for charging was at length heard. Desaix, at the head of a light battalion, threw himself upon the Austrians, and charged with the bayonet: all the French were in motion at once, in two lines; their fire carried everything before it; the enemy were in every position overthrown. The French line now presented a formidable front; as quick as the cannon were brought up, they made dreadful havoc among the affrighted Austrians; they fell back, and the cavalry charged with fury; a powder wagon blew up,

and their alarm increased; in fact, all gave way and fled. The French cavalry rushed into the plain, and advanced toward the enemy. Desaix trampled on all obstacles which opposed him. Victor carried Marengo, and flew toward the Bornida. The centre, under Murat, advanced into the plain; he much annoyed the Austrian centre, and kept a great body of cavalry in check. Desaix cut off the left wing of the Austrians completely, and in the moment of his victory received a mortal wound. General Kellerman made 6,000 prisoners, with two generals and officers of the staff. Night coming on, the Austrians were all in disorder; all crowded together near the centre, and many were thrown into the river, off the bridge; their artillery intercepted their retreat. The third line of Austrian cavalry, wishing to save the infantry, came up. A ditch separated the combatants. The French crossed it, and immediately surrounded the first two platoons. The Austrians were thrown into disorder; the pursuit continued, and they made a great many prisoners; the Austrian rear-guard was cut to pieces. Night setting in, and the extreme fatigue of the horses, made Murat determine not to expose his troops more after so successful a day's work. The armies had been fourteen hours within musket-shot of each other, and wanted rest. Victory waved on each side four times during the day, and sixty pieces of cannon were alternately won and lost. When the battle ended, the French had taken 12 standards, 45 pieces of cannon, and 12,000 prisoners. The Austrians lost seven generals, 400 officers, and 6,000 men killed or wounded. The French lost Generals Desaix and Watrin killed, four generals of brigade wounded, and 3,000 men killed, wounded, and prisoners. The French army, when the battle began, was reckoned at about 45,000 strong, with about thirty pieces of artillery. The Austrian army was from 55,000 to 60,000 men, including near 18,000 cavalry, and an immense train of artillery well provided. By this victory Bonaparte became the master of Italy.

MARGARET OF ANJOU. [See PLANTAGENETS, HENRY VI.]

MARGARET, the Countess of Salisbury, daughter of the Duke of Clarence, brother of Edward IV.; beheaded May 27th, 1541, aged seventy.

MARGARET, Queen of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, commonly called the Semiramis of the North, vanquished Albert her rival at Falkoping in 1389, and died in 1412. Albert had contemptuously termed her "the king in petticoats."

MARIA THERESA, born May 13th, 1717, was the eldest daughter of Charles VI. of Austria. Her succession to the throne, in defiance of the 'family compact,' had been guaranteed by all the leading states of Europe: yet upon the decease of her father, she was attacked by Prussia, France, Spain, Bavaria, Sardinia, and Sicily, each of whose monarchs had picked out the slice of her domains he would like. A long war ensued. Her husband was her cousin, Francis of Lorraine. At one time the enemy stalked in her capital: she fled to Presburg, and appealed to the Hungarians. "Let us die for our *king* Maria Theresa," (they never would acknowledge a queen), was their cry, and by their loyalty and valor the empire was saved. Maria Theresa was pious and just, and her court was a bright contrast to the debaucheries of other kingdoms. The great empress died Nov. 29th, 1780. A little while before she breathed her last, she lay with closed eyes, apparently slumbering. One of the attendants whispered, "The empress sleeps." At once she opened her eyes: "No," she said, "I do not sleep; I wish to meet my death awake."

MARIAMNE, the wife of Herod the Great, by whom she had two sons, Alexander and Aristobulus, and two daughters. Herod was very fond of Mariamne; but she had little regard for him, especially after he put to death her brother Aristobulus. When Herod went to Rome to court the favor of Augustus, he left secret orders with Josephus and Sohemus, to destroy Mariamne and her mother, if any misfortune should happen to him. Mariamne, having obtained the secret from Sohemus, upbraided Herod at his return, with his inhumanity, for which he put her to death, together with Sohemus, B.C. 22.

MARIE ANTOINETTE, the accomplished, beautiful, and unfortunate queen of Louis XVI. of France, whom she married while he was dauphin, was the daughter of Francis I. and Maria Theresa, and was born at Vienna in 1755. Her accomplishments, talents, grace, virtue, and uncommon loveliness fitted her

for the queen of a gallant nation, and as such she would have been honored in France, had she lived before oppression had roused the people to madness. Her mother, in a letter to her future husband, after alluding to the care with which she had formed her mind, says, "Above all things, I have recommended to her humility before God, because I am convinced that it is impossible for us to secure the happiness of the subjects confided to us, without love to Him, who destroys the sceptres and the thrones of kings according to his will." The marriage took place at Versailles, May 16th, 1770, and was celebrated with uncommon splendor; but immediately after the ceremony, a thunder-storm of unparalleled violence broke over the palace of Versailles, darkened the surrounding scenery, and struck terror into the hearts of the people for miles around. On May 30th, the festivities at Paris were saddened by a most terrible accident; a number of citizens being crushed to death in the Rue Royale, by some mismanagement on the part of the proper authorities. Fifty-three persons were found dead, and three hundred more were dangerously injured.

The magnanimity of Marie Antoinette displayed itself soon after her elevation to the throne, on the death of Louis XV. An officer of the body-guard, who had given offense on some former occasion, expressed his intention of resigning his commission, but the queen forbade him. "Remain," said she; "forget the past. Far be it from the queen to avenge the injuries of the dauphiness." She devoted herself to the interests of her people with an assiduity unparalleled in a sovereign of her age; yet, becoming obnoxious to the court party, her character was assailed in every shape and quarter. She was accused of setting on foot conspiracies which never existed, and of entertaining views which never entered her mind. She was termed the Austrian, and it was openly asserted as well as privately insinuated, that her heart was estranged from the country of her husband, and her mind solely occupied with the interests of her native land. In her conduct there was matter for gentle reproof, but none for malevolent accusation. A gayety which sometimes degenerated into levity, a passion for fashionable novelties, and an unwary contempt for court formalities, instead of being regarded as the foi-

bles and imprudences of a young and innocent mind, were construed into evidences of the existence of loose principles, unbridled extravagance, and hatred for the nation. She was likewise charged with pettishness under reproof; and we can readily conceive how a woman of so high a rank, conscious of the purity of her intentions, and perpetually assailed by reckless cavaliers, assumed in reply to the unworthy insinuations of her enemies, the tone which her virtue and her birth appeared to warrant. The affair of the diamond necklace created an extraordinary sensation. A jeweler at Paris demanded payment for a necklace so costly that the finances of a queen would hardly warrant its purchase. Examination brought proof of the queen's integrity. A lady of the stature and complexion of the queen had succeeded in disguising herself, and passing herself off as Marie Antoinette, upon a cardinal in a midnight meeting in the park of Versailles.

The long gathering cloud broke in storm in 1789. On the 6th of October, the mob broke into the palace of Versailles, murdered some of the body-guards, and threatened the queen in the most frightful language. At midnight she received a letter from a friendly clergyman, advising her to seek safety in flight, as her life would be sacrificed early the next morning. She resolved to remain and destroyed the warning letter. She heard the footsteps of the ruffian rabble; she thought her time had come; but her life was saved. The progress of the ruffians was arrested at the very door of her bed-chamber, where her faithful guards laid down their lives to secure for their queen a retreat to the chamber of the king. The king and queen showed themselves with their children in the balcony. The mass of heads beneath for a moment ceased to be agitated; but it was only for a moment. Silence was broken by a thousand tongues: "No children! no children! The queen! the queen alone!" This was a trying moment; but Antoinette had firmness for the crisis. Putting her son and daughter into her husband's arms, she advanced alone into the balcony. A spectacle like this filled the fierce people with admiration, and thundering shouts of "Long live the queen," succeeded to the imprecations of the preceding moment. Such

is the fickleness of a mob! The march to Paris was a succession of terrors. The heads of two faithful guardsmen, elevated on pikes, met the eyes of the poor queen as she looked from her carriage windows.

The fate of Marie Antoinette darkened rapidly. With the king she fled to Varennes. With him she was brought back to Paris. Her courage did not fail in the scene of the legislative assembly, before which body she was present with her husband, heard his deposition pronounced, and then went into the Temple, where he was imprisoned. Here, where the light of heaven faintly fell through grated windows, surrounded by her family, she appeared to feel entire resignation to the will of Him on whom the happiness of the humblest individual depends. When she heard the condemnation of the king from the lips of the royal victim, she had the firmness to congratulate him on the speedy delivery from trouble which awaited him. The eternal separation from her son did not shake her firmness, and, with a heart apparently unbroken, she was consigned to the loathsome depths of a dungeon, Aug. 5th, 1793. The accusations brought against the unhappy queen on her trial, were all unfounded, and were merely advanced because her enemies had still respect enough for justice to mimic its forms in their guilty court. In the indictment she was named the Widow Capet. She was charged with having squandered the public money, and with leaguings in secret with the foreign enemies of France. The clearness of her innocence, the falsehood and frivolity of witnesses, the eloquence of defenders, were of no avail: Marie Antoinette was doomed to die upon the scaffold.

The expression of her countenance as she passed to the place of execution awed the bloodthirsty populace; but the matchless beauty of that countenance was gone forever. Her hair had turned white in prison; her dress was tattered. One unacquainted with the ravages of grief could not believe that the haggard and forsaken being now led to sacrifice was the young queen who a short time before held in thrall the chivalry of France, by her exquisite loveliness, her winning grace and sportive gayety. Antoinette cast back a long last look at the Tuileries, a

look which told of sorrowful remembrance, and of agonizing emotion; then, with an air of dignified resignation, she ascended the scaffold. "My God!" cried she, as she kneeled on that fatal platform, "enlighten and affect my executioner! Adieu, my children—my beloved ones—forever! I am going to your father!" This unfortunate woman perished in her thirty-eighth year, October 16th, 1793.

MARIE DE MEDICIS, the queen of Henry IV. of France, was the daughter of Francis II., Grand-Duke of Tuscany, and the Arch-duchess Joan of Austria. She was wedded to Henry in 1600, at the age of twenty-seven. At his death in 1610, their son, Louis XIII., was only nine years of age, and Marie acted as regent. Intrigues and discords disturbed her reign; Richelieu felt his way to supreme power; and the unhappy dowager was at last driven from France. Abandoned by all her Italian kin, and neglected by her unnatural son, she suffered for the common means of life, and died in a garret at Cologne in 1642.

MARION, FRANCIS, was born at Winyaw, S. C., in 1732. "He was not larger than a New England lobster, and might easily enough have been put into a quart pot." He served in expeditions against the Cherokees and other hostile tribes, and at the opening of the Revolution received a captain's commission, from which he rose to the rank of brigadier of his native state. The exploits of Marion and his men kept the British and Tories of South Carolina in constant terror, and are among the most spirited reminiscences of that thrilling time. The wariness and rapidity of the brave partisan gained him the familiar name of the Swamp Fox. He died Feb. 29th, 1795. His last words were, "Thank God, since I came to man's estate, I have never intentionally done wrong to any man."

MARIUS, CAIUS, a celebrated Roman general. He conquered Jugurtha, King of Numidia, and afterward, for several successive years, carried on war with the Cimbri and Teutones, barbarous nations who attempted to subdue Italy. In his old age he engaged in a civil war with Sylla, and was compelled to flee to Africa. He landed at Carthage. Presently there came a messenger from C. Sextilius, the governor of the

province, ordering him to depart. He sat in silence, glaring sternly at the envoy, and when asked what reply should be made to the prætor, he groaned and said, "Tell him you saw Caius Marius sitting an exile among the ruins of Carthage." His party becoming victorious, he returned to Rome, where amidst massacre he died, 86 B.C. He was seven times consul.

MARLBOROUGH, JOHN CHURCHILL, Duke of, was born at Ashe, in Devonshire, in 1650, and received an indifferent education, for his father took him to court at the age of twelve years. About 1666 he was made an ensign in the guards, owing his colors to the disgrace of his sister Arabella by the Duke of York, and served for some time at Tangier. In 1672 he was with the Duke of Monmouth, who served with the French against the Dutch, and was made captain of grenadiers. The conduct of Mr. Churchill at the battle of Nimeguen gained the particular notice of Marshal Turenne, who called him "the handsome Englishman who would one day make a great general." At the siege of Maestricht, his bravery was so distinguished that the French king thanked him particularly at the head of the line. He was made, on his return to England, lieutenant-colonel, gentleman of the bed-chamber, and master of the robes to the Duke of York. He attended that prince to Holland, and into Scotland, and about this time married Miss Sarah Jennings, one of the Princess Anne's maids of honor. In 1682 he was made a peer, by the title of Baron Eymouth in Scotland; and when James came to the crown, he was sent ambassador to France to announce the event. In 1685 he was created Lord Churchill of Sandridge in the county of Hertford. The same year he took part in the suppression of Monmouth's rebellion. When the Prince of Orange landed, Churchill assured the king he would shed his last drop of blood in his service. The hypocrite had long been in correspondence with William, had corrupted the army, and shortly after completed his treachery by joining the invaders. The prince was proud of this acquisition, gave his lordship a gracious reception, and intrusted him with the sole regulation of the army. In 1689 he was sworn of the privy council, and made one

of the gentlemen of the bed-chamber of the king, and created Earl of Marlborough. The same year he was sent to Holland as commander of the English forces. He next served in Ireland, and reduced Cork, with other strong places. But notwithstanding these important services, he was dismissed from his employments, and committed to the Tower; from which, however, he was soon released. The cause of this was supposed to be a suspicion that he favored the Jacobites.

At the commencement of Queen Anne's reign, the earl came to England, whence he had been sent ambassador to Holland, and recommended a speedy war with France and Spain, which advice was followed. He went to the continent as captain-general of the English forces, and performed many brilliant actions throughout his various campaigns, too numerous indeed to be detailed here. Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet were among the greatest of his victories. At the battle of Ramillies, May 12th, 1706, he narrowly escaped death, a cannon-shot taking off the head of Colonel Bingley as he was helping the duke to his horse. In 1711 he returned to England, deprived of his employments by Queen Anne, through the intrigues of his enemies. George I. restored him his military appointments. He died June 15th, 1722.

Marlborough rose fast in the court and in the army, and was early distinguished as a man of fashion and of pleasure. His stature was commanding, his face handsome, his address singularly winning, yet of such dignity that the most impertinent fops never ventured to take any liberty with him; his temper, even in the most vexatious and irritating circumstances, always under perfect command. His education had been so much neglected that he could not spell the most common words of his own language; but his acute and vigorous understanding amply supplied the place of book learning. He was not loquacious; but, when he was forced to speak in public, his natural eloquence moved the envy of practiced rhetoricians. His courage was singularly cool and imperturbable. During many years of anxiety, and peril, he never, in any emergency, lost even for a moment the perfect use of his admirable judgment.

Unhappily, the splendid qualities of John Churchill were mingled with alloy of the most sordid kind. Some propensities, which in youth are singularly ungraceful, began very early to show themselves in him. He was thrifty in his very vices, and levied ample contributions on ladies enriched by the spoils of more liberal lovers. He was, during a short time, the object of the violent but fickle fondness of the Duchess of Cleveland. On one occasion he was caught with her by King Charles, and was forced to leap out of the window. She rewarded this hazardous feat of gallantry with a present of five thousand pounds. With this sum the prudent young hero instantly bought an annuity of five hundred a year, well secured on landed property. Already his private drawers contained heaps of broad pieces, which, fifty years later, when he was a duke, a prince of the empire, and the richest subject in Europe, remained untouched.—*Macaulay*.

MARMONT, AUGUSTUS FREDERICK, the last survivor of Napoleon's marshals, commenced his military career in the army of the monarchy. Napoleon made him Duke of Ragusa. He was the seventh of the imperial marshals whose laurels were plucked by Wellington in Spain. He surrendered Paris to the allies in 1814, and afterward steadily adhered to the Bourbons. After the revolution of 1830 he was struck from the list of the army. He died at Venice in 1852, at the age of seventy-eight.

MARMONTEL, JOHN FRANCIS, an eminent French writer, born at Bort, in Limousin, in 1723. He was the son of a tailor, but educated at the college of Toulouse, and afterward made an abbe. He was imprisoned in the Bastille for writing a satire on an influential person, but escaped the revolutionary fury. He died in 1799 at Abbeville. His literary character depends chiefly on his "Moral Tales," many of which were not very moral.

MARRIAGE. Among the Babylonians, at a certain time every year, the marriageable women were assembled, and disposed of to the best bidder by the public crier. The richest citizens purchased at such high prices as pleased them, and the money thus obtained was used to portion off the women to

whom nature has been less liberal of personal charms. When all the beauties had been struck off, the crier put up the more ordinary lots, beginning with the most ill-favored virgins that remained, and announcing a premium for each. The bidders named sums below this premium, at which they would be willing to take the maid, and he who bid lowest was declared the happy man. Thus every woman was provided for. This custom originated with Atossa, daughter of Belochus, about 1433 B.C. The first institution of union between man and woman for life, with ceremonies of binding and solemn nature, is ascribed to Cecrops, at Athens, 1554 B.C. The prevailing ceremony in most countries was that of a man leading home his bride, after a solemn contract with her friends. That this contract might be the more sacred, it was made the work of the priest. The Greeks considered full moons, or times of conjunction of the sun and moon, as seasons most propitious for marriage. The celebration of marriages in churches was ordained by Pope Innocent III. Marriage in Lent was forbidden A.D. 364. Celibacy was enjoined upon bishops in 692, and upon priests in 1015. In the early ages concubinage was sanctioned. A Roman might have either a wife or a concubine (*semi-conjux*), but not both together. Constantine the Great gave a check to concubinage, but did not abolish it, for it subsisted many years in the church. In Germany *morganatic* or left-handed marriages are known between princes and women of lower rank, in which it is stipulated that the offspring shall not inherit the condition of the father. Most of the early nations permitted polygamy. It was general among the Jews, and still obtains in the East. In Media it was a reproach to a man to have less than seven wives. Among the Romans Mark Antony is mentioned as the first who took two wives, and the practice became frequent until forbidden by Arcadius, A.D. 393. Polygamy has been adopted by the Mormons.

Wild Will Shakspeare and rare Ben Jonson were both susceptible youth as well as brother poets; the one wedded his Ann Hathaway at eighteen, the other an unknown sweetheart at twenty. Dr. Sam Johnson, Burke, quaint Fuller, Scott, and Dante wived

at twenty-six; Byron, Bonaparte, Washington, and Wellington at twenty-seven; Penn and Sterne at twenty-eight; and Burns at thirty. Chaucer, Hogarth, and Peel wedded at thirty-two; the poetical philosopher Davy, and the philosophical poet Wordsworth, at thirty-three; Franklin at thirty-four; Aristotle and Linnæus at thirty-nine; and Martin Luther broke loose from celibacy at forty-two. Addison lived a bachelor till he was forty-four; Swift toyed with Stella and Vanessa till he was forty-nine, and then sopped the former's love and jealousy with a clandestine marriage; Buffon, fond as he was of animated nature, waited till he was fifty-five; while old Parr took him a fresh rib at one hundred and twenty. The pious Jeremy Taylor, who thought "marriage a die of the greatest contingency, and yet of the greatest interest in the world next to the last throw for eternity," ventured it at twenty-six, and liked his luck so well that, being early left a widower, he tried a second throw. [See BACHELORS.] In the feudal law, banns were a solemn proclamation of anything, and hence (about 1200) arose the custom of asking banns, or giving notice before marriage. Marriages were first solemnized by justices of the peace in the time of Cromwell. [See HYMEN.]

MARS, in ancient mythology, the son of Juno, and the god of war. He is represented with a helmet on his head, a spear in his hand, often on a car, animated with the ardor of battle. The Romans honored him most, and erected many temples to him. His priests, the Salii, celebrated his festivals by dancing, and beating their bucklers in accord to music. He was the favorite of Venus, and completely supplanted Vulcan, who, however, revenged himself.

MARSHALL, JOHN, was a Virginian by birth. In the Revolution he bore arms in his country's behalf, seeing service at Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth. With Messrs. Pinckney and Gerry, he was sent on an embassy to France in 1797. During the last year of the elder Adams's administration he was secretary of state; and that president, Jan. 31st, 1801, appointed him chief justice of the supreme court. This eminent station he adorned till his death in 1836.

MARSHALS OF FRANCE. The following list of the marshals of France under Napoleon,

will be useful to the reader of French history. Arrighi, Augereau, Bernadotte, Berthier, Bessières, Davoust, Jourdan, Junot, Kellerman, Lannes, Lefebvre, Macdonald, Marmont, Massena, Moncey, Mortier, Murat, Ney, Oudinot, Soult, Suchet, and Victor. The following were Napoleon's chief officers of state: Cambacérès, Caulaincourt, Champagne, Duroc, Fouché, Le Brun, Maret, Savary, and Talleyrand.

MARSTON MOOR. Sir Thomas Fairfax, and the Scots, under the Earl of Leven, were besieging York, when Prince Rupert determined to raise the siege. The hostile armies met on Marston Moor, July 3d, 1644. The energy of Oliver Cromwell, who here first came into notice, and the steady valor of the warriors whom he had trained, retrieved the day after it had been disgracefully lost by the Presbyterians, and the royalists received a blow from which they never recovered.

MARTIAL, MARCUS VALERIUS, a Latin satiric poet, died A.D. 104, aged seventy-five.

MARTIN, LUTHER, an eminent lawyer, first attorney-general of Maryland, which office he held during the war, and nearly forty years; became chief-justice of the city court of Baltimore; died July 10th, 1826, in his eighty-second year. He was one of the convention that formed the constitution of the United States.

MARVELL, ANDREW, a poet, political writer, and patriotic member of parliament, was born at Hull in 1620. He was the friend of Milton, and his associate as Latin secretary. Charles II. delighted in the patriot's society, and once sent Danby the treasurer to him, with an offer of a place at court and an immediate present of a thousand pounds. Inflexible Marvell refused the bribes, and in illustration of his independence called his servant to witness that for three days he had dined on one shoulder of mutton! When the treasurer was gone, Marvell was forced to send to a friend to borrow a guinea! He died Aug. 16th, 1678.

MARY, Queen of Scotland. [See STUART.]

MARYLAND. In 1860 the population was 687,049, of whom 87,189 were slaves, and 83,942 free negroes. Its whole area is rather more than 13,600 square miles, though its land surface is only about 11,000. The section lying east of Chesapeake Bay is locally

known as the Eastern Shore, and the opposite coast as the Western Shore. The Potomac divides Maryland from Virginia. The central portion of the state is crossed by the Blue Ridge, and the Alleghanies traverse the western. Large fields of bituminous coal are found in the west, iron ore throughout the state, and fine marble for building is quarried. Indian corn and wheat are the agricultural staples of the Eastern Shore, and these with tobacco form those of the Western. Cotton, flax, and hemp are also raised.

George Calvert, Lord Baltimore, a Catholic gentleman who desired to found an asylum from persecution for the sect of which he was a distinguished member, visited Maryland, but died in England while preparing for the emigration. His son Cecil obtained a patent of the territory designed for the father. It was to have been called *Crecentia*, but he named it Maryland, in honor of Henrietta Maria, the wife of Charles I. He appointed his brother, Leonard Calvert, governor of the colony. The first settlement was made at St. Mary's on the Potomac, March, 1634, land having been bought from the Indians. The most marked feature in the new colony was its liberality to religious belief. Its toleration was surpassed only by the little band that had gathered about Roger Williams on the plantation of Providence. The general assembly of Maryland, in 1649, enacted "that no person or persons within this province, professing to believe in Jesus Christ, shall from henceforth be anywise troubled, molested, or discountenanced for, or in respect of, his or her religion, nor in the free exercise thereof, within this province, nor any way compelled to the belief, or exercise of any other religion, against his or her consent." Among various provisions to secure this statute was a curious one that any person who should, upon any occasion, declare, or call by way of reproach, any other person residing in the province a Heretic, Schismatic, Idolator, Puritan, Presbyterian, Independent, Popish Priest, Jesuit, Jesuited Papist, Lutheran, Calvinist, Anabaptist, Brownist, Antinomian, Barrowist, Roundhead, Separatist, or other name or term, in a reproachful manner, relating to religion, should for every such offense be fined ten shillings sterling, or if he could not pay this, he was to be publicly



whipped, and then he imprisoned till he should appease the injured person by publicly asking his forgiveness.

This toleration attracted many colonists; Puritans from New England and Episcopalians from Virginia mingled with the Catholic founders. Gradually the control passed into the hands of the Protestants. During the time of the English commonwealth they ill repaid the previous generosity of their Catholic brethren. At the revolution of 1688 the patent of the colony was set aside, and the government assumed by the crown. In 1716 the proprietor was restored to his privileges, which were finally abrogated by the people at the commencement of the American Revolution.

The governor of Maryland is chosen by the people for a term of four years, the state being divided into three districts, from each of which, in order, the governor is taken. The general assembly meets biennially, and half the senators are chosen once in two years. Every free white male citizen of the United States, aged twenty-one or more, who has resided one year in the state, has the right of suffrage. The constitution forbids imprisonment for debt, lotteries, and the abolition of slavery. The governor has not a power of veto. Ministers of the gospel are not eligible as members of the general assembly. The judicial power is vested in a court of appeals, circuit courts, and inferior tribunals. The four judges of the court of appeals are chosen

from the four judicial districts, for a term of ten years; the eight circuit judges are also chosen for ten years, one from each of the circuits. The judges must be persons selected from those learned in the law, and are ineligible at the age of seventy. In the matter of public education, Maryland is behind many of her sister states.

Annapolis, situated on the south-west side of the Severn, two miles from its mouth, and forty miles north-east of Washington, since 1699 has been the seat of the state government; population in 1860, 4,529. In the venerable state-house the continental congress sometimes sat during the Revolution, and in its senate chamber Washington resigned his commission at the close of the war. Baltimore, a city and port of entry in Baltimore county, Maryland, is situated on the north side of the Patapsco, fourteen miles from its entrance into Chesapeake Bay. It was founded in 1730. The population in 1860 was 212,418. It is the third city in the United States, and the centre of most of the trade of Maryland, and of a portion of that of the western states and Pennsylvania. It is built around a basin which affords a safe harbor, the narrow entrance of which, being guarded by Fort M'Henry, secures the city against a naval enemy. Several of the public buildings are elegant, and imposing in appearance. The Washington monument is a chaste and conspicuous structure of marble. St. Mary's College is a Catholic insti-

tution of great repute. During the last war, the city of Baltimore was attacked by the British, and on the 12th of September, the battle at North Point was fought. On the next day Fort M'Henry was bombarded, the enemy beaten off, and General Ross, the English commander, slain. The bravery manifested in defense of Baltimore would prevent the event from falling into oblivion, but to commemorate it, an elegant marble monument, thirty-five feet high, called the Battle monument, has been erected. From the number of its monuments, Baltimore is often called the Monumental City.

MASANIELLO, the common appellation of TOMASO ANIELLO, a fisherman of Naples, who headed a revolt of the populace against the Spanish in 1647. Masaniello was then twenty-five. He was assassinated, after a few successful days, in which he had 200,000 men in arms. Like many men of low origin who have suddenly risen to sovereign power, he became bewildered by change of his fortunes, and his phrenzy was probably heightened by his intemperate habits, which impelled him to commit many acts of sanguinary violence.

MASHAM, ABIGAIL, bed-chamber woman to Queen Anne, in which situation she supplanted the Duchess of Marlborough, her kinswoman, and procured the dismissal of the Whig ministry, which led to the peace of Utrecht in 1713. She died in 1734.

MASINISSA, king of a small country in Africa, took part with the Carthaginians against Rome, but afterward became the ally of the Romans, who were indebted to him for many victories. At his death he made Scipio Æmilianus guardian of his kingdom. He died B.C. 149.

MASON AND DIXON'S LINE. The controversy between the heirs of Penn and Lord Baltimore, concerning the boundaries of their proprietary lands, led to the running of a line between Pennsylvania and Maryland, in 1767, by Mason and Dixon, two skillful surveyors. It is now popularly spoken of as the dividing line between the free and the slave states.

MASON, GEORGE, a statesman of Virginia, member of the convention which framed the constitution of the United States, which he refused to sign on the ground that it tended

too much toward centralization; died 1792, aged sixty-seven.

MASSACHUSETTS. The Bay State commonwealth, upon her 7,250 square miles, sustained in 1860 a population of 1,231,066. In the west the surface is generally hilly, often rugged, the country being traversed west of the Connecticut by the Hoosac range and a prolongation of the Green Mountains; while east of that river is a continuation of the White Mountains. Eastward the surface is for the most part broken by gentle swells, spreading, as it approaches the ocean in the south-east, into a level sandy plain. Every part is well watered, though the streams are more useful for agricultural and mechanical purposes than as channels of communication. Rich and broad meadows skirt the Housatonic, the Connecticut, and the Merrimack, and much of the remaining soil is moderately productive. Though some parts of the west are too rugged, and some in the east too sandy, the central part contains many fine farms, and in the vicinity of the numerous commercial and manufacturing towns of the sea-coast, the cultivation is often higher than is practicable in districts more remote from a market. Taken as a whole, Massachusetts is the best tilled state in the Union, and her husbandry the most thrifty and skillful. In minerals, the recesses of her soil are not productive. There are quarries of fine granite at Quincy, and elsewhere of other handsome building stone.

Fisheries, navigation, commerce, and manufactures are the important branches of industry. The tonnage of her shipping is more than one-sixth of the total tonnage of the United States. New Bedford and Nantucket have the lead in whaling. The hardy fishermen of Marblehead and Gloucester and ports adjoining, have a like pre-eminence in the cod, mackerel, and herring fisheries. In manufactures, Massachusetts is more largely engaged than any other state. Boots and shoes, cottons, woolens, leather, clothing, soap, candles, and oil, straw braid and bonnets, paper, ship-building, machinery and iron manufactures of every variety, cabinet ware, are the foremost of the products that her busy towns and villages bring forth. Shall we mention that, according to the last census

MAS



she distills more than half the rum of the country?

Massachusetts was first settled at Plymouth in 1620, by the Puritans. "It is to this sect," remarks the historian Hume, "whose principles appear so frivolous, and whose habits so ridiculous, that the English owe the whole freedom of their constitution." No less is to be claimed for those who crossed the ocean, and settled in New England. They fled from persecution at home. It was their intention to settle farther south, but either by accident or by treachery they were thrown upon the inhospitable shores of New England in the dead of winter. The separate colony of Massachusetts Bay was founded at Salem in 1628; Boston was settled in 1630, and other towns, such as Charlestown, Newtown (now Cambridge), Dorchester, Roxbury, &c., rapidly sprang up. Persecution had not taught the Puritans the lesson of toleration and religious liberty that it gave to Roger Williams and Lord Baltimore. The government which seemed best to these brave, earnest zealots was a theocracy, and they dealt harshly with the Quakers, and other men not in their fellowship. It must be remembered that very often the Quakers and other enthusiasts ran into excesses as contrary to the spirit of true religion as were the whippings, the brandings, and the hangings wherewith they were punished.

The two colonies continued under distinct governments until 1692, when a royal charter brought them together. Henceforth the

governor was appointed by the crown. The colonists in the early years suffered severely from the Indian wars, and afterward in the contests with the French possessions in Canada, whereby was echoed the noise of contending nations on the battle-fields of Europe. The men of Massachusetts were foremost in the expeditions undertaken by the British against the French in America. Their blood was shed before Quebec and at Louisburg, and their best and bravest were ever ready in the field to support the interests of their parent country. At length, when the oppressive measures of Great Britain could no longer be submitted to, Massachusetts was the seat of the earliest conflicts in favor of liberty. The plains of Lexington and Concord, and the heights of Charlestown, have become hallowed by the American blood that bedewed them, and the glorious example of Massachusetts was speedily followed by the sister colonies.

In 1786 an insurrection broke out under one Shays, but he was defeated at Springfield, in 1787. Since then nothing has occurred to disturb the tranquillity, or affect the prosperity, of this flourishing and wealthy state.

The constitution vests the legislative power in a senate and house of representatives, styled the general court, whose sessions are annual. The governor and other state officers are chosen by the people annually. The governor has the title of 'his excellency,' and the lieutenant-governor that of 'his

honor.' The right of suffrage is granted to every male citizen twenty-one years of age or more (excepting paupers and persons under guardianship), who has resided within the commonwealth one year, and within the town six months, and shall not be in arrears for taxes. An executive council of eight members is chosen annually by the people in districts. The judiciary is vested in a supreme court, a court of common pleas, and such inferior tribunals as the general court may establish. The judges are appointed by the governor, by and with the advice and consent of the council, and hold their offices during good behavior. In the matter of education Massachusetts is surpassed by no state in the Union. Harvard University at Cambridge is the oldest and best endowed institution in the United States. With it are connected a theological, a law, a medical, and a scientific school. Its library is one of the largest in the United States, containing about 140,000 volumes. Williams College, Amherst College, and the theological seminary at Andover, are all valuable institutions, and worthy of the patronage they receive. The towns sustain schools of every grade, from the primary to the academic. The state supports normal schools at Westfield, Framingham, Bridgewater, and Salem; lunatic hospitals at Worcester, Taunton, and Northampton; a reform school for boys at Westborough; an industrial school for girls at Lancaster; and a school for idiots at South Boston.

Boston, the capital of Massachusetts, and the largest city of New England, is situated on a peninsula at the western extremity of Massachusetts Bay. Population, 177,812 in 1860. Its extent, inclusive of the peninsula of South Boston, is nearly three square miles. The secure and commodious harbor is gemmed with many islands, some of which are fortified. The streets are quite narrow and irregular. Most of the modern buildings are built of brick or of granite. The state-house, on a hill which commands a view of the city and its environs, is a large building of brick, and contains a fine marble statue of Washington, executed by Chantrey. Among the public buildings, a patriotic interest belongs to Faneuil Hall, called "the cradle of liberty," from the public

meetings held there previous to the Revolution. Boston contains numerous literary, scientific, and charitable societies. It is the second commercial city of the United States. The common is the principal public square. It is surrounded by the mall, a handsome graveled walk, fenced in, and shaded with fine elm-trees, and contains about fifty acres.

The first settlement of Boston was in 1630, when John Winthrop, the first governor of Massachusetts, and the company of immigrants with him, having arrived and tarried for a short time at Charlestown, removed their location to the peninsula. There was one solitary inhabitant there at an earlier date, the Rev. William Blackstone, of whom Mather speaks as "a godly Episcopalian," who in 1626 had built a cottage near what is now called Spring street, in the western part of the city. In 1634 fifty acres of land were set off to Mr. Blackstone, which was about one-twelfth part of the peninsula, he being "the first European inhabitant." Not long afterward, when he wished to remove, the town purchased all his "right and title to the peninsula of Shawmut" for £30, each freeholder paying six shillings, and some of them more. Mr. Blackstone afterward settled in Rhode Island. The peninsula was called by the Indians Shawmut, and by the early colonists Tri-mountain, from its three prominent hills. The first church was built in 1632. In the reign of Charles II., the charter of Massachusetts was declared forfeited by a decree of chancery, and Sir Edmund Andros was appointed the first royal governor. In April, 1689, the Bostonians seized upon the governor and imprisoned him, having first taken possession of the fort and castle in the harbor. In a little more than a month afterward, the news of the revolution in England was welcomed in Boston with general exultation.

April 17th, 1704, the first number of the *Boston News Letter*, the earliest newspaper in America, was published by John Campbell, the postmaster, a native of Scotland.

In 1765, when the obnoxious stamp act passed, the person appointed to distribute the stamps in Boston was compelled to decline the office, and the house of the lieutenant-governor (Hutchinson) was destroyed by the mob. On the breaking out of these

tumults, which appeared to threaten the downfall of authority, Boston was forced to receive a large military and naval force, which it was thought would quell the spirit of insubordination. The citizens regarded the soldiers with little favor, and only wanted a pretext to show their hostility openly. March 5th, 1770, a sergeant's guard in King (now State) street, being pressed upon and pelted by the mob, fired and killed five men. This is called the Boston massacre. After the tax had been imposed on tea, the Americans resolved, if possible, to prevent the landing and sale of it. When three of the tea ships arrived, December 16th, 1773, a party of men disguised as Indians, went on board and threw all the tea overboard. In the following spring, the port of Boston was closed by act of parliament, and the importation and exportation of goods prohibited. The general court held its sittings in Salem, and more troops, together with a military governor, were sent to Boston. In 1775, after the battles of Lexington and Bunker Hill, British troops, to the number of 10,000 men, were besieged in Boston until the March following. During this siege, the inhabitants suffered greatly, for many who wished to leave the town were not permitted to do so, but forced to stay against their will, and treated as Tories by the American army on their entrance. The British officers amused themselves by acting plays in Faneuil Hall, the "cradle of liberty" being fitted up tastefully on the occasion. General Burgoyne wrote a farce called the "Boston Blockade," in which the Yankees were severely satirized, and a happy triumph of the royal arms predicted. The sarcasms on the weakness of the Americans with which this piece was interspersed, received a curious commentary on the frequent explosions of the shells which were thrown into the town by the besiegers. A cannon-ball entered the tower of the Brattle-street church, where it is still preserved. Boston was evacuated by the British, March 17th, 1776, and did not again suffer from their presence.

We have only room for a list of the other important towns of the state, with their population according to the census of 1855. Salem, 22,252. Lowell, 36,827. Roxbury, 25,137. Cambridge, 26,060. Charlestown,

25,063. New Bedford, 20,389. Worcester, 24,960. Lynn, 19,083. Springfield, 15,199. Newburyport, 13,401. Lawrence, 16,081. Fall River, 14,026. Taunton, 15,376.

MASSACRES. Of all the Carthaginians in Sicily, 397 B.C. 2,000 Tyrians crucified, and 8,000 put to the sword for not surrendering Tyre to Alexander, 331 B.C. The Jews of Antioch fall upon the other inhabitants and massacre 100,000, for refusing to surrender their arms to Demetrius Nicanor, tyrant of Syria, 154 B.C. A dreadful slaughter of the Teutones and Ambrones, near Aix, by Marius the Roman general, 200,000 being left dead on the spot, 102 B.C. The Romans throughout Asia, women and children not excepted, cruelly massacred in one day, by order of Mithridates, King of Pontus, 88 B.C. A great number of Roman senators massacred by Cinna, Marius, and Sertorius, and several of the patricians dispatched themselves to avoid the horrid butcheries, 86 B.C. Again, under Sulla, and Cataline, his minister of vengeance, 82 and 79 B.C. At Præneste, Octavianus Cæsar ordered 300 Roman senators and other persons of distinction to be sacrificed to the manes of Julius Cæsar, 41 B.C.

At the destruction of Jerusalem, 1,100,000 Jews were put to the sword, A.D. 70. Cassius, a Roman general, under the Emperor M. Aurelius, put to death 400,000 of the inhabitants of Seleucia, 167. At Alexandria, many thousand citizens, by order of Antoninus, 213. The Emperor Probus put to death 700,000 of the inhabitants upon his reduction of Gaul, 277. Eighty Christian fathers, by order of the Emperor Gratian, at Nicomedia, were put into a ship, which was set on fire, and driven out to sea, 370. Thessalonica, when upward of 7,000 persons, invited into the circus, were put to the sword by order of Theodosius, 390. Belisarius put to death above 30,000 citizens of Constantinople for a revolt on account of two rapacious ministers set over them by Justinian, 552. Of the Latins, by order of Andronicus, 1184, at Constantinople. The Sicilians massacred the French throughout the whole island, without distinction of sex or age, on Easter day, the first bell for vespers being the signal; this horrible affair is known in history by the name of the Sicilian vespers, 1282. Of the

Swedish nobility at a feast, by order of Christian II., 1520. Of 70,000 Huguenots, throughout the kingdom of France, attended with circumstances of the most horrid treachery and cruelty; it began at Paris in the night of the festival of St. Bartholomew, August 24th, 1572, by secret orders from Charles IX., at the instigation of Catharine de Medicis, his mother; it is styled in history the massacre of St. Bartholomew. Of the Christians in Croatia, by the Turks, when 65,000 were slain, 1592. Of a great number of Protestants at Thorn, who were put to death under a pretended legal sentence of the chancellor of Poland, for being concerned in a tumult occasioned by a popish procession, 1724. At Batavia, where 12,000 Chinese were killed by the natives, October, 1740. Of the whites by the insurgent negroes of St. Domingo, March 29th, 1804. Several awful massacres in France during the reign of terror from 1789 to 1794. Massacre of 600 negroes by the French at St. Mark's, 1802. Massacre at Algiers, March 10th, 1806. Insurrection and dreadful massacre of the French at Madrid, May 2d, 1808. Dreadful massacre of the Mamelukes in the citadel of Cairo, March 1st, 1811. [See SCRO.] Massacres of vast numbers of the inhabitants of Cadiz, by the soldiery, whose ferocious disorders continue for some days, March 6th, 1820.

Massacre of 300 English nobles on Salisbury Plain by Hengist, A.D. 474. Of the Danes, in the southern counties of England, in the night of November 13th, 1002; at London it was most bloody, the churches being no sanctuary; among the rest Gunilda, sister of Swein, King of Denmark, left in hostage for the performance of a treaty but newly concluded. Of the Jews, 1189. Some few pressing into Westminster Hall, at the coronation of Richard I., were put to death by the people, and a false alarm being given, that the king had ordered a general massacre of them, the people in many parts of England, from an aversion to them, slew all they met. In York, 500 who had taken shelter in the castle, killed themselves, rather than fall into the hand of the people. Of the Protestants in Ireland, when 40,000 were killed, 1641. Of the Macdonalds at Glencoe, in Scotland, 1691. Of 64 American

prisoners at Dartmoor, England (disowned by British government), April 6th, 1815.

Massacre of the first settlers of Virginia, of whom 347 were murdered in one night, 1622, by the savages. At Wilkesbarre by the British and savages, July 3d, 1778. By the British and savages at Cherry Valley, in New York, Nov. 11th, 1778. Both these sanguinary acts were done under the direction of Colonel John Butler. Of the Moravian Indians, by a party from the western part of Pennsylvania, headed by Colonel Williamson, June, 1782. American garrison of Chicago, on their retreat from the place, by the savages, August 15th, 1812. Of the American wounded prisoners at Frenchtown, on the river Raisin, January 22d, 1813, by the Indians, with the privy of the British.

MASSENA, ANDRE, Duke of Rivoli, and Prince of Esslingen, marshal of France, born at Nice in 1758, was a favorite general of Napoleon, and, in consequence of his success during his Italian campaign, was called by the emperor the 'darling of victory.' In 1799 he defeated the Russians at Zurich, and in the following year defended Genoa during a protracted siege till he was absolutely starved into capitulation. In 1809 he signalized himself greatly in the battle of Esslingen (or Aspern) in Germany, and by his firmness saved the French imperial army from annihilation. In 1810 he was defeated by Wellington in the Portugal campaign. The Iron Duke called Massena the ablest opponent he ever encountered. Marshal Marmont, a companion in arms of this tenacious, fierce, and invincible soldier, thus describes him. "His iron frame contained a soul of fire. His glance was piercing, his activity extreme; no man was ever more brave. He troubled himself little in maintaining order among his troops, or in providing for their wants, and his dispositions before battle were mediocre; but the combat once commenced, they became excellent, and by the advantages he drew from his army in action he soon repaired any previous faults. His education was slight, but he had much natural talent, great subtlety, and a profound knowledge of the human heart. He was very avaricious. His love for women was ardent, and his jealousy resembled that of the Italians of the fourteenth century. He was in friendly

relations with General Bonaparte, whom he was far from believing to be the equal of himself as a soldier. There were not in him the necessary elements of a commander-in-chief of the first class, but there never existed a man superior to Massena in executing, on the grandest scale, operations to which another gave the impulse." Massena acknowledged the Bourbons upon Napoleon's first abdication, but joined his old commander at the return from Elba. He died in 1817.

MASSILLON, JEAN BAPTISTE, a great pulpit orator of France, was born in Provence, in 1663. Louis XIV. said to him, "Father, when I hear other preachers, I go away much pleased with them, but when I hear you, I go away much displeased with myself." He was made Bishop of Clermont in 1717, where he died in September, 1742.

MASSINGER, PHILIP, an English dramatic writer, died in 1640, aged fifty-six.

MATHER, INCREASE, an eminent American divine, born at Dorchester, Mass., died in 1723, aged eighty-four.

MATHER, COTTON, son of Increase Mather, also an eminent divine and writer, died in 1727, aged sixty-five.

MATHEW, THEOBALD, familiarly known as "Father Mathew," was born at Thomastown in Tipperary in 1790. He was bred to the Roman Catholic priesthood. Cork was his post of labor. In 1838 he commenced his public labors against the crying evil of drunkenness. His unostentatious effort grew in might, and in a progress through Ireland in 1839 he had the joy of administering the pledge to several hundred thousand of his countrymen. The prestige of such success, combined with the purity of his personal character, rendered him an object of wondering veneration among the Irish. He was received with enthusiasm during a visit to this country, whence he returned home in 1851. His benevolent crusade reduced him to poverty and debt, and wore him into a long illness, from which death set him free at Queenstown in Ireland, Dec. 8th, 1856.

MATHIAS CORVINUS, called the Great, King of Hungary and Bohemia, was the son of John Hunniades. The enemies of his father confined him in prison in Bohemia; but on regaining his liberty he was elected King of Hungary in 1458, His election, however,

was opposed by many of the Hungarian lords, who offered the crown to Frederick III. The Turks, profiting by these divisions, invaded the country, but were expelled by Mathias, who compelled Frederick to yield to him the crown of St. Stephen, of which he had obtained possession. The war was afterward renewed, and Mathias, overrunning Austria, took Vienna and Neustadt, on which the emperor was obliged to make a peace in 1487. Mathias reformed many abuses, particularly with respect to duels and law-suits, and was preparing an expedition against the Turks, when he died of an apoplexy in 1490.

MATILDA, or MAUD, the daughter of Henry I. of England, and wife of Henry V., Emperor of Germany, was nominated in 1135 successor to the English throne by her father; but in her absence her cousin Stephen usurped the title. Arriving in England with a large army in 1139, she defeated Stephen, and was acknowledged queen in a parliament held in 1141. Stephen afterward defeated the empress, on which the national synod declared for him, and Matilda was obliged to leave the kingdom. On the death of the emperor she married Geoffrey Plantagenet, Earl of Anjou, by whom she had a son, afterward Henry II. of England. Matilda died in 1177, aged sixty-seven.

MAURICE, Elector of Saxony, and successful supporter of the Protestant cause in Germany, killed in the battle of Sievenhausen, 1553, aged thirty-two years.

MAURICE, of Nassau, Prince of Orange, and grandson by his mother to Maurice of Saxony, was a pre-eminent Dutch general, and died in 1625, aged fifty-eight. He was one of the founders of the independence of Holland from Spain.

MAXENTIUS, MARCUS AURELIUS VALE-RIUS, a Roman emperor, was the son of Maximianus Hercules, and declared himself Augustus in 306. He was opposed by Galerius Maximianus, who was defeated, and slew himself. Maxentius then marched into Africa, where he became odious by his cruelties. Constantine afterward defeated him in Italy, and he was drowned in crossing the Tiber in 312. Before the battle Constantine adopted the cross as his standard, and after the victory he made Christianity the religion of the empire.

MAXIMINUS, CAIUS JULIUS VERUS, Emperor of Rome, was the son of a peasant in Thrace, and having displayed great courage in the Roman armies, he rose to command. On the death of Alexander Severus, he caused himself to be proclaimed emperor, A.D. 235. He was a great persecutor, and put to death above four thousand persons on suspicion of their being concerned in a conspiracy against him. His soldiers assassinated him near Aquileia, A.D. 256. His stature and strength were very extraordinary, and his disposition proportionably brutal. Forty pounds of meat and eighteen bottles of wine were his ordinary allowance for a day. His strength was such that he is said to have stopped a chariot in full speed with one of his fingers.

MAZARIN, JULIUS, a Roman cardinal and minister of state, was born in Piscina in Italy, in 1602. Being appointed nuncio extraordinary to France, he acquired the friendship of Richelieu and the confidence of Louis XIII. In 1641 Pope Urban VIII. made him cardinal; and on the death of Richelieu, Louis appointed him minister of state. He was also nominated one of the executors of the king's will, and had the principal management of affairs during the minority of Louis XIV.; but at length the murmurs of the people rose so much against him, that he found it expedient to quit the kingdom, and a price was set on his head. He afterward recovered power. His application to business produced a disease of which he died in 1661.

MAZEPPA, JOHN, a Polish gentleman, born in the palatinate of Podolia, was educated as the page of John Casimir. An intrigue with the wife of a Polish gentleman caused him to be bound, naked, to the back of a wild horse.

"'Bring forth the horse!'—the horse was brought;

In truth he was a noble steed,

A Tartar of the Ukraine breed;

Who looked as though the speed of thought

Were in his limbs; but he was wild,

Wild as the wild deer and untaught;

With spur and bridle undefiled—

'Twas but a day he had been caught;

And snorting, with erected mane,

And struggling fiercely, but in vain,

In the full foam of wrath and dread,

To him the desert-born was led."—*Byron*.

On being loosed, the horse, which was of the Ukraine, returned thither, bearing Mazeppa

half dead with hunger and fatigue. Some peasants afforded him succor, and he remained a long time among them, signaling himself in many exertions against the Tartars. The superiority of his understanding acquired him the chief command of the Cossacks, and, in consequence of his increasing reputation, Peter the Great made him Prince of the Ukraine. He, however, joined Charles XII., and fought for him at the fatal battle of Pultowa. After this defeat he retired into Wallachia, and thence to Bender, where he died in 1709.

In some parts of Germany, during the feudal times, an infringement of the forest laws was punished by chaining the offender to the back of a wild stag, which bounded away with him, through thorny thickets and wild passes, until death relieved him of his sufferings.

M'KEAN, THOMAS, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born March 19th, 1734, in the county of Chester, Pennsylvania, and was admitted to the bar of the supreme court of Pennsylvania, in 1757. For seventeen successive years he was elected a member of the assembly. He was sent to the congress held at New York in 1765, took an active part in the Revolutionary proceedings, and served in arms in New Jersey, where he greatly distinguished himself. He was a delegate from Delaware, 1774, 1776, and 1778-83, and in 1781 he was president of that body. October 23d, 1781, he addressed a letter to Congress, resigning his office of president; Congress next day unanimously resolved that Thomas M'Kean be requested to resume the chair, and act as president. To this he acceded. He was chief-justice of Pennsylvania twenty-two years, and in 1799 was chosen governor of that state. He was governor of Pennsylvania nine years, and died June 24th, 1817, in his eighty-fourth year, being one of four survivors of the signers of the Declaration of Independence.

MECCA, a large city of Arabia, derives its celebrity from being the birth-place of Mahomet, and the seat of his power; and accordingly every pious Mussulman should make a pilgrimage to it at least once in his life. Here a conspiracy was formed against the prophet, and flight was his only resource. After an

exile of seven years, however, the fugitive missionary was enthroned as the prince and prophet of his native country.

MEDIA, a country of ancient Asia. It was originally called Aria, till the age of Medus, the son of Medea, who gave it the name of Media. The province of Media was first raised into a kingdom by its revolt from the Assyrian monarchy, B.C. 820; and, after it had for some time enjoyed a kind of republican government, Deioeces, by artifice, procured himself to be called king, 700 B.C. After a reign of fifty-three years, he was succeeded by Phraortes, B.C. 647; who was succeeded by Cyaxares, B.C. 625. His successor was Astyages, B.C. 595, in whose reign Cyrus became master of Media, B.C. 551; and ever after the country was occupied by the Persians.

The Medes were warlike in the primitive ages of their power; they encouraged polygamy, and were remarkable for the homage which they paid to their sovereigns, who were styled kings of kings. This title was afterward adopted by their conquerors, the Persians; and it was still in use in the age of the Roman emperors.

MEDICI, COSMO DE, called the Elder, the founder of an illustrious family at Florence, was a merchant, and was born in 1389. He acquired great wealth, which he appropriated to the noble purposes of advancing learning and supporting learned men. He collected a noble library, which he enriched with inestimable manuscripts. The envy excited against him by his riches, and by his ambition, raised him many enemies, by whose intrigues he was obliged to quit his native country. He retired to Venice, where he was received as a prince. His fellow-citizens afterward recalled him, and he bore a principal share in the government of the republic for thirty years. He died in 1464. On his tomb was engraved this inscription: "The Father of his People, and the Deliverer of his Country."

MEDICI, LORENZO DE, the Magnificent, grandson of Cosmo, born in 1448, died 1492. He was a munificent patron of letters and the arts.

MEDINA, a city of Arabia, celebrated from its containing the tomb of Mahomet. During his residence there it was attacked by an army of 10,000 enemies, but the prudence

of Mahomet declined a general engagement, and the confederates at length retired.

MEDINA SIDONIA, ALFONSO PEREZ GUZMAN, Duke of, commander of the celebrated Spanish armada in 1588.

MELANCTHON, PHILIP, illustrious reformer, and coadjutor of Luther, born 1497, died 1560, aged sixty-three. His name was Schwartzerd, which, according to the pedantic custom of the age, he changed into the Greek Melancthon, both meaning 'black earth.'

MENDELSSOHN, FELIX BARTHOLDY, the eminent composer, was a native of Hamburg, and died at Leipsic, Nov. 4th, 1847, aged thirty-eight.

MENZIKOFF, ALEXANDER, a prince of the Russian empire, was the son of a peasant, and the servant of a pastry-cook, who employed him to cry pies about the streets. His appearance pleasing Peter the Great, he took him into his service. Menzikoff soon insinuated himself into the confidence of his sovereign, who at length conferred on him the title of prince. In 1713 he was accused of peculation, and condemned to pay a heavy fine, which the czar remitted, and restored him to favor. Under the Czarina Catharine he had still more power. His daughter was married to Peter II., who made Menzikoff Duke of Cozel, and grand-master of the imperial hotel. But by the intrigues of Dolgorucki, mistress of the czar, he fell into disgrace, and was banished to his estate; where he lived in such magnificence that Peter was persuaded to send him, for his own safety, into Siberia, and there he died in a poor hut in 1729.

MERCATOR, GERARD, a Fleming, improver of a method of projecting maps which bears his name, died in 1594, aged eighty-two.

MERCER, HUGH, a most respectable and valuable general in the Revolutionary war; killed in the battle of Princeton, January, 1777, at the age of fifty-six. He was a native of Scotland, and a physician by profession. Congress resolved that the oldest son of Gen. Warren, and the youngest son of Gen. Mercer, should be educated at the expense of the United States.

MESSALINA, VALERIA, daughter of Messalinus Barbatus, and wife of the Emperor

Claudius, an abandoned woman. Having espoused her favorite Silius, in the lifetime of her husband, she was put to death by order of the emperor, A.D. 46.

There was another of this name, who was the third wife of Nero, after her fourth husband, Atticus, had been put to death by that tyrant. On the death of Nero she devoted the remainder of her days to study, and acquired a great reputation.

MESOPOTAMIA, part of the kingdom of Assyria, underwent all the revolutions of this and the Persian empire, till it was conquered by Trajan in 106; after which it several times changed masters betwixt the Romans and the Persians, but generally belonged to the latter, till it was conquered by the Saracens, together with the rest of Persia, in 651. It was seized by the Seljuks in 1046, and by Genghis Khan in 1218. In 1360 Tur Ali Beg, the Turkman, founded the dynasty called Ak Koyunlu, or the White Sheep, in this country.

It submitted to Timur Beg in 1400, but he did not retain the conquest. In 1514 it was conquered by Ismael Sofi the Persian, was half conquered by the Turks in 1554, recovered by the Persians in 1613, but completely reduced by the Turks in 1637, when they took Bagdad.

METALS. The seven metals are mentioned by Moses and Homer. Virgil speaks of the melting of steel in furnaces. The Phœnicians had great skill in working metals.

Iron was found on Mount Ida by the Dactyles, 1432 B.C., after the forest had been burned by lightning. The Greeks claimed the discovery of iron, and ascribed glass to the Phœnicians; but in the fourth chapter of Genesis, Moses mentions Tubal Cain as "an instructor of every artificer in brass and iron." Iron furnaces among the Romans were unprovided with bellows, but were placed on eminences, with the grate in the direction of the prevailing winds. Swedish iron is very celebrated, and Dannemora is the greatest mine of Sweden. Iron was first cast in England, in Sussex, 1543. Tinning of iron was introduced into England from Bohemia in 1681. Iron was first discovered in America, in Virginia, 1715. Railroad iron was first manufactured in the United States in 1841.

It is said that copper was known before iron. In the eighth chapter of Ezra we read

of two vessels of fine copper, precious as gold. Copper was first found in Sweden in 1396, and the mine of Fahlun is the most surprising artificial excavation in the world. In England copper was discovered in 1561, and it is now an important branch of British trade. In Japan copper is the most common of all the metals. Within the last few years copper has been found in the richest abundance in the vicinity of Lake Superior. Its existence there was known as early as 1636.

Gold has been obtained abundantly in Africa, Japan, and South America. The Russian mines in the Ural Mountains were considered the richest in the world till 1847, when the discoveries of California dazzled the world. In 1851 similar realms of auriferous wealth were found in Australia.

Silver exists in most parts of the world, but the mines of South America are by far the richest. A mine was opened in the district of La Paz in 1660, so rich that the silver was often cut with a chisel. In 1749 a mass of silver weighing three hundred and seventy pounds was sent to Spain. From a mine in Norway, a piece was dug, and sent to the royal museum at Copenhagen, weighing five hundred and sixty pounds, and worth \$8,000. In England silver vessels were first used by Wilfrid, a Northumbrian bishop, a lofty and ambitious man, A.D. 709. Silver knives, spoons, and cups were great luxuries in 1300.

Mercury, or quicksilver, was known to the ancients, and has been found in Europe, Peru, California, and China. The mines near Carniola in Austria, and those of Almeida in Spain, are the chief in Europe. The former, discovered by accident in 1497, have sometimes yielded twelve hundred tons in a year. The anti-venereal virtues of mercury were found by James Carpus, an Italian surgeon, in 1512. Calomel was first prepared in the seventeenth century. Pallas congealed mercury by artificial cold in 1772. Winter unaided did the same at St. Petersburg in 1759. The use of quicksilver in refining silver was discovered in 1540.

The Phœnicians traded with England for tin more than eleven centuries before the Christian era. It also appears to have been known in the day of Moses. Tin is a scarce metal. Cornwall is its most productive source; it occurs in the mountains between

Spain and Portugal, and in those between Saxony and Bohemia; and it has also been brought from Malacca, Chili, and Mexico.

Lead, another of the ancient metals, is more abundant. The lead mines of Illinois are among the richest in the world. Leaden pipes for the conveyance of water were brought into use in 1236.

The discovery of zinc, so far as anything certain is known, is due to the moderns. It is said, however, to have been long known in China, and is noticed by European writers as early as A.D. 1231, though the method of extracting it from the ore was unknown for nearly five hundred years after.

Brass was known among all the early nations. There is a tradition that when Lucius Mummius burnt Corinth to the ground, 146 B.C., the riches he found were immense, and during the conflagration all the metals in the city melted, and running together, formed the valuable composition called *Corinthian brass*. This may well be doubted, for the Corinthian artificers had long before obtained great credit for their method of combining gold and silver with copper; and the Syriac translation of the Bible says that Hiram made the vessels for Solomon's temple of Corinthian brass.

METASTASIO, PIETRO, an eminent Italian poet, born at Rome, 1698, died at Vienna, 1782. In 1729 he was appointed imperial laureate to the Austrian court.

METON, an astronomer of Athens, inventor of the cycle which bears his name, flourished B.C. 432-410.

MEXICO, now a republic of North America, formerly belonged to Spain, and was then governed by a viceroy. Its area is 1,038,865 square miles and its population 7,360,000. The land attains an uncommon elevation in the interior, the city of Mexico, the capital, being 7,000 feet above the ocean. The highest summit of the Cordilleras of Mexico, is the volcanic peak of Popocatepetl, 17,884 feet high. The climate on the coast is hot, and in general unhealthy, but upon the high tableland in the interior, it is uncommonly salubrious. A large portion of the soil is fertile, producing maize, wheat, sugar, indigo, tobacco, agave, different kinds of fruits, bananas, manioc, vanilla, cocoa, cochineal, logwood, and mahogany. The annual produce of the rich gold and silver mines, for which

Mexico is celebrated, has sometimes been \$20,000,000. One of these mines is eight miles in length, and, in one place, 1,640 feet in depth. The religion is Roman Catholic. Education is generally neglected, although there is a university in the city of Mexico. A large portion of the population is composed of subdued Indians.

Mexico is divided into twenty-one provinces or departments, which correspond to the former states of the federal republic. The capital is the city of Mexico, one of the finest cities in all the world for the uniformity of its site, the breadth and regularity of its streets, and the extent of its squares and public places. The many churches and convents, with their cupolas and towers, add to its splendor. The population is said to amount to 150,000.

When in 1519 the Spaniards under Cortez commenced the conquest of Mexico, they found the native Mexicans far advanced in civilization, wealthy, hospitable, liberal, and in general inoffensive. They appeared to have an instinctive dread of the foreigners, and yet treated them with kindness. They were willing to share their wealth with the Spaniards, but nothing less than the whole would satisfy the cupidity of the Christians. After scenes of cruelty and treachery, the Spanish leader completed the conquest in 1521. The country continued under the jurisdiction of a Spanish viceroy, until it declared itself independent in 1820.

After the brief empire of Iturbide, a constitution modeled on ours was adopted. Of the ups and downs of Mexican politics, the dissensions that have torn the country, the ambitious dictators that have aspired, risen, and fell, we can not here give a sketch. In 1835 Texas revolted, and afterward established itself as an independent state. Its annexation to the United States resulted in a war between Mexico and the latter. The Mexicans fought bravely, but the decision was certain. Of the victories of Taylor, at Palo Alto, Resaca de la Palma, Monterey, and Buena Vista, and those of Scott, at Vera Cruz, Cerro Gordo, Contreras, Churubusco, Chapultepec, and Molino del Rey, we have made separate mention. The triumphs of Scott were crowned by the possession of the city of Mexico. Elsewhere too, in California and in New Mexico, victory perched upon the American standards. Peace

was ratified in February, 1848. The Rio Grande was made the boundary of Texas; New Mexico and Upper California were ceded to the United States, and the latter paid \$15,000,000 and assumed claims to the amount of \$3,250,000. This is known as the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.

Although we still name Mexico a republic, because it is legally and in justice such, yet it was chiefly subdued during 1861-5 by the treacherous and despotic interference of the French emperor. Miramor while president of Mexico, had negotiated a loan with the banking house of Jecker, by which he received \$750,000, for which Jecker was to receive \$15,000,000. Louis Napoleon caused Jecker to be admitted a French citizen, took up his claim as a pretence, and induced Spain and England to send troops along with his own to Mexico, on pretence of enforcing payment of the claims against Mexico of all three, in all about \$76,000,000. The invading force reached Vera Cruz in December, 1861. The Spanish and English troops were withdrawn 9th Apr., 1862, on pretence of distrust of the Jecker claim, but the French went on alone, meeting no effective resistance. Maximilian, an Austrian arch-duke, accepted the emperorship of Mexico, which Napoleon now offered him, and crossing the ocean, issued a proclamation on May 28, 1864, at Vera Cruz, "accepting" the throne. He however neither gained nor held it except by the aid of French bayonets.

MICHAEL ANGELO. MICHELANGELO BUONARROTI was of a noble and ancient family, and born at Caprese in Tuscany, March 6th, 1475. Any one of his high qualities would have made the fortune of an ordinary man. He was a distinguished painter, sculptor, architect, and poet, and "cunning of fence." The beauty of the Sistine Chapel at Rome consists principally in the perfection of his paintings. At fifty, he commenced painting the "Last Judgment" there, in which the grand and gigantic character of his mind is shadowed forth. Embracing a multitude of figures in various attitudes, and with different expressions, it is an unwearying object of contemplation for the artist and lover of the fine arts. Between Michelangelo and Raphael, there was a generous rivalry, the former never forgetting that Raphael had

perfected his style only after having diligently studied the frescoes of the Sistine Chapel. Raphael is said to have often exclaimed that he thanked God he was born in the days of Michelangelo.

The Farnesian family had built a house upon the bank of the Tiber. Cardinal Farnese wished to have the halls adorned by the the pencil of Raphael, to give additional beauty to this charming place. The artist stipulated that no one should inspect his work until it was finished. But the friends of Raphael spread abroad high reports of the triumphs which the painter had achieved; praising in especial, the "Banquet of the Gods," the "Nuptials of Cupid and Psyche," and the "Triumph of Galatea." These reports inflamed the curiosity of Buonarroti, and he swore by the "Inferno" of Dante, that he would gain admission into the Farnesian villa, examine the works of Raphael, and prevent their completion.

Michelangelo, having discovered that Raphael went late to his work, disguised himself as a vender of brandy, and taking with him a huge basket filled with biscuits and brandy, directed his steps at an early hour to the gate of the Farnesian palace. His cries of "Brandy! brandy!" roused the masons; the gate was opened. Behold Michelangelo in the interior of the Farnesina! The workmen were soon busily employed upon the biscuits and the brandy; he passed through the corridors, and was soon before the frescoes of Raphael. The fine picture of Galatea attracted his attention, and, noticing a scaffold and a wall in readiness for the painter, he ascended and drew with a piece of charcoal a gigantic head of Jupiter, after which he left the villa precipitately, without stopping for his basket. When Raphael arrived at noon, on beholding the splendid head, he exclaimed, "Michelangelo!" From that day he painted no more in the Farnesina, and his works remained unfinished. The head of Jupiter remains still upon the wall, covered with a glass, and attracts the admiration of artists and connoisseurs.

The great artist was never married. He died at Rome, Feb. 17th, 1564, and his body was entombed in the church of Santa Croce at Florence.

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MICHIGAN consists of two distinct peninsulas, separated by the waters of Lake Huron and Lake Michigan. In all, it has an area of 56,243 square miles, populated in 1860 by 749,113 inhabitants. The surface of the southern peninsula is in general slightly undulating; the watershed, that divides the streams flowing into Lake Huron and Lake Erie from those running into Lake Michigan, gradually rises in the north, which is more broken. The country is well timbered with oak, hickory, poplar, sugar maple, and white and yellow pine. There are some prairies. The land of southern Michigan is very fertile, and all the state is well watered. The northern peninsula has not been fully explored, but it is much more rugged than the southern. The Pictured Rocks are a remarkable sight on the northern coast. A lofty wall of sand-stone extends along the shore for the distance of about twelve miles, rising perpendicularly with an elevation, in some parts, of three hundred feet. The face of the wall discolored by the water, presents the appearance of landscapes, buildings, and various objects delineated by the hand of man, while in some places the cliffs are broken into grotesque forms by the fury of the ever-dashing surge; groups of overhanging precipices, towering walls, caverns, waterfalls, and prostrate ruins are here mingled in the most wonderful disorder. One of the most curious formations consists of a tabular mass of sand-stone, about fifty feet in diameter and eight feet thick, supported by four

columns, which are nearly round and exhibit almost the regularity of masonry; they are from three to seven feet in diameter and about forty feet high, and support four light and lofty arches.

The most remarkable natural feature of Michigan is the great lakes by which it is nearly surrounded. Lying in the centre of a vast continent, with their surfaces six hundred feet above the level of the ocean, they penetrate far down below that level, since they have a depth varying from eight hundred to a thousand feet. Lake Michigan lies chiefly in the state that bears its name. This great sheet of water has a width of from eighty to one hundred miles; its length is about three hundred and sixty miles, and it has an area of about 26,000 square miles. In general, it is remarkable for the absence of bays and harbors, the coast being throughout a greater part of its windings unbroken by any considerable indentations. Green Bay in the north-west is, however, a fine expanse, of about twenty-five miles in width, extending far up into the land, and accessible to vessels of two hundred tons burthen. Ships of any size may float in Lake Michigan, but the waters on its shores are shallow. Lake Michigan communicates through the Straits of Michilimackinac,—called in the country Mackinaw,—four miles wide, with Lake Huron. It is remarkably free from islands, but toward its northern extremity are the Manitou Isles and the Beaver Islands.

The geologists who surveyed the northern

peninsula, by order of the general government, reported that its beds of iron are of such magnitude, the ore of such purity, and the vast forests so suitable for charcoal, that this region must yet be one of the most valuable in the world for the manufacturing of the finer varieties of wrought iron and steel. Copper is also found in great extent and richness.

French traders early entered Michigan, and established a post at Detroit. France yielded the country to England in 1763. It was organized as a territory of the United States in 1805, and in 1836 was admitted into the Union. Both branches of the legislature are chosen and meet biennially. The style of the laws is, "The people of the state of Michigan enact." The governor is elected biennially. The right of suffrage is held by every white male citizen above twenty-one; every white male inhabitant who has resided in the state two years and a half, and declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States six months before the election; and every civilized male inhabitant of Indian descent, a native of the United States and not a member of any tribe; all of whom must have resided in the state three months before an election. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, circuit courts, probate courts, and justices of the peace. Good provision is made for common-school education, and the state sustains a normal school, an asylum for the insane, and an asylum for the deaf and dumb and the blind.

Lansing is the capital of the state; population in 1860, 3,074. The largest town of Michigan is Detroit, situated between Lakes Erie and St. Clair, on the west side of the river Detroit; population in 1860, 45,619. It is well built on a gentle ascent from the river. It was settled by Canadian French in 1683. In 1760 it fell into the hands of the British. In 1784 it became by treaty a possession of the United States, which maintained a garrison there from 1796 until within a few years past. It was first incorporated as a city in 1802. In the war of 1812 Detroit was captured by the British, and recaptured by the Americans the next year. In 1815 it received a new charter of incorporation. The city has twice been ex-

tensively devastated by fire; first in 1805, when it was nearly destroyed; and afterward in 1837, when there was also a great destruction of property.

MICKLE, WILLIAM JULIUS, a Scotch poet, and translator of "The Lusiad," born in 1734, died in 1788.

MIDDLETON, ARTHUR, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Middleton Place in South Carolina, 1743. He was educated in England, returned to America in 1773, was an active republican, and in 1776 was elected to a seat in Congress, of which body he was a member till 1778, and again from 1781 to 1783. He was in Charleston during the siege of 1780, and was made a prisoner at the time of the surrender. The fires of the Revolution melted away a large portion of his ample fortune. He continued active in public life until his death, Jan. 1st, 1787.

MIEFFLIN, THOMAS, major-general in the Revolutionary war; president of Congress in 1783, and in that character received the resignation of Washington in a public audience at Annapolis; was nine years governor of Pennsylvania; died Jan. 20th, 1800, in the fifty-seventh year of his age.

MILAN, formerly a duchy in the north of Italy, was comprised, with several other districts, under the general name of Lombardy, until the fourteenth century, when Visconti, a Milanese nobleman, purchased the ducal title from the reigning emperor. The marriage of his daughter to the Duke of Orleans gave rise to the pretensions of the kings of France to this duchy. After the death of the last duke of this line, Francis Sforza, a man of family and talents, so ingratiated himself with the people that he was unanimously chosen duke in 1450. On the extinction of the Sforza family a century after, the Emperor Charles V. gave the Milanese as a fief of the empire to his son Philip II. of Spain, and it remained an appendage to that crown till 1706, when a brilliant campaign of Prince Eugene put it in possession of the house of Austria, to which, with the exception of the Sardinian Milanese, it continued subject during ninety years, until the victories of Bonaparte in 1796. On the formation of the Cisalpine republic, the whole of Milan, divided into four

departments, was comprised in it; but on the restoration of the old order of things in 1814, the part belonging to Sardinia was restored, and the remainder incorporated with Austrian Italy.

Milan, the capital city of the Austrian crownland of Lombardy, contains many splendid public buildings, and 162,000 inhabitants. The French made themselves masters of it in 1796; but were driven out in 1799 by the victorious army of the Austrians and Russians. After the battle of Marengo, Milan again fell into the hands of the French, and continued the seat of their viceroy until the fall of Bonaparte in 1814.

The celebrated Milan decree of Napoleon against all continental intercourse with England, was proclaimed Dec. 17th, 1807.

MILLER, HUGH, was born at Cromarty, a small seaport town in the north of Scotland, in 1802. He received a scanty schooling and became a stone mason. He was fond of reading and a keen observer of nature. He attracted attention by various contributions to newspapers, and in 1840 became editor of the *Witness*, a leading Edinburgh journal. Geology was his favorite study, and his treatise, "The Old Red Sandstone," stamped him with a high and worldwide reputation that was well sustained by his subsequent publications. He shot himself in an insane paroxysm resulting from excessive mental labor, Dec. 31st, 1856. The day previous he had completed a work entitled "The Testimony of the Rocks."

MILTIADES, an Athenian, married Hegesipyla, the daughter of Olorus, the king of the Thracians. In the third year of his government his dominions were threatened by an invasion of the Scythian Nomades, whom Darius had some time before irritated by entering their country. He fled before them; but, as their hostilities were but momentary, he was soon restored to his kingdom. Three years after he left Chersonesus, and set sail for Athens, where he was received with great applause. He was present at the celebrated battle of Marathon, in which all the chief officers ceded their power to him, and left the event of the battle to depend upon his superior abilities. He obtained an important victory over the more numerous forces of his adversaries; yet when he had

demand of his fellow-citizens an olive crown, as the reward of his valor in the field of battle, he was not only refused, but severely reprimanded for presumption.

Some time after, Miltiades was intrusted with a fleet of seventy ships, and ordered to punish those islands which had revolted to the Persians. He was successful at first; but a sudden report that a Persian fleet was coming to attack him, changed his operations as he was besieging Paros. He raised the siege and returned to Athens, where he was accused of treason, and particularly of holding correspondence with the enemy. The falsity of these accusations might have appeared, if Miltiades had been able to come into the assembly. A wound which he had received before Paros detained him at home; and his enemies, taking advantage of his absence, became more eager in their accusations and louder in their clamors. He was condemned to death; but the rigor of the sentence was retracted on the recollection of his great services to the Athenians, and he was put into prison till he had paid a fine of fifty talents to the state. His inability to discharge so great a sum detained him in confinement; his wounds became incurable soon after, and he died about B.C. 489. The crimes of Miltiades were probably aggravated in the eyes of his countrymen when they remembered how he made himself absolute in Chersonesus; and in condemning the barbarity of the Athenians toward a general who was the source of their military prosperity, we must remember the jealousy which ever reigns among a free and independent people, and how watchful they are in defense of the natural rights which they see wrested from others by violence and oppression.

MILTON, JOHN, was descended from an ancient family at Milton in Oxfordshire. His father, whose desertion of the Roman Catholic faith was the cause of his disinheritorship, settled in London as a scrivener, and, marrying a woman of good family, had two sons and a daughter. John, the eldest son, was born in Bread street, December 9th, 1608. He received the rudiments of learning from a domestic tutor, Thomas Young, afterward chaplain to the English merchants at Hamburg, whose merits are gratefully commemorated by his pupil, in a Latin elegy. At a

proper age he was sent to St. Paul's school, and there began to distinguish himself by his intense application to study, as well as by his poetical talents. In his sixteenth year he was removed to Christ's College, Cambridge, where he was admitted a pensioner.

Of his course of studies in the university little is known; but it appears, from several exercises preserved in his works, that he had acquired extraordinary skill in writing Latin verses which are of a purer taste than any preceding compositions of the kind by English scholars. He took the degrees both of bachelor and master of arts; the latter in 1632, when he left Cambridge. He renounced his original intention of entering the church, for which he has given as a reason, that, "coming to some maturity of years, he had perceived what tyranny had invaded it;" which denotes a man early habituated to think and act for himself.

He returned to his father, who had retired from business to a residence at Horton, in Buckinghamshire; and he there passed five years in the study of the best Roman and Grecian authors, and in the composition of some of his finest miscellaneous poems. This was the period of his "Allegro" and "Penseroso," his "Comus" and "Lycidas." That his learning and talents had at this time attracted considerable notice, appears from an application made to him from the Bridgewater family, which produced his admirable masque of "Comus," performed in 1634, at Ludlow Castle, before the Earl of Bridgewater, then Lord President of Wales; and also by his "Arcades," part of an entertainment presented to the Countess dowager of Derby, at Harefield, by some of her family.

In 1638 he obtained his father's leave to improve himself by foreign travel, and set out for the continent. Passing through France, he proceeded to Italy, and spent a considerable time in that seat of the arts and of literature. At Naples he was kindly received by Manso, Marquis of Villa, who had long before deserved the gratitude of poets by his patronage of Tasso; and, in return for a laudatory distich of Manso, Milton addressed to him a Latin poem of great elegance. He left Italy by the way of Geneva, where he contracted an acquaintance with two learned divines, John Diodati and Frederic Spanheim; and he

returned through France, having been absent about a year and three months.

On his arrival, Milton found the nation agitated by civil and religious disputes which threatened a crisis; and as he had expressed himself impatient to be present on the theatre of contention, it has been thought extraordinary that he did not immediately place himself in some active station. But his turn was not military; his fortune precluded a seat in parliament; the pulpit he had declined; and for the bar he had made no preparation. His taste and habits were altogether literary; for the present, therefore, he fixed himself in the metropolis, and undertook the education of his sister Philips's two sons. Soon after, he was applied to by several parents to admit their children to the benefit of his tuition. He therefore took a commodious house in Aldersgate street, and opened an academy. Disapproving the plan of education in the public schools and universities, he deviated from it as widely as possible. He put into the hands of his scholars, instead of the common classics, such Greek and Latin authors as treated on the arts and sciences, and on philosophy; thus expecting to instill the knowledge of things with that of words. We are not informed of the result of his plan; but it will appear singular that one who had himself drunk so deeply at the muse's fount, should withhold the draught from others. We learn that he performed the task of instruction with great assiduity.

Milton did not long suffer himself to lie under the reproach of having neglected the public cause in his private pursuits; and, in 1641, he published four treatises relative to church government, in which he gave the preponderance to the Presbyterian form above the Episcopalian. Resuming the same controversy in the following year, he numbered among his antagonists such men as Bishop Hall and Archbishop Usher. His father, who had been disturbed by the king's troops, now came to live with him; and the necessity of a female head of such a house caused Milton, in 1643, to form a connection with Mary, the daughter of Richard Powell, Esq., a magistrate of Oxfordshire. This was, in several respects, an unhappy marriage; for his father-in-law was a zealous royalist, and his wife had accustomed herself to the jovial

hospitality of that party. She had not, therefore, passed above a month in her husband's house, when, having procured an invitation from her father, she went to pass the summer in his mansion. Milton's invitations for her return were treated with contempt; upon which, regarding her conduct as a desertion which broke the nuptial contract, he determined to punish it by repudiation. In 1644 he published a work on "The Doctrine and Discipline of Divorce;" and, in the next year, it was followed by "Tetrachordon, or Expositions upon the Four Chief Places in Scripture which treat of Marriage." He farther reduced his doctrine into practice, by paying his addresses to a young lady of great accomplishments; but, as he was paying a visit to a neighbor and kinsman, he was surprised with the sudden entrance of his wife, who threw herself at his feet and implored forgiveness. After a short struggle of resentment, he took her to his bosom; and he sealed the reconciliation by opening his house to her father and brothers, when they had been driven from home by the triumph of the republican arms.

In the progress of Milton's prose works, it will be right to mention his "Areopagitica; a Speech of Mr. John Milton, for the Liberty of Unlicensed Printing;" a work, published in 1644, written with equal spirit and ability, and which, when reprinted in 1738, was affirmed to be the best defense that had ever then appeared of that essential article of public liberty. In the following year he took care that his poetical character should not be lost to the world, and published his juvenile poems, Latin and English.

Milton's principles of the origin and end of government carried him to a full approbation of the trial and execution of the king; and, in order to conciliate the minds of the people to that act, he published, early in 1649, a work entitled, "The Tenure of Kings and Magistrates; proving that it is lawful, and hath been so held through all ages, for any who have the power, to call to account a tyrant or wicked king and, after due conviction, to depose and put him to death, if the ordinary magistrate have neglected or denied to do it." Certainly, it would not be easy to express, in stronger terms, an author's resolution to leave no doubts con-

cerning his opinion on this important topic. His appointment to the Latin secretaryship to the council of state was, probably, the consequence of his decision.

The learned Frenchman, Salmasius, or Saumaise, having been hired by Charles II., while in Holland, to write a work in favor of the royal cause, which he entitled, "Defensio Regia," Milton was employed to answer it; which he did in 1651, by his celebrated "Defensio pro Populo Anglicano," in which he exercised all his powers of Latin rhetoric, both to justify the republican party, and to confound and vilify the famous scholar against whom he took up the pen. By this piece he acquired a high reputation, both at home and abroad; and he received a present of a thousand pounds from the English government. His book went through several editions; while, on the other hand, the work of Salmasius was suppressed by the States of Holland, in whose service he lived as a professor at Leyden. Milton's intense application to study had, for some years preceding, brought on an affection of the eyes, which gradually impaired his sight; and, before he wrote his "Defensio," he was warned by his physicians that the effort would probably end in total blindness. This opinion was soon after justified by a *gutta serena*, which seized both his eyes, and subjected the remainder of his life to those privations which he has so feelingly described in some passages of his poems. His intellectual powers, however, suffered no eclipse from this loss of his sensitive faculties; and he pursued, without intermission, both his official and his controversial occupations.

Cromwell at length died, and Charles II. returned in triumph. Milton was discharged from his office, and lay for some time concealed in the house of a friend. The house of commons desired that his majesty would issue a proclamation to call in Milton's "Defenses of the People," and "Iconoclastes," together with a book of Goodwyn's. The books were accordingly burnt by the common hangman; but the authors were returned as having absconded; nor, in the act of indemnity, did the name of Milton appear among those of the excepted persons.

He now, in reduced circumstances, and under the discountenance of power, removed to a private habitation near his former resi-

dence. He had buried his first wife; and a second, the daughter of Captain Woodcock, in Hackney, died in childbed. To solace his forlorn condition, he desired his friend, Dr. Paget, to look out a third wife for him, who recommended a relation of his own, named Elizabeth Minshull, of a good family in Cheshire. His powerful mind now centered in itself, and, undisturbed by contentions and temporary topics, opened to those great ideas which were continually filling it; and the result was "Paradise Lost." Much discussion has taken place concerning the original conception of this grand performance; but whatever hint may have suggested the rude outline, it is certain that all the creative powers of, a strong imagination, and all the accumulated stores of a life devoted to learning, were expended in its completion. Though he appears at an early age to have thought of some subject in the heroic times of English history, as peculiarly calculated for English verse, yet his religious turn, and assiduous study of the Hebrew Scriptures, produced a final preference of a story derived from the sacred writings, and giving scope to the introduction of his theological system. It would be superfluous, at this time, to weigh the merits of Milton's great work, which stands so much beyond competition; but it may be affirmed, that whatever his other poems can exhibit of beauty in some parts, or of grandeur in others, may all be referred to "Paradise Lost" as the most perfect model of both.

Not exhausted by this great effort, Milton followed it in 1670 by "Paradise Regained," and his tragedy of "Samson Agonistes." With these the record of his poems closes. He sank tranquilly under an exhaustion of the vital powers in November, 1674.

It is impossible to refuse to Milton the honor due to a life of the sincerest piety and the most dignified virtue. No man ever lived under a more abiding sense of responsibility. No man ever strove more faithfully to use his time and talent "as ever in the great Taskmaster's eye." No man so richly endowed was ever less prone to trust his own powers, or more prompt to own his dependence on "that eternal and propitious throne, where nothing is readier than grace and refuge to the distresses of mortal suppliants."

His morality was of the loftiest character. He possessed a self-control which, in one susceptible of such vehement emotions, was marvelous. No one ever saw him indulging in those propensities which overcloud the mind and pollute the heart. No youthful excesses treasured up for him a suffering and remorseful old age. From his youth up he was temperate in all things, as became one who had consecrated himself to a life-struggle against vice and error and darkness, in all their forms. He had started with the conviction "that he who would not be frustrate of his hope to write well hereafter in laudable things, ought himself to be a true poem; that is, a composition and pattern of the best and honorable things;" and from this he never swerved. His life was indeed a true poem; or it might be compared to an anthem on his own favorite organ—high-toned, solemn and majestic.

MINDEN, a town of Prussia, containing 9,000 inhabitants. Here Prince Ferdinand gained a victory over the French in the campaign of 1759. The merit of the victory is principally to be ascribed to the valor and steadiness of the British troops engaged. Minden surrendered on the next day; and the French retreated to the other side of the Weser.

MINNESOTA. Among the states that within a few years have been born from the wilderness, the growth of none has been more like that of Aladdin's palace than that of Minnesota, the land of 'sky-tinted water.' It was a part of the domain purchased with Louisiana in 1803. French missionaries and traders had known of the country for nearly two hundred years, and the Chippewa and Sioux or Dacotah tribes of Indians, who possessed it, saw scarcely any other representatives of the white race, long after the cession. But in 1816 Congress passed a law excluding foreigners from the Indian trade, and in 1819 Fort Snelling was established. In 1831 Henry R. Schoolcraft traced the Mississippi to its source in Lake Itasca. But though the region which he visited began to be better known, it continued for years to be many miles to the westward of civilization.

In 1849 the territory of Minnesota was organized. In 1857 it was divided nearly in twain. The western portion it is proposed to

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call the territory of Dacotah, while in 1858 the eastern portion was admitted into the Union as the sovereign state of Minnesota. Area about 80,000 square miles; population about 200,000. The constitution prohibits slavery. The auditor is to be elected for three years; the other state officers for two. The judicial power is vested in justices of the peace, a supreme court, district, probate, and such other inferior courts as the legislature may establish by a two-thirds vote; all judges and justices to be elected by the people for terms in no case longer than seven years. The legislature can not grant divorces, authorize lotteries, or contract a debt over \$250,000. It may pass a general banking law, under stringent restrictions and requirements. All males twenty-one years of age, who have resided in the United States one year and in the state four months next preceding an election, if white citizens of the United States; or white persons of foreign birth who have declared their intention to become citizens; or persons of mixed white and Indian blood, or of Indian blood, who have adopted the language, customs, and habits of civilization,—are voters in the district of which they have been ten days residents: no religious or property qualifications are required. No person shall be rendered incompetent to give evidence in consequence of his opinions on matters of religion.

With the exception of a ridge, dividing the Mississippi from Lake Superior, called the *Hauteurs de Terres*, or Highlands, and the magnificent limestone bluffs upon the Missis-

sippi below St. Paul, Minnesota is a country of high rolling prairies and river bottoms lined with forests. This region is the highest ground north of the Gulf of Mexico, and it forms the watershed of three great basins. The Mississippi, the Red River of the North, and rivers that feed Lake Superior take their rise within its limits, and it is one of the best watered tracts in the Union. The Minnesota or St. Peter's, the St. Francis, and the St. Croix are important tributaries of the Mississippi, and there are myriads of lesser streams. Along the northern portion of the state is a region thickly studded with lakes whose crystal depths are the head-waters of the mighty river. The climate of Minnesota is cold in the long winters, but the clearness and dryness of the atmosphere, and the absence of sudden or extreme changes, temper the severity so that the winters are not more trying than those of lower latitudes. On the fertile soil, maize, oats, and wheat, with the other ordinary cereals, grow well. The pine forests are a source of much wealth and industry.

In 1766 Jonathan Carver, of Connecticut, conceived the idea of reaching the Pacific from the further extremity of the great chain of inland seas. [See CARVER.] He describes Minnesota as a "most delightful country, abounding with all the necessities of life that grow spontaneously. Wild rice grows here in great abundance; and every part is filled with trees, bending under their loads of fruit, such as plums, grapes, and apples. The meadows are covered with hops, and many sorts of vegetables, while the ground is stored

with useful roots, with angelica, spikenard, and ground-nuts as large as hens' eggs." He also speaks of a "milk-white clay" abounding near the south bend of the Minnesota, "out of which china ware might be made, equal in goodness to the Asiatic;" and also of "a blue clay, which serves the Indians for paint."

Whittier has briefly sketched the history of the western wilderness, Minnesota, or Iowa, or Wisconsin, or Kansas.

"Behind the red squaw's birch canoe

The steamer smokes and raves,

And city lots are staked for sale

Above old Indian graves.

I hear the tread of pioneers

Of nations yet to be—

The first low wash of waves, where soon

Shall roll a human sea."

The growth of Minnesota especially, since its organization, has been startling. Its whole population, in 1850, was 6,077; in 1857, Hennepin county alone, in which are the towns of St. Anthony and Minneapolis, contained 13,363 inhabitants. St. Paul, on the east bank of the Mississippi, is the capital of the state. In 1846 it contained but ten white inhabitants: in 1856, there were 10,000 inhabitants! Fifteen miles above St. Paul, are the falls of St. Anthony. The Indians called this beautiful cataract Minnehaha, 'laughing water.' As early as 1680 Father Hennepin gave them the name of his patron saint.

MINORCA, the second of the Balearic Islands in the Mediterranean, contains 44,000 inhabitants. It produces some wines, and olive oil, and has mines of iron, lead, and admirable marble. The climate, although hot, is agreeable. In 1708 the English took possession of it, and retained it till 1756, when it was retaken by a French fleet and army, after the failure of an attempt to relieve it, which led to the execution of the unfortunate Admiral Byng. At the peace of 1763 Minorca was restored to Britain; but in 1782 it was retaken by the Spaniards. It was once more taken by the British in 1798; but was restored at the peace of Amiens in 1802.

MINOS, a king of Crete, who gave laws to his subjects, B.C. 1015, which still remained in full force in the age of the philosopher Plato. His justice and moderation procured him the appellation of the favorite of the gods, the wise legislator, in every city

of Greece; and according to the poets he was rewarded for his equity, after death, with the office of supreme and absolute judge in the infernal regions.

MIRABEAU, HONORE GABRIEL RIQUETTI, Count de, was born in 1749. He was born with a club-foot. In addition to this defect, his tongue, fastened by the frœnum, gave little promise of oratorical success. But the size and vigor of his limbs, and the circumstance of two molar teeth being already formed in his mouth, were sufficiently extraordinary. He was also early attacked with the small-pox, which left its usual impress on his face. In a letter from the marquis, his father, to the Countess of Rochefort, the following passage occurs: "A fête is this day given in honor of my mother [the dowager-marchioness, widow of Jean Antoine de Mirabeau, then seventy-two years of age]. It is the production of my son's tutor (an indefatigable author and actor of such follies). You will see a little monster perform therein, whom they call my son; but who, were he the son of La Thorillière, could not display a greater aptitude for all sorts of devilment." In another letter, dated 21st of September, 1758, he writes thus: "My son, whose size, prattle, and ugliness are wonderfully on the increase, grows more exquisitely and peculiarly ugly from day to day, and, withal, a most indefatigable speechifier."

At an early age he quarreled with his father, and fled from the paternal mansion, but the old gentleman procured a *lettre de cachet*, and imprisoned him. He, however, escaped, and lived for a long time in habits of dissipation: in proof of which the following anecdote is related. Mirabeau, one day, called up his valet to discharge him. The fellow asked the reason. "It is this," said Mirabeau. "You were drunk yesterday, as I myself was. Now, sir, you remember you agreed to get drunk only on days when I was sober."—"I remember it," replied the valet; "but you will excuse me when you reflect upon the impossibility of my obeying you—for you are drunk every day." Mirabeau reflected a moment, and retained the domestic.

He went to Berlin toward the close of the reign of Frederick, and was there when the



French revolution commenced, on which he returned home, and was elected a member of the states-general. He rendered his name memorable by the display of the most polished and powerful eloquence. In 1791 he became president of the national assembly. He died of a fever on the 2d of April, that year.

MISSISSIPPI. The area of Mississippi is 47,156 square miles; population in 1860, 791,305, of whom 436,631 were slaves, and 773 free negroes. Numerous ranges of moderate hills give to a greater part of the surface a diversified character. Some of these eminences terminate abruptly upon a level plain, or upon the banks of a river, and bear the name of bluffs, or river hills. Along the Mississippi River there is an extensive region of swamps, subject to inundation. In the south-east the soil is low, and here the gulf-coast, which farther west is marshy, begins to appear solid, dry, and covered with pines. There are extensive tracts of pine-lands, in which the soil is light, but not unproductive; and a large proportion of the land is fertile. Mississippi is well watered, containing a great number of clear and running streams, and several navigable rivers, which intersect nearly every part of the state. The Mississippi washes the whole western border; the Tennessee laves the north-eastern corner; and the Yazoo, Big Black, Pearl, and Pascagoula flow through the interior. Once tobacco and indigo were the great products of Mississippi, but cotton is now the overshadowing staple. Maize and rice are cultivated somewhat largely.

This region was originally part of French Louisiana, and in 1716 Fort Rosalie was erected at Natchez. In 1763 it was ceded to Great Britain, and twenty years after was claimed by Spain as part of Florida. In 1798 that power relinquished it to the United States, and after the usual territorial probation it was received into the Union in 1817. The legislature meets biennially, half the senators being chosen every two years. The governor holds office for a term of two years, and is ineligible for more than two terms in succession. Every free white male citizen of the United States, aged twenty-one or more, who has resided in the state one year, is an elector. There is a high court of errors and appeals, consisting of three judges, one chosen by the people biennially; and a circuit court, a judge being chosen for four years in each judicial district; and a probate court for each county. There is no uniform system of common schools. An asylum for the blind, one for the deaf and dumb, and a lunatic hospital, are supported by the state at Jackson.

Jackson, the capital of the state, had in 1853, 3,500 inhabitants. Natchez is the largest and most important town. It consists of two distinct parts; the lower town, called Natchez under the Hill, or the Landing, is built on a dead level on the margin of the river, and is occupied by warehouses, tippling-shops, boarding-houses for boatmen, &c.; the upper town stands on a lofty bank or bluff. This place has been occasionally visited by the yellow fever and other

diseases, but it is during the greater part of the year an agreeable and healthful residence. It was visited by a terrible hurricane in 1836. Natchez is 285 miles above New Orleans. Its river and inland trade is extensive. Its population in 1860 was 6,612. Here was formerly the residence of the Great Sun or principal chief of the Natchez, a powerful and, in comparison with their savage neighbors, a polished people; they had an established worship, and regular laws, and, on an altar sacred to the sun, they kept up a perpetual fire in honor of the Great Spirit. In 1716 the French, whom they had received with kindness, were allowed to establish a post, called St. Rosalie, in their territory; but bickerings, as usual, soon ensued between the whites and the Indians, and the latter, stung to madness by the injuries they had experienced, surprised the fort and put the garrison to death in 1729. The French sent a great force into the country, and pursued the war with so much vigor that the whole nation was exterminated or sold into slavery, with the exception of a few who joined the Chickasaws and Choctaws. The ruins of Fort St. Rosalie are still to be seen at Natchez. In the vicinity there is a group of remarkable mounds, from which numerous relics, such as pipes, weapons, vessels covered with figures, &c., have been obtained. Vicksburg, farther up the river, is the next town in importance; population in 1860, 4,591. Mississippi was prominent in the rebellion, Jeff Davis having long been a resident, and the leading politician there. It seceded Jan. 10, 1861. It was one of the chief centers of the Union military operations, and was terribly ravaged during the war. The chief military occurrences in it were, Grant's siege and capture of Vicksburg, the siege of Port Hudson, Grierson's raid, Sherman's march across the state, and Smith's raid. It returned to the Union in August, 1865, by convention.

MISSOLOGHI, a fortress in Greece, memorable for its siege, and the heroic resistance of the garrison. After a defense of twelve months, the Greeks were so near starvation that cats and rats were greedily devoured. They determined by one more sortie to cut their way through the beleaguering camp. On the 22d of April, 1826,

three thousand fighting men were to rush headlong upon the besiegers, and hew a path for the women and children, while the retreat was to be covered by a thousand men, and the fortress to be guarded by a few heroes who were ready to yield their lives for the safety of their wives and brethren. Treachery revealed the plan to the Turkish general; he prepared for the onset, and amid great carnage and capture Missolonghi fell.

MISSOURI has an area of 67,380 square miles, and in 1860 had 1,182,012 inhabitants. The country south of the Missouri River is traversed in different directions by the chains of the Ozark Mountains. North of the Osage and the Missouri, the country is undulating and agreeably diversified, while in the south-east, with the exception of a narrow strip on the border of the Mississippi, there is a low inundated morass, forming a portion of the great Arkansas swamp. This inundated tract is for the most part heavily timbered, and the hilly country to the north and west is well covered with pine, sycamore, hackberry, cottonwood, and sugar maple, though some of the hills are rugged and barren. The rest of the state is divided between forest and prairie. Rich alluvial belts, sometimes prairie and sometimes woodland, generally skirt the rivers; much of the upland is of the first quality, while a large portion of the inferior land is yet productive and well adapted to farming. Cotton is grown a little in the southern part of the state; tobacco is more extensively raised, and hemp, wheat, Indian corn, and the other cereal grains are cultivated with success. Great herds of cattle and flocks of sheep are reared.

Missouri is bountifully supplied with navigable channels. The great river whose name it bears, flows through its centre, and the Mississippi washes all its eastern line. The Osage, Gasconade, Grand, and Chariton are the most considerable tributaries of the Missouri. In mineral treasures Missouri is very rich. Lead and iron are obtained abundantly in the hilly region south of the Missouri. Bituminous coal is extensively found.

The French visited this country very early, but formed no settlements till the middle of the last century. St. Genevieve was founded in 1763, and St. Louis in 1764.



Missouri was included in the Louisiana purchase, and in 1821 became a member of the Union, the Missouri compromise being part of the arrangement, but being repealed in 1854. Missouri was early and long a seat of hostilities during the rebellion. It refused to secede by vote, February 18, 1861, but only the prompt energy of General (then Captain) Lyon, saved it to the Union. Lyon's short but glorious campaign, Fremont's campaign and command, several rebel invasions from Arkansas, and a long series of horrible guerrilla atrocities, constitute the war record of the state. It however passed an emancipation ordinance January 11, 1865, and quietly acquiesced in the restoration of national authority. It is now likely to enter upon a very prosperous career as a free state.

Jefferson City, on the Missouri, the capital of the state, has some 3,000 inhabitants. The great emporium of the state and of the Mississippi valley is St. Louis. Till it came into the hands of the Americans it was a mere village: since the transfer it has thriven plentifully, and in 1860 had 160,773 inhabitants. As prosperous a future would seem to lie before it.

MITHRIDATES. MITHRIDATES I. was the third king of Pontus. He was tributary to the crown of Persia, and his attempts to make himself independent proved fruitless. He was conquered in a battle, and obtained peace with difficulty. Xenophon calls him merely a governor of Cappadocia. He was succeeded by Ariobarzanes, B.C. 363.

The second of this name was grandson to

Mithridates I. He made himself master of Pontus, which had been conquered by Alexander, and had been ceded to Antigonos at the general division of the Macedonian empire among the conqueror's generals. He reigned about twenty-six years, and died at the advanced age of eighty-four, B.C. 302.

He was succeeded by his son MITHRIDATES III. This enterprising and powerful monarch enlarged his paternal possessions by the conquest of Cappadocia and Paphlagonia, and died after a reign of thirty-six years.

The fourth succeeded his father Ariobarzanes, who was the son of Mithridates III.

The fifth succeeded his father Mithridates IV. and strengthened himself on his throne by an alliance with Antiochus the Great, whose daughter Laodice he married. He was succeeded by his son Pharnaces.

The sixth succeeded his father Pharnaces. He was the first of the kings of Pontus who made alliance with the Romans. He furnished them with a fleet in the third Punic war, and assisted them against Aristoniceus, who had laid claim to the kingdom of Pergamus. He was murdered B.C. 123.

The seventh, surnamed Eupator, and the Great, succeeded his father Mithridates VI., though only at the age of eleven years. The beginning of his reign was marked by ambition, cruelty, and artifice. He murdered the two sons whom his sister Laodice had had by Ariarathes, King of Cappadocia, and placed one of his own children, only eight years old, on the vacant throne. These violent proceedings alarmed Nicomedes, King of Bithynia,

who had married Laodice, the widow of Ariarathes. He suborned a youth to act as King of Cappadocia, as the third son of Ariarathes, and Laodice was sent to Rome to impose upon the senate, and assure them that her third son was still alive, and that his pretensions to the kingdom of Cappadocia were just and well grounded. Mithridates used the same arts of dissimulation. He also sent to Rome Gordius, the governor of his son, who solemnly declared before the Roman people, that the youth who sat on the throne of Cappadocia was the third son and lawful heir of Ariarathes, and that he was supported as such by Mithridates.

This intricate affair displeased the Roman senate; and finally, to settle the dispute between the two monarchs, the powerful and rapacious arbiters took away the kingdom of Cappadocia from Mithridates, and Paphlagonia from Nicomedes. These two kingdoms being thus separated from their original possessors, were presented with their freedom and independence; but the Cappadocians refused it, and received Ariobarzanes for king. Such were the first seeds of enmity between Rome and the King of Pontus.

Mithridates, the more effectually to destroy the power of his enemies in Asia, ordered all the Romans that were in his dominions to be massacred. This was done in one night, and no less than 150,000, according to Plutarch, or 80,000 Romans, as Appian mentions, were made at one blow the victims of his cruelty. This universal massacre called aloud for revenge. Aquilius, and soon after Sylla, marched against Mithridates, with a large army. The former was made prisoner; but Sylla obtained a victory over the king's generals, and another decisive engagement rendered him master of all Greece, Macedonia, Ionia, and Asia Minor, which had submitted to the victorious arms of the monarch of Pontus. This ill fortune was aggravated by the loss of about 200,000 men, who were killed in the several engagements that had been fought; and Mithridates, weakened by repeated ill success by sea and land, sued for peace from the conqueror, which he obtained on condition of defraying the expenses that the Romans had incurred by the war, and of remaining satisfied with the possessions which he had received from his ancestors.

While these negotiations of peace were car-

ried on, Mithridates was not unmindful of his real interests. His distress, and not his inclinations, obliged him to ask for peace. Soon after the death of Sylla, he took the field with an army of 140,000 infantry and 16,000 horse, which consisted of his own forces and those of his son-in-law Tigranes, King of Armenia. With such a numerous army, he soon made himself master of the Roman provinces in Asia; none dared to oppose his conquests, as the Romans, relying on his fidelity, had withdrawn the greatest part of their armies from the country.

The news of his warlike preparations was no sooner heard, than Lucullus, the consul, marched into Asia, and without delay blocked up the camp of Mithridates, who was then besieging Cyzicus. The Asiatic monarch escaped from him, and fled into the heart of his kingdom. Lucullus pursued him with the utmost celerity, and would have taken him prisoner after a battle, had not the avidity of his soldiers preferred the plundering of a mule loaded with gold, to the taking of a monarch who had exercised such cruelties against their countrymen, and shown himself so faithless to the most solemn engagements.

The appointment of Glabrio to the command of the Roman forces, instead of Lucullus, was favorable to Mithridates, and he recovered the greatest part of his dominions. The sudden arrival of Pompey, however, soon put an end to his victories. A battle, in the night, was fought near the Euphrates, in which the troops of Pontus labored under every disadvantage. An universal overthrow ensued, and Mithridates, bold in his misfortunes, rushed through the thick ranks of the enemy, at the head of eight hundred horsemen, five hundred of whom perished in the attempt to follow him. He found a safe retreat among the Scythians; and, though destitute of power, friends, and resources, he yet meditated the destruction of the Roman empire, by penetrating into the heart of Italy by land. These wild projects were rejected by his followers, and he sued for peace. It was denied to his ambassadors, and the victorious Pompey declared that to obtain it, Mithridates must ask it in person. He scorned to trust himself in the hands of his enemy, and resolved to conquer or to die. His subjects refused to follow him any longer, and they revolted from him, and made his son

Pharnaces king. The son showed himself ungrateful to his father, and even, according to some writers, ordered him to be put to death.

This unnatural treatment broke the heart of Mithridates; he obliged his wife to poison herself, and attempted to do the same himself. It was in vain: the frequent antidotes he had taken in the early part of his life strengthened his constitution against the poison. When this was unavailing, he attempted to stab himself. The blow was not mortal; and a Gaul, who was then present, at his own request gave him the fatal stroke, about 63 B.C., in the seventy-second year of his age. This prince, who made war against the Romans forty years, and was never entirely vanquished but by Pompey, although he had lost many battles against Lucullus, has been much praised. Cicero calls him the greatest of kings since the time of Alexander the Great. The tales of his cruelty and lack of faith come to us through the Romans: we do not hear Mithridates' side.

MODENA, a duchy in the north of Italy, containing 586,500 inhabitants. In 1796 the Duke of Modena was expelled from his dominions by the French: in 1797 they were incorporated with the Cisalpine republic; in 1814 they were restored to the duke; and by the peace of Villa Franca, in 1859, Modena became part of the kingdom of Italy.

MOHATZ, BATTLES OF, in lower Hungary. In a great battle here, Louis of Hungary was defeated by the Turks under Solymán II., with the loss of 22,000 men, 1526. Prince Charles of Lorraine defeated the Turks here in 1687.

MOHILOW, BATTLE OF, July 23d, 1812, in which the Russians under Prince Bagration were defeated with immense loss by the French under Marshal Davoust.

MOLDAVIA, one of the Danubian principalities, has an area of 17,000 square miles, and a population of 1,254,500. Jassy, the capital, has about 50,000 inhabitants.

MOLIERE, JOHN BAPTIST, a much celebrated French dramatic writer, born at Paris, 1622, died 1673, aged fifty-one. His paternal name was Poquelin.

MOLINO DEL REY. This strong fortification, defended by 14,000 Mexicans under Santa Anna, was carried by the Americans

under Gen. Worth, Sept. 8th, 1847. The loss of the Mexicans in killed and wounded was 3,000, besides 2,000 who deserted during the conflict. The American loss was 116 killed, 665 wounded, and 18 missing. The capture of Molino del Rey was an important step toward gaining the city of Mexico.

MOLUCCAS, or SPICE ISLANDS, lie between the Sunda Isles, the Philippines, and New Holland. These islands were discovered by the Portuguese in 1511, but now belong to the Dutch, who obtain from them sandalwood, cloves, and spices. Amboyna is the largest and most productive of the Molucca Islands. It is thirty or forty miles in length. In 1623 the merchants of the English factory here were tortured and put to death by the Dutch. The United Provinces refused satisfaction to James I. and Charles I., but paid to Cromwell £300,000 as a small indemnity.

MOLWITZ, BATTLE OF, April 10th (March 30th), 1741. Frederick III. obtained a great victory over the Austrians.

MONCEY, ADRIEN, Duke of Conegliano and marshal of the empire, was born at Besançon in 1754, and entered the army at the age of fifteen. He served variously in the wars of Napoleon. As governor of the Invalides he received the ashes of his former emperor in 1840. He died in 1842.

MONEY is mentioned as a medium of commerce in Genesis xxiii., when Abraham purchased a field as a sepulchre for Sarah, in the year of the world 2139. In profane history the coinage of money is ascribed to the Lydians. *Moneta* was the name the Romans gave their silver, it having been coined in the temple of Juno Moneta, 269 B.C. Money was made of different ores, and even of leather and other articles, both in ancient and modern times. It was made of pasteboard by the Hollanders so late as 1574. Charles II. coined tin, and James II. gun metal and pewter. The North American Indians used for money, small beads made of variously colored shells, which they called *wampum*. [See COIN.]

MONGOLS. The name of Mongolia is now given to a vast extent of country in the interior of Asia, between 38° and 53° N. lat., 84° and 124° E. long., comprising an area of about 1,250,000 square miles. Like their ancestors, the Mongols of to-day lead a nomadic life, subsisting on the produce of their

herds, without attempting to till the ground. Their wealth consists in their numerous droves of camels, horses, and sheep. All the Mongols speak the same language, and admit that they all belong to the same nation and have a common origin. They are under the government of the Chinese, though there is indelible hatred between the two races. According to a rough estimate, it is thought that the Mongols, after having lived in peace for more than a century, can bring to the field 500,000 warriors; and as each man is a warrior, it is presumed that the whole population does not exceed 2,000,000. The Mongols have been improperly confounded with the Tartars: no two nations could be more distinct physically. The names of Mongols and Tartars did not become known until after the conquests of Genghis Khan, who honored his tribes with the pompous title of *Koekae Monghoël* (celestial people); whereas the conquered Turki hordes were called Tartars (tributaries).

Genghis Khan, born in 1163, became the chief of a petty Mongol clan in the thirteenth year of his age, and having first overcome the neighboring hordes, he soon united the numerous wandering tribes into a conquering nation, and successively subdued the greatest part of Asia. His son Oktai was equally successful. In their western expeditions the Mongol armies advanced even to Hungary and Silesia; so that after the dreadful battle of Wahlstadt (1241) the Mongol empire extended from the northern provinces of China to the frontiers of Poland and Germany. The Khalkha Mongols, under Kublai Khan, conquered all China, and held it for a century. During the thirteenth century this vast empire gradually split into several independent sovereignties, till it was once more united, and even considerably enlarged in the direction of Hindostan, by the famous Tamerlane, after whose brilliant career (1335-1405) the Mongol empire slowly dissolved. In 1519 a lineal descendant from Tamerlane, Zehireddin Mohammed Baber, founded a new monarchy in Hindostan, erroneously called the Mogul empire.

MONK, GEORGE, Duke of Albemarle, was born in Devonshire in 1608. At the age of seventeen, he served under his relation, Sir Richard Grenville, in an expedition against

Spain; and, in 1630 he went as an ensign to the Low Countries, where he obtained a captain's commission. In 1639 he attended Charles I. to Scotland, and was made lieutenant colonel; afterward he went to Ireland, and, for his services in the rebellion, was appointed governor of Dublin. On his return to England with his regiment, in 1643, he was made major-general in the Irish brigade, then employed in the siege of Nantwich, in Cheshire, where he was taken prisoner, and sent to the Tower. After remaining in confinement about three years, he was induced to accept a commission under the parliament against the Irish rebels; in which service he performed several great exploits, but at last fell under censure, for concluding a treaty with O'Neil. Upon this he gave up the command, and retired to his estate; but was soon called to serve with Cromwell in Scotland, where he bore a part in the battle of Dunbar; after which he was left in the command of the English forces in that kingdom.

In 1653 he was joined with Blake and Dean in the naval service against the Dutch fleet, commanded by Van Tromp, with whom two desperate battles were fought that year, in both of which the English were victorious. Peace being soon after concluded, Monk returned to the command in Scotland, where he remained during the protectorate of Cromwell, who regarded him with jealousy, and even imparted to him in a letter, the suspicions which he entertained of his design to restore the king. Monk took no notice of this, but watched his opportunity; and when the authority of Richard Cromwell declined, he began his movements, and concluded them with so much judgment as to bring about that important event without bloodshed or confusion. After this he was created Duke of Albemarle, and knight of the garter. The remainder of his life was not spent inactively; for when hostilities broke out with the Dutch, he again commanded the fleet, and fought De Ruyter and Van Tromp in a tremendous battle, which lasted three days. The duke had scarcely returned into port before he was called to London, in consequence of the dreadful fire which laid the greatest part of the capital in ashes; and so acceptable was he to the people, that when he passed along, they

cried out, "If his grace had been there, the city would not have been burned." He died Jan. 3d, 1670, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. By his duchess, who survived him but a few months, he had one son, Christopher, who died governor of Jamaica, without issue, in 1688.

MONMOUTH, BATTLE OF. During Sir Henry Clinton's march to New York through New Jersey in 1778, after evacuating Philadelphia, Washington hovered upon his rear. An engagement took place at Monmouth court-house, the 28th of June. The retreat of Gen. Lee, who commanded the American advance, embarrassed Washington's plans, but after a severely contested day the advantage rested with the patriots; and during the night the British hurried away. The day was very hot, and both sides suffered intensely from thirst.

MONMOUTH, JAMES, Duke of. Charles II., of England, while a wanderer on the continent, fell in at the Hague with Lucy Walters, a Welsh girl of great beauty, but of weak understanding and dissolute manners. She became his mistress, and presented him with a son. A suspicious lover might have had his doubts; for the lady had several admirers, and was not supposed to be cruel to any. Charles, however, readily took her word, and poured forth on little James Crofts, as the boy was then called, an overflowing fondness, such as seemed hardly to belong to that easy, but cool and careless nature. Soon after the restoration, the young favorite, who had learned in France the exercises then considered necessary to a fine gentleman, made his appearance at Whitehall. He was lodged in the palace, attended by pages, and permitted to enjoy several distinctions which had till then been confined to princes of the blood royal. He was married, while still in tender youth, to Anne Scott, heiress of the noble house of Buccleuch. He took her name, and received with her hand possession of her ample domains. Titles, and favors more substantial than titles, were lavished on him. Nor did he appear to the public unworthy of his high fortunes. His countenance was eminently handsome and engaging, his temper sweet, his manners polite and affable.

When Charles II. and Louis XIV. united their forces against Holland, Monmouth com-

manded the English auxiliaries who were sent to the continent, and approved himself a gallant soldier and a not unintelligent officer. On his return he found himself the most popular man in the kingdom. Nothing was withheld from him but the crown; nor did even the crown seem to be absolutely beyond his reach. The distinction which had most injudiciously been made between him and the highest nobles had produced evil consequences. When a boy, he had been invited to put on his hat in the presence chamber, while Howards and Seymours stood uncovered round him. When foreign princes died, he had mourned for them in the long purple cloak, which no other subject, except the Duke of York and Prince Rupert, was permitted to wear. It was natural that these things should lead him to regard himself as a legitimate prince of the house of Stuart. Charles, even at a ripe age, was devoted to his pleasures and regardless of his dignity. It could hardly be thought incredible that he should at twenty have gone through the form of espousing a woman whose beauty had fascinated him, and who was not to be won on easier terms. While Monmouth was still a child, and while the Duke of York still passed for a Protestant, it was rumored throughout the country, and even in circles which ought to have been well informed, that the king had made Lucy Walters his wife, and that, if every one had his right, her son would be Prince of Wales. When Monmouth returned from the Low Countries with a high character for valor and conduct, and when the Duke of York was known to be a member of a church detested by the great majority of the nation, this idle story became important. For it there was not the slightest evidence. Against it there was the solemn asseveration of the king, made before his council, and by his order communicated to his people; but the multitude, always fond of romantic adventures, drank in eagerly the tale of secret espousals.

Some chiefs of the party opposed to the court, countenanced a story which they must have despised. The interest which the populace took in him whom they regarded as the champion of the true religion, and the rightful heir of the British throne, was kept up by every artifice. When Monmouth arrived in

London at midnight, the watchmen were ordered by the magistrates to proclaim the joyful event through the streets of the city; the people left their beds; bonfires were lighted; the windows were illuminated; the churches were opened; and a merry peal rose from all the steeples. When he traveled, he was everywhere received with not less pomp, and with far more enthusiasm, than had been displayed when kings had made progresses through the realm. He was escorted from mansion to mansion by long cavalcades of armed gentlemen and yeomen. Cities poured forth their whole population to receive him. Electors thronged round him, to assure him that their votes were at his disposal. To such a height were his pretensions carried, that he not only exhibited on his escutcheon the lions of England and the lilies of France without the baton sinister under which, according to the laws of heraldry, they were debruised in token of his illegitimate birth, but ventured to touch for the king's evil. At the same time, he neglected no art of condescension by which the love of the multitude could be conciliated. He stood godfather to the children of the peasantry, mingled in every rustic sport, wrestled, played at quarter-staff, and won foot-races in his boots against fleet runners in shoes.

In the projects that cost Russell and Sidney their lives, Monmouth was implicated; and though forgiven by his easy father, he soon gave new cause of offense, and thought it prudent to go into voluntary exile in Holland. He was accompanied by Lady Wentworth, a damsel of high rank and ample fortune, who loved him passionately, who sacrificed for his sake her maiden honor and the hope of a splendid alliance, and whom he declared to be his true wife, rather than her to whom he had been wedded while only a child. After the death of his father, and the development of the tyrannous schemes of James, desperate men sought Monmouth in his banishment, with tempting plans for raising him to the throne. The ambition and love of Lady Wentworth seconded their solicitations, and she placed all her means at his disposal. Monmouth yielded. He remembered his popularity, and success seemed certain. With a small force, he landed on the coast of Somersetshire, in June, 1685.

The people flocked to the standard of the good duke, the Protestant duke, the rightful heir whom a vile conspiracy kept from his own. At Taunton he was proclaimed king. But in the battle of Sedgemoor on the 6th of July, the royal armies commanded by Feversham and Churchill were completely victorious over the colliers and ploughmen who composed the insurgent force. The rebellion was broken; its retribution followed in the death and terror with which the infamous Jeffreys soon darkened the land in the bloody assizes.

The fugitive and miserable Monmouth was captured after lurking in the fields a few days. His fortitude failed him, and he sunk into pusillanimity. His royal uncle cruelly admitted him to an interview. Monmouth threw himself on the ground, and crawled to the king's feet. He wept. He tried to embrace his uncle's knees with his pinioned arms. He begged for life, only life, life at any price. He owned that he had been guilty of a great crime, but tried to throw the blame on others. By the ties of kindred, by the memory of the late king, who had been the best and truest of brothers, the unhappy man adjured James to show some mercy. James gravely replied that this repentance was of the latest; that he was sorry for the misery which the prisoner had brought on himself, but that the case was not one for lenity. A declaration, filled with atrocious calumnies, had been put forth. The regal title had been assumed. For treason so aggravated there could be no pardon on this side of the grave. The poor terrified duke vowed that he had never wished to take the crown, but had been led into that fatal error by others. As to the declaration, he had not written it. He had not read it. He had signed it without looking at it. "Do you expect me to believe," said James, with contempt but too well merited, "that you set your hand to a paper of such moment without knowing what it contained?" One depth of infamy alone remained, and even to that the prisoner descended. He was pre-eminently the champion of the Protestant religion. The interest of that religion had been his plea for conspiring against the government of his father, and for bringing on his country the miseries of civil war; yet he was not

ashamed to hint that he was inclined to be reconciled to the church of Rome. The king eagerly offered him spiritual assistance, but said nothing of pardon or respite. "Is there, then, no hope?" asked Monmouth. James turned away in silence. Then Monmouth strove to rally his courage, rose from his knees, and retired with a firmness which he had not shown since his overthrow.

Soon after Monmouth had been lodged in the Tower, he was informed that his wife had, by the royal command, been sent to see him. She was accompanied by the Earl of Clarendon. Her husband received her very coldly, and addressed almost all his discourse to Clarendon, whose intercession he earnestly implored. Clarendon held out no hopes; and that same evening two prelates, Turner, Bishop of Ely, and Ken, Bishop of Bath and Wells, arrived at the Tower with a solemn message from the king. It was Monday night. On Wednesday morning Monmouth was to die. He was greatly agitated. The blood left his cheeks; and it was some time before he could speak. Most of the short time which remained to him he wasted in vain attempts to obtain, if not a pardon, at least a respite. He wrote piteous letters to the king and to several courtiers, but in vain. Some Catholic divines were sent to him from court; but they soon discovered that, though he would gladly have purchased his life by renouncing the religion of which he had professed himself in an especial manner the defender, yet, if he was to die, he would as soon die without their absolution as with it.

Wednesday came; the hour drew near; all hope was over; and Monmouth had passed from pusillanimous fear to the apathy of despair. His children were brought to his room that he might take leave of them, and were followed by his wife. He spoke to her kindly, but without emotion. Though she was a woman of great strength of mind, and had little cause to love him, her misery was such that none of the bystanders could refrain from weeping. He alone was unmoved.

It was ten o'clock: the coach of the lieutenant of the Tower was ready. Monmouth requested his spiritual advisers, Turner and Ken, to accompany him to the scaffold, and they consented; but they told him that, in their judgment, he was about to die in a per-

ilous state of mind, and that, if they attended him, it would be their duty to exhort him to the last. As he passed along the ranks of the guards he saluted them with a smile, and mounted the scaffold with a firm tread. Tower Hill was covered up to the chimney tops with an innumerable multitude of gazers, who, in awful silence, broken only by sighs and the noise of weeping, listened for the last accents of the darling of the people. "I shall say little," he began. "I come here not to speak but to die. I die a Protestant of the Church of England." The bishops interrupted him, and told him that, unless he acknowledged resistance to the king to be sinful, he was no member of his church. He went on to speak of his Henrietta. She was, he said, a young lady of virtue and honor. He loved her to the last, and he could not die without giving utterance to his feelings. The bishops again interfered, and begged him not to use such language. Their general arguments against resistance had no effect on him; but when they reminded him of the ruin he had brought on his brave and loving followers, of the blood which had been shed, of the souls which had been sent unprepared to the great account, he was touched, and said, in a softened voice, "I do own that. I am sorry that it ever happened." They prayed with him long and fervently; and he joined in their petitions till they invoked a blessing on the king. He remained silent. "Sir," said one of the assistants, "do you not pray for the king with us?" Monmouth paused some time, and after an internal struggle, exclaimed "Amen." But it was in vain that the prelates implored him to address to the soldiers and to the people a few words on the duty of obedience to the government. "I will make no speeches," he exclaimed. "Only ten words, my lord." He turned away, called his servant, and put into the man's hand a toothpick-case, the last token of ill-starred love. "Give it," he said, "to that person." He then accosted John Ketch, the executioner, a wretch who had butchered many brave and noble victims, and whose name has, during a century and a half, been vulgarly given to all who have succeeded him in his odious office. "Here," said the duke, "are six guineas for you. Do not hack me as you did my Lord Russell.

I have heard that you struck him three or four times. My servant will give you some more gold if you do the work well." He then undressed, felt the edge of the axe, expressed some fear that it was not sharp enough, and laid his head on the block. The divines in the mean time continued to ejaculate with great energy, "God accept your repentance; God accept your imperfect repentance."

The hangman addressed himself to his office; but he had been disconcerted by what the duke had said. The first blow inflicted only a slight wound. The duke struggled, rose from the block, and looked reproachfully at the executioner. The head sank down once more. The stroke was repeated again and again; but still the neck was not severed, and the body continued to move. Yells of rage and horror rose from the crowd. Ketch flung down the axe with a curse. "I can not do it," he said; "my heart fails me." "Take up the axe, man," cried the sheriff. "Fling him over the rails," roared the mob. At length the axe was taken up. Two more blows extinguished the last remains of life; but a knife was used to separate the head from the shoulders. The crowd was wrought up to such an ecstasy of rage that the executioner was in danger of being torn in pieces, and was conveyed away under a strong guard. In the mean time many handkerchiefs were dipped in the duke's blood, for by a large part of the multitude he was regarded as a martyr who had died for the Protestant religion. The head and body were placed in a coffin covered with black velvet, and were laid privately under the communion-table of St. Peter's chapel in the Tower.

Yet a few months, and the quiet village of Toddington, in Bedfordshire, witnessed a still sadder funeral. Near that village stood an ancient and stately hall, the seat of the Wentworths. The transept of the parish church had long been their burial-place. To that burial-place, in the spring which followed the death of Monmouth, was borne the coffin of the young Baroness Wentworth of Nettlested. Her family reared a sumptuous mausoleum over her remains; but a less costly memorial of her was long contemplated with far deeper interest. Her name, carved by the hand of him whom she loved too well, was,

a few years ago, still discernible on a tree in the adjoining park.

It was not by Lady Wentworth alone that the memory of Monmouth was cherished with idolatrous fondness. His hold on the hearts of the people lasted till the generation which had seen him had passed away. Ribbons, buckles, and other trifling articles of apparel which he had worn were treasured up as precious relics by those who had fought under him at Sedgemoor. Old men who long survived him desired, when they were dying, that these trinkets might be buried with them. Nay, such was the devotion of the people to their unhappy favorite, that, in the face of the strongest evidence by which the fact of a death was ever verified, many continued to cherish a hope that he was still living, and that he would again appear in arms. A person, it was said, who was remarkably like Monmouth, had sacrificed himself to save the Protestant hero. The vulgar long continued, at every important crisis, to whisper that the time was at hand, and that King Monmouth would soon show himself. In 1686 a knave who had pretended to be the duke, and had levied contributions in several villages of Wiltshire, was apprehended and whipped from Newgate to Tyburn. In 1698, when England had long enjoyed constitutional freedom under a new dynasty, the son of an innkeeper passed himself on the yeomanry of Sussex as their beloved Monmouth, and defrauded many who were by no means of the lowest class. Five hundred pounds were collected for him. The farmers provided him with a horse. Their wives sent him baskets of chickens and ducks. When this impostor was thrown into prison for his frauds, his followers maintained him in luxury. Several of them appeared at the bar to countenance him when he was tried. So long did this delusion last, that, when George III. had been some years on the English throne, Voltaire thought it necessary gravely to confute the hypothesis that the man in the iron mask was the Duke of Monmouth.

MONRO, ALEXANDER, entitled the father of the medical school of Edinburgh, died 1767, aged seventy.

MONROE, JAMES, the fifth president of the United States, was descended from one of the most ancient and honorable families in the

Old Dominion, and born in the county of Westmoreland, April 2d, 1759. It is remarkable that the tide-water section of Virginia produced four out of the first five presidents; Washington, Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe having been born therein, and within a few miles of each other. In his eighteenth year, Monroe left his studies at the college of William and Mary, to battle for freedom. He fought at Harlem Heights and White Plains, was wounded at Trenton, and for his gallantry received the command of an infantry company. During the campaigns of 1777 and 1778 he acted as aid to Lord Stirling, and distinguished himself at Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth. From 1783 to 1786 he represented his state in the continental congress. Mr. Monroe was a member of the Virginia convention of 1788, called to decide upon the adoption of the federal constitution which had been framed. Although he had been convinced of the inefficiency of the existing confederation, and had been earnest for a radical change in the form of government, he was not willing to adopt the instrument that had been framed, without several alterations. He acted with Patrick Henry and other leading men in opposition to Madison, Edmund Randolph, John Marshall, and others. The convention finally assented to the constitution as it was, but recommended, at the same time, certain amendments. Monroe voted nay. Anti-Federalist senators were chosen, and when Mr. Grayson's time expired in 1790, Mr. Monroe succeeded to his seat in the senate. In this station he continued till 1794, when he was appointed to succeed Gouverneur Morris as minister to France. His course did not coincide with the views of Washington, who therefore recalled him in 1796, appointing Charles Cotesworth Pinckney to the post. He was governor of Virginia for three years succeeding 1799; in 1803 was selected by Jefferson as envoy to France, and minister to Spain, to take part in the negotiations for the purchase of Louisiana; he succeeded Rufus King as minister to the court of St. James, and returned home in 1807. Mr. Madison appointed him secretary of state in 1811, and he continued in that department till the close of the administration. After the capture of Washington by the British,

and the resignation of Gen. Armstrong, Mr. Monroe assumed the burden of the war department, without, however, relinquishing his previous position in the cabinet. His energy was of great avail. Toward the close of the year 1814 his attention was urgently called to the danger menacing New Orleans, against which the enemy had dispatched a powerful fleet and army. The resources of the government were at a low ebb, and Mr. Monroe was compelled to pledge his own credit. He was thus able to furnish the needed supplies, New Orleans was saved, and the war brilliantly closed with the defeat of Packenham.

In 1817 Mr. Monroe succeeded Madison as chief magistrate of the country. Among the measures which marked his administration was the negotiation of the treaty by which Florida was added to the United States. In 1820 he was re-elected with more unanimity than any president except Washington, receiving every vote of the electoral college but one. At the close of his second term, in 1828, he retired to his residence in Loudon county, Virginia, where he was shortly after appointed county magistrate, the duties of which office he continued to discharge until his departure for the city of New York. Having been elected in 1830, to the convention called for a revision of the state constitution, he was chosen to preside over its deliberations; severe indisposition forced him to retire. The next summer he repaired to New York to reside with his son-in-law, Mr. Gouverneur. There his career on earth ceased, July 4th, 1831, in the seventy-second year of his age.

Mr. Monroe was not a man of superior talents, but diligent and industrious in all the duties that were laid upon him, and of great honesty and firmness of purpose.

MONTAGUE, EDWARD, Earl of Sandwich, was the son of Sir Sidney Montague, and born in 1625. At the age of eighteen he raised a regiment in the service of parliament, and was present in several battles; but in the Dutch war he left the army for the navy, and was associated with Blake in the Mediterranean. Afterward he commanded the fleet in the North Sea, but at his return was deprived of it on suspicion of being in the royal interest. Monk, however, procured

him to be replaced; and he conveyed the king to England; after which he was created Earl of Sandwich. In the war of 1664 he commanded under the Duke of York, and had a principal share in the great battle of June 3d, 1665. Soon after this he went to Spain, where he negotiated a peace between that country and Portugal. On the renewal of the Dutch war in 1672, he commanded a squadron under the Duke of York; but his ship taking fire, he jumped overboard, and was drowned.

MONTAIGNE, MICHAEL DE, the French essayist, was born in 1533 and died in 1592. He resided almost constantly at his chateau in Perigord, and his essays were the fruit of his reading and musing. In the British Museum there is preserved one of the earliest English translations of Montaigne, which has the autograph of Shakespeare on a fly-leaf.

MONTCALM, LOUIS JOSEPH DE, killed on the plains of Abraham, 1759; he was commander of the French army. [See WOLFE.]

MONTECUCULI, RAYMOND DE, a great Italian general, died in 1681, aged seventy-three.

MONTEREAU, BATTLE OF, between the allied army and the French, Feb. 8th, 1814, was one of the last victories of Napoleon.

MONTEREY. The American army under Gen. Taylor, 4,700 strong, on the 21st of September, 1846, assaulted the city of Monterey, which was held by Gen. Ampudia with 10,000 Mexicans. On the morning of the 22d, Gen. Worth's division stormed the height above the bishop's palace, and in the afternoon the palace itself was taken, and its guns turned upon the city. The next evening Ampudia, who had concentrated his forces in the citadel and plaza, sent in propositions for surrender. The American loss, in the capture of Monterey, was 120 killed and 368 wounded. That of the Mexicans was much greater.

MONTESQUIEU, CHARLES, Baron de, author of the "Spirit of Laws," born in France, 1689, died in 1755.

MONTEZUMA, the monarch of Mexico at the time of the invasion of the Spaniards. At a short distance from the city of Mexico, they were met by Montezuma at the head of his nobles, and surrounded by his guards

and courtiers. Cortez was received by the emperor with hospitality and confidence which he soon forfeited; for having learned that a traditionary prophecy was current that a powerful nation, children of the sun, would chastise the country, as a punishment for their sins, he readily turned the idea to his own advantage. Cortez came to the determination of seizing Montezuma in his palace, which he entered with ten officers and soldiers. He requested Montezuma to take up a temporary residence with the Spaniards, to which demand the monarch reluctantly consented. Here he suffered every indignity; and Cortez, on a frivolous pretext that the monarch was the instigator of some tumults, ordered him to be fettered and thrown into prison.

Montezuma remained a prisoner six months, during which period Cortez was actively employed in furthering his own views. The former now acknowledged himself in form a vassal of the Spanish king, and a tumult arising, Cortez placed him in view of his enraged subjects, but in vain. The forlorn monarch was pierced by an arrow, and died broken-hearted and despairing, in 1520.

MONTGOMERY, RICHARD, a brave major-general in the Revolutionary army, born in Ireland, in 1737. He settled in this country, after serving under Wolfe, and having embraced the American cause, was killed in an attack upon Quebec, Dec. 31st, 1775.

MONTGOMERY, GABRIEL, Count, a French nobleman, who, in 1559, had the misfortune to kill Henry II. by accidentally striking him in the eye at a tournament. He then quitted France; but returned during the civil wars, and placed himself at the head of the Protestants. After many vicissitudes he was taken prisoner, and beheaded at Paris in 1574.

MONTROSE, JAMES GRAHAM, Marquis of, one of the most chivalrous partisans of Charles I., who, after the cause of the Stuarts appeared to be hopeless, persevered in exciting insurrections in Scotland; but being taken he was brought to Edinburgh, tried, and executed on a gibbet forty feet high, on the 23d of September, 1650.

MOORE, Sir JOHN, was born at Glasgow in 1761. He was the son of Dr. John Moore, a well known physician, the author of "Zeluco"

and other works. At the age of fifteen he obtained an ensigncy in the fifty-first regiment of foot; of which, in 1790, he became lieutenant colonel, and served with his corps in Corsica, where he was wounded in storming the Mozello fort at the siege of Calvi. In 1796 he went out as a brigadier-general to the West Indies, under Sir Ralph Abercrombie, who appointed him to the government of St. Lucie, in the capture of which he had a principal share.

On his return home, in 1797, he was employed in Ireland during the rebellion, and was raised to the rank of major-general. In 1799 he went on the expedition to Holland, where he was again wounded severely; notwithstanding which, he soon afterward went to the Mediterranean, and at the battle of Alexandria received a cut from a sabre on the breast, and a shot in the thigh. On his return to England he was made a knight of the bath; and in 1808 he was appointed to command an army in Spain, where, after a signal retreat before Soult's superior force, he fell, under the walls of Corunna, Jan. 16th, 1809.

The description of the battle of Corunna, and of the death of Sir John Moore, is thus briefly given by Bisset. The British army reached Corunna on the 12th of January, 1809, having lost one-fourth of its numbers. Their situation was so disadvantageous that some officers suggested the proposal of terms to Soult, on condition that he should permit the troops to embark unmolested. Sir John Moore rejected the advice, and declared his resolution to accept no terms which should be in the least dishonorable to the army or to his country. In the evening of the 14th the transports from the Vigo hove in sight. After the embarkation of the troops on the 16th, orders were issued that, if the French did not move, the embarkation of the reserve should commence at four in the afternoon.

At mid-day, the general received information that the enemy were getting under arms. Two columns of the enemy directed their march on the right wing of the British, which was disadvantageously posted. Sir John Moore hastened to this part of the field, when the fourth regiment on the right flank was menaced by a body of the enemy who were hastening up the valley to turn it. He

proceeded to direct the movements of the other regiments in this division, and was in the act of ordering up the guards to support the forty-second Highlanders, when he was struck from his horse by a cannon-ball, which carried away his left shoulder and part of the collar-bone, leaving the arm hanging by the flesh. He was borne away by six soldiers of the forty-second.

The troops continued to fight bravely under Sir John Hope, on whom the command devolved, and at nightfall remained masters of the field. This victory was obtained under great disadvantages; the French force exceeded 20,000 men, well appointed and provided with cannon. The British scarcely amounted to 15,000, exhausted by harassing marches, and discouraged by the loss of their military chest, their stores, their baggage, their horses, their sick, their wounded, their wives and children.

General Moore lived to hear that the battle was won, and in his last moments, after an affecting reminiscence of his mother, expressed a hope that his country would do him justice. His body was removed after midnight to the citadel of Corunna, wrapped in a military cloak and blankets, and buried in a grave dug in the ramparts.

MOORE, THOMAS, was born in Dublin, May 28th, 1780, of Roman Catholic parents, to whose faith he continued an adherent through life. After studying at the university of Dublin, he proceeded to London to enter as a student of law in the Middle Temple. He published a translation of Anacreon, and "Poems of Thomas Little," whose looseness he repented in after years. The just severity with which these, and another miscellaneous volume of his, were cut up in the *Edinburgh Review*, produced an abortive duel between Moore and Jeffrey. In 1803 he obtained a place under government, a registrarship in Bermuda. He went out and entered upon its duties, but soon tired of the "still vexed Bermoothes," and leaving a deputy in charge of the office, returned to England, having first visited the United States and Canada, where he composed the popular Boat-Song.

His career was now that of a man of letters, much courted in high society. His "Irish Melodies," lyrics which he wedded to the ancient airs of Erin, brought him both

fame and gold. He had determined to write an eastern tale in verse, and in 1812 the Longmans covenanted to pay him three thousand guineas for a poem of which he had not then written a line, nor even settled the subject. He retired to a cottage in Derbyshire, and there buried himself in oriental studies and scenes. He read every work of authority that treated of the topography, climate, zoology, ornithology, entomology, floriculture, horticulture, agriculture, manners, customs, religious ceremonies, and languages of the East. But this was not all. The task was his to conjure about him an oriental atmosphere, and amid the snows of bleak Derbyshire winters sun himself in the brightest scenes of the fervid clime of the East. This romance of "Lalla Rookh," his most elaborate poem, was published in 1817, and won great popularity. The patient research of the poet had been eminently successful. His oriental reading was pronounced by a great Eastern traveler, "as good as riding on the back of a camel." The accuracy of the poem in all its details, and its local fidelity, were complete. For recreation after his task, he visited the continent with Rogers. The next year he made another continental tour with Lord John Russell, in the course of which he visited his friend Lord Byron at Venice, and was intrusted with the autobiography that was afterward burnt.

Upon his return from this journey, Moore took up his abode in Paris, where he remained till near the close of the year 1822. His deputy in Bermuda had proved a defaulter to the amount of £6,000. Moore's friends pressed upon him offers of assistance; among others, Jeffrey, his former antagonist, with whom he was now cordially intimate, proffered generous help; but he declined all assistance. The claim was finally compromised for a thousand guineas, toward which an uncle of the delinquent deputy contributed £300. The remaining £750 were defrayed by the poet from his earnings; out of which, notwithstanding this drain, he continued to make a liberal allowance to his parents. Fortune smiled upon him, and in 1823, the June following, his publishers' account footed pleasantly. He was credited with £1,000 for "Loves of the Angels," and £500 for "Fables of the Holy Alliance."

These were halcyon days for poets. There was truth as well as jest in Sir Walter Scott's remark a few years afterward, in reply to Moore's observation that "hardly a magazine is now published but contains verses which would once have made a reputation." "Ecod!" exclaimed Sir Walter, "we were very lucky to come before these fellows."

A year or two after this, Moore took up his abode at Sloperton Cottage in Wiltshire, about two miles from Devizes. It was here that he wrote the biographies of Lord Edward Fitzgerald, Lord Byron, and Richard Brinley Sheridan. In 1824, five years before the passing of the act for Catholic relief, Moore published "The Memoirs of Captain Rock, written by Himself," a bitter commentary upon English rule in Ireland. The next considerable work of Moore's—for his light Parthian warfare in the politics of the hour continued as usual, and with about the same success as in his younger days—was "The Travels of an Irish Gentleman in Search of a Religion," an earnest defense of the Roman Catholic faith. His last work, and the most successful, so far as a great sale constitutes success, was the prose romance of "The Epicurean," published in 1827.

In the latter years of life Moore labored under a softening of the brain which removed him from the arena of literature and society. He died early in 1852.

MORAVIA. The population of this province of the Austrian empire, is 1,800,000. It was anciently named Quadia, and was part of the territory of the Quadi and Marcomanni, who were for several centuries the terror of the Roman frontier. Notwithstanding the many checks they received from the Romans and their barbarian neighbors, these tribes maintained their independence till they were overpowered by Attila in the fifth century. The Slavonians next founded a republic here, and maintained a precarious independence, till Swiatopluk united the whole of the Slavonic republics, and founded the kingdom of Moravia, which comprehended Bohemia, Lusatia, Brandenburg, Pomerania, Silesia, Dalmatia, &c.

On the death of this prince, in 894, his possessions were divided among his three sons, but dissensions arising among them, the Boii, or ancestors of the Bohemians,

conquered part of them, and threatened the rest. The Magyars, or invaders of Hungary, completely defeated the Moravians in 907, and thus crushed their independence. This fertile country, after being almost reduced to a desert, was seized on by the Dukes of Bohemia, who kept it till 1182, when it again became a separate government, and was erected into a marquiseate. Moravia next fell into the hands of the Hungarians, but their internal troubles soon obliged them to relinquish the valuable acquisition.

Moravia for a time resumed its independence, but after various changes, became again subject to the kings of Bohemia; in 1527 it was added to the possessions of the house of Austria, and has since been subject to the same sovereign.

MORE, HANNAH, was born at Stapleton, in Gloucestershire, in 1745. She was one of the five daughters of a village schoolmaster, whose means were not sufficient to give his children many of the advantages of education; but this deficiency was supplied by their own talents and perseverance. The literary abilities of Hannah early attracted notice, and a subscription was formed for establishing her and her sisters in a school of their own.

Her first literary production, "The Search after Happiness," a pastoral drama, was written when she was only eighteen years of age. By the encouragement of her warm friend, Mr. Garrick, she tried her strength in tragic composition, and wrote "The Inflexible Captive, a Tragedy," which was printed in 1764. Her tragedy of "Percy," the most popular of her dramatic compositions, was brought out in 1778, and ran seventeen nights successively; and her last tragedy, "The Fatal Falsehood," was produced in 1779. Shortly after, her opinions on public theatres underwent a change, and she "did not consider the stage, in its present state, as becoming the appearance or countenance of a Christian." Early in life she attracted general notice by a brilliant display of literary talent, and was honored by the intimate acquaintance of Johnson and Burke, of Reynolds and Garrick, and of many other highly eminent individuals, who equally appreciated her amiable qualities and her superior intellect. But, under a deep conviction that to

live to the glory of God, and to the good of our fellow-creatures, is the great object of human existence, and the only one which can bring peace at the last, she left, in the prime of her days, the bright circles of fashion and literature, and, retiring into the neighborhood of Bristol, devoted herself to a life of active Christian benevolence, and to the composition of various works, having for their object the religious improvement of mankind. Her practical conduct beautifully exemplified the moral energy of her Christian principles.

Her first prose publication was "Thoughts on the Manners of the Great," printed in 1788; followed in 1791 by her "Estimate of the Religion of the Fashionable World." In 1795 she commenced at Bath, in monthly numbers, "The Cheap Repository," a series of admirable tales for the common people, one of which is the well known "Shepherd of Salisbury Plain." The success of this seasonable publication was extraordinary, and within a year the sale reached the number of a million copies. Her "Strictures on the Modern System of Female Education" appeared in 1799; "Hints towards Forming the Character of a Young Princess," in 1805; "Cœlebs in search of a Wife," in 1809 (which passed through at least ten editions in a year); "Practical Piety," in 1811; "Christian Morals," in 1812; "Essay on the Character and Writings of St. Paul," in 1815, and "Moral Sketches of the Prevailing Opinions and Manners, Foreign and Domestic, with Reflections on Prayer." The collection of her works comprises eleven volumes octavo.

Near the beginning of the present century, Mrs. More left Bath and retired to Barley Wood, a cottage delightfully situated in the village of Wrington, the native place of John Locke. In 1819 she lost her last surviving sister Martha, and some years after, being confined to her room, she quitted Barley Wood for Clifton, where, and at Bristol, she had some valuable friends, though not a single relation of whom she had any knowledge in the world. She is said to have realized upward of £30,000 by her writings; and her charitable bequests exceeded £10,000. She died at Windsor Terrace, Clifton, Sept. 7th, 1833, aged eighty-eight.

MORE, Sir THOMAS, chancellor of England, was the son of Sir John More, one of the judges of the king's bench, and was born in London, in 1480. He was educated in the family of Cardinal Morton, Archbishop of Canterbury; and at the age of twenty-one, he obtained a seat in parliament, where he opposed a subsidy demanded by Henry VII. with such spirit as to incur the resentment of the king, who avenged himself on the judge his father, by causing him to be fined and imprisoned. When admitted to the bar, More delivered a lecture in the church of St. Lawrence, Jewry, on part of St. Augustine's works, and the reputation he thereby acquired procured him to be chosen law-reader in Furnival's Inn. In 1508 he was made judge of the sheriff's court, and justice of peace.

Henry VIII. delighted in the conversation of More, and conferred upon him the honor of knighthood; besides which he made him treasurer of the exchequer. Sir Thomas assisted the monarch in his book against Luther, and he afterward defended it in a very able treatise. In 1523 he was chosen speaker of the House of Commons; and in 1530 he succeeded Cardinal Wolsey as chancellor, being the first layman to sit upon the woolsack. He had in the mean time published, among other works, his curious history of Richard III., and his *Utopia*, which, derived from the Greek for *happy land*, has given a proverbial expression to our language.

When Henry began those attacks on the papal supremacy which, however sad his motive might be, were instrumental in procuring the reformation, Sir Thomas at once took up the position which conscience dictated to him as a supporter of the old system, and refused to acknowledge the king as the head of the church. Henry marked him out for vengeance as an opponent of his matrimonial views. He endeavored to shield himself by an early resignation of office. He was requested to take oath to maintain the lawfulness of the marriage with Anne Boleyn. Though it was known that he would be the last man to disturb the succession, he refused to take the oath. This was construed into high treason, and he was committed to the Tower. After an imprison-

ment of fifteen months, he was brought to his trial in the court of king's bench, where, notwithstanding his eloquent defense, he was found guilty of treason, and sentenced to be beheaded. His behavior, in the interval, corresponded with the uniform tenor of his life; and, July 6th, 1535, he ascended the scaffold, with his characteristic pleasantry, saying to the lieutenant of the Tower, "I pray you see me safe up; and as for my coming down, you may let me shift for myself." In the same spirit, when he laid his head on the block, he told the executioner to wait till he had removed his beard, "For that," said he, "hath committed no treason." Thus fell this illustrious Englishman, whose learning and virtue entitled him to a better fate.

This unworldly and extraordinary man was at all times a devout Catholic, inasmuch that at one time he was with difficulty restrained from becoming a monk. The Duke of Norfolk, coming one day to dine with him, found him in Chelsea church, singing in the choir with his surplice on. "What! what!" exclaimed the abject noble,—"what, what, my lord chancellor a parish clerk! You dishonor the king and his office." How exquisite his reply! "Nay, you may not think your master and mine will be offended with me for serving God his master, or thereby count his office dishonored." It must have been a rare sight to see the chancellor of England sitting with the choir; and yet there was a fair share of pomp in the manner of his servitor bowing at his lady's pew, when mass was ended, and saying, "My lord is gone *before*." But the day after he resigned the great seal (of which Dame Alice knew nothing), Sir Thomas presented himself at the pew-door, and, after the fashion of his servitor, quaintly said, "Madam, my lord is *gone*." The vain woman could not comprehend his meaning; and when he fully explained it, during their short walk home, "she was greatly pained thereby, lamenting it with exceeding bitterness of spirit."

MOREAU, JEAN VICTOR, one of the greatest generals of the French republic, was born at Morlaix in 1763. After signalizing himself in many celebrated victories, and in many masterly and successful military operations on the frontiers of Italy and Germany in the

campaigns of 1796 and 1799, he invaded Germany in 1800. Here, in co-operation with Bonaparte, he resumed an offensive campaign. He took possession of Munich, and laid the Bavarian territories and the duchy of Wurtemberg under heavy contributions. The Emperor of Austria judged it expedient to sue for an armistice, which Moreau granted on the 14th of July. The armistice expired in the November following; and Moreau, on the 3d of December, gained the decisive victory of Hohenlinden.

By a turn of circumstances Moreau is found in 1813 in alliance with Bernadotte, his early companion in arms, who commanded the army of the north in Germany against the soldiers of France. On the 27th of August, Napoleon came out of Dresden with 130,000 men to attack the allies, having detached a force, under Vandamme, to seize the passes in their rear. In the assault on the preceding day, Napoleon observed Moreau conversing with the Emperor Alexander and some other officers. Turning to a cannoneer, and pointing out the object of his displeasure, he said, "Send a dozen balls upon that man!" The officers obeyed. A ball struck Moreau, shattering both his legs and tearing open the belly of his horse. He bore the amputation of both limbs with great firmness, and was carried in a litter, formed by the lances of the Cossacks, to Toplitz, where he expired.

MORGAN, DANIEL, a Revolutionary officer, was born in New Jersey, but removed to Virginia in 1755. He rose to the rank of brigadier-general. His riflemen rendered themselves formidable to the British throughout the struggle. Morgan died in 1802.

MORGAN, JOHN, a learned physician, born at Philadelphia, in 1735. In prosecuting his professional studies, he visited many of the most eminent universities of Europe, and while there, though very young, was so distinguished as to be elected a fellow of the Royal Society. He was active in establishing the American Philosophical Society in 1769, was director-general of hospitals in the army of the United States, and died Oct. 15th, 1789.

MORMONS. [See SMITH, JOSEPH.]

MOROCCO is the largest of the Barbary states. Its political and social condition is rude and degraded, and in the matter of

emperors it has been cursed by very many blood-thirsty tyrants. The most important manufacture is that of the leather which bears the name of the country. This the Moors brought from Spain. Woolens are also largely made, as they form the dress of the people. The population of Morocco is 8,500,000, made up of Berbers, Shelluhs, Arabs, and negroes, and the area is 274,000 square miles. Morocco, the capital, on an extensive and fruitful plain, surrounded by beautiful gardens, and diversified with the towers of many mosques, has 100,000 inhabitants. Fez, in the more northerly province of the same name, long ranked as the splendid and enlightened metropolis of Western Africa. It was founded in 793 by Prince Edris, and rose to such magnitude that it contained many hundred mosques, of which fifty were magnificent and adorned with marble pillars. Its schools and its baths were also very celebrated. At present its ancient splendor is mingled with modern decay; though it is the most industrious and commercial town in the empire; population, 50,000. The seaports of Morocco have lost the business that piracy gave them. Sallee, once the home of the merciless rover, is now quiet. Mogadore is the chief seat of European commerce. Tangiers, once a British colony, has some trade in provisions with Gibraltar.

Morocco, formerly called Mauritania, was possessed by the Romans B.C. 25, and reduced by them to a province in the year 50. It afterward yielded to the Saracens; and, in the eleventh century, a chief of Lamituna assumed the character of a reformer of the Mohammedan religion, and assembled all the neighboring tribes under his standard. His followers, called Almoravides, conquered Morocco, and even Barbary and Spain, thus establishing a vast empire entitled that of Mohgreb, or the West. The second monarch of this race founded the city of Morocco. About 1116, Abdallah, the leader of a sect of Mahometans, founded the dynasty of Almahides, which ended in the last sovereign's total defeat in Spain, 1312. At this period Fez and Tremecen, then provinces of the empire, shook off their dependence. Morocco was afterward seized by the King of Fez; but about 1550, an Arabian chief, who claimed to be a de-

scendant of Mahomet, subdued and united again the three kingdoms, and formed what is at present the empire of Morocco.

MORRIS, GOUVERNEUR, was born at Morrisania in New York, Jan. 31st, 1752. He graduated at the college in the city of New York in his sixteenth year, and immediately commenced the study of law. At the age of seventeen he commenced his career as a political writer. Mr. Morris was chosen a member of the first provincial congress. He was twice elected a member of Congress by the legislature of New York. In 1780 he established himself in Philadelphia in the practice of the law. In this year, he was thrown from his carriage, and his leg was so severely injured that it was necessary to perform amputation, an operation which he bore with great fortitude. In 1781 he was appointed assistant financier to Robert Morris, and performed the duties of his office with ability for three years. He was a member of the convention which met in 1787 for the purpose of framing a constitution for the United States. He was minister at the French court from 1792 to 1796, and returned to America in 1798. Here he served some years in the senate of the United States. He married, in 1809, a daughter of Thomas Randolph of Virginia, and died Nov. 6th, 1816, aged sixty-five.

His acute powers of mind, a thorough consciousness of his own strength, and his quick sense of the ridiculous, joined to a lofty independence of thought, often betrayed him into a forwardness of manner, a license of expression, and an indulgence of his humor, little suited to soothe the pride, or flatter the vanity, or foster the self-love of those about him. He might dazzle by his genius, surprise by his novel flights of fancy, amuse by his wit, and confound by his arguments, and thus extort the tribute of admiration, but fail in gaining the willing applause of love. No man was better acquainted with the forms and etiquette of society; none had moved more widely in the circles of fashion and rank, or examined with a keener scrutiny the deep fountains of the human passions, or knew better how to touch the springs of men's motives; yet this rare intuition, this more rare experience, and this great knowledge did little toward modifying the tendencies of his nature, or diverting the first bent of his mind. He was sometimes

overbearing in conversation. At any rate, when he spoke he expected to be heard. There is an anecdote illustrative of this point. At a breakfast-table, he was in close conversation with a gentleman, to whose harangue he had listened patiently, till it was his turn to reply. He began accordingly, but the gentleman was inattentive, and a bad listener. "Sir," said Mr. Morris, "if you will not listen to my argument, I will address myself to the teapot," and went on with much animation of tone and gesture, till he had finished his replication. But this defect, after all, was only a spot on the surface. Justice, truth, charity, honor, held an uncontrolled empire in his soul, and never lost their influence or authority.—*Sparks*.

MORRIS, LEWIS, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was a brother of Gouverneur, and born at Morrisania, Westchester county, N. Y., in 1726. After receiving a liberal education at Yale College, he adopted the pursuit of his father, agriculture, at Morrisania. He was elected to Congress in 1775, and retained his seat two years, when he was succeeded by his brother Gouverneur. He died Jan. 22d, 1798.

There were two other brothers of this family: STAATS, an officer of the British army, and a member of parliament; and RICHARD, judge of the vice-admiralty court at New York, and subsequently chief-justice and governor.

MORRIS, ROBERT, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Lancashire, England, January, 1733 or 1734, came to America while yet a boy of thirteen, and entered the counting-house of Charles Willing, an eminent merchant of Philadelphia; on whose death he founded a copartnership with the son, Thomas Willing, and carried on a large commerce for thirty-nine years. He was a member of the continental congress from 1776 to 1778. During the critical struggle which ensued, Robert Morris was the chief financial supporter of the cause. In 1781 he was made superintendent of finance, and by his extensive credit and commercial skill rendered immense benefit to his adopted country. For the public credit he did not hesitate to sacrifice his private resources. He sustained the credit of the United States, and established the first bank in Philadelphia, the

Bank of North America, 1781, which lent for the public service of the government, within the first six months after its organization, \$480,000. Without the financial talents and services of this distinguished man, all the physical force of the country might have proved unavailing to establish the independence of the United States. When the paper of the Congress of United America was worth nothing, the paper of Robert Morris supplied the deficiency; his personal credit was decidedly better than the credit of the United States government. He was one of the convention which framed the constitution of the United States, and represented Pennsylvania in the senate from 1789 to 1795. His most intimate friends were Washington, Hamilton, and Gouverneur Morris. When offered the appointment of first secretary of the treasury by Washington, he declined, but proposed his friend Alexander Hamilton. His immense fortune had been reduced by his patriotic generosity, and unfortunate land speculations imbittered his old age, which ought to have been surrounded with all the ease and happiness that earthly gratitude could bestow. To the shame of the republic, the old man was confined in prison for debt! He died May 8th, 1806.

MORRISON, ROBERT, LL.D., a Scot by birth, entered in 1807 upon the Chinese mission, and died Aug. 1st, 1834, aged fifty-two. He translated portions of the Scriptures into Chinese, and was the author of a Chinese grammar and dictionary.

MORTIER, EDMUND ADOLPH CASEMIR JOSEPH, born in 1768, joined the army of the republic, and served under Kleber, Marceau, Pichegru, and Moreau. In 1804 Napoleon made him marshal of France, and afterward Duke of Treviso. In conjunction with Marmont, Mortier defended Paris against the allies in 1814. He was riding by the side of Louis Philippe at a review, July 28th, 1835, when Fieschi's infernal machine exploded, killing him among others.

MORTON. The Earl of Morton was a chief actor in the transactions of the reign of Mary, and in the minority of James VI. of Scotland. He joined in the murder of Rizzio, and, after the death of Darnley, assisted to expel Mary from the throne. In 1572 he was

elected regent, and in 1581 he was beheaded at Edinburgh.

MORTON, JOHN, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born of Swedish parentage at Ridley, Penn., in 1724. Morton was a member of the colonial congress that convened at New York in 1765, in consequence of the passage of the stamp act. He filled various civil offices in Pennsylvania; was a member of Congress from 1774 to 1777; gave the casting vote in the Pennsylvania delegation for the Declaration of Independence; was one of the committee that reported the articles of confederation, and died soon after that, in April, 1777.

MOSCOW, an extensive city of Russia in Europe, founded in the middle of the twelfth century. Population, 400,000. In 1382 it was besieged by Tamerlane, and it soon fell into the hands of the Tartars, who again attacked it in 1571. They burnt the city; but it was afterward rebuilt, and was for a century and a half the capital of the empire, and the residence of the court till 1760.

In September, 1812, the memorable conflagration took place, by which three-fourths of the city was consumed. The general plan of the Russians in the war with the French was to abandon and destroy; and in August and September, when the French continued to advance, and it was thought impossible to check their progress, Count Rostopchin forewarned the inhabitants of the sacrifices they would be called on to make. The churches and the treasury were stripped of their ornaments; the persons belonging to the public establishments were removed to Kasan; and barks, laden with corn, were sunk in the Moskwa, to prevent their falling into the hands of the enemy. The decisive battle of Borodino was fought on the 8th of September, about seventy miles from Moscow, and the hospitals were soon filled with wounded. On the news of the retreat of the Russian army, a general movement took place in Moscow.

On the 13th of September the enemy drew near, and the mass of the population of Moscow fled into the surrounding country. On the 14th the French entered the city, and that night a fire broke out, which was soon got under. On the 15th fires burst forth from the shops; and on the following night a gen-

eral conflagration took place. Explosions in different places, and fagots thrown from towers, showed that means were employed to spread destruction in every quarter. During the next day smoke rolled in thick clouds over the town, and at night a vast globe of flame illuminated the atmosphere several leagues round. The conflagration was rapidly spread by a violent wind, the buildings fell in with a tremendous crash, and the immense stones, calcined and blackened, only remained to denote their site. The French sentinels were, however, unable to detect the incendiaries: several stragglers were arrested, tried, and shot; but all the men taken in attempting to spread the flames, declared they had acted under the direction of Rostopchin and the director of police. The French officers, on finding it impracticable to extinguish the flames, authorized a systematic pillage. The plunder was immense; but the greater part was abandoned in the disastrous retreat. The fire raged till the 19th. Bonaparte now remained at Moscow a month, in the hope of prevailing on the Russians to conclude a peace. Baffled in this attempt, he quitted the city on the 18th of October. The young guard, which formed the garrison left by Bonaparte, intrenched itself in the Kremlin; and, having undermined part of the walls and interior buildings, blew them up on the 23d of October, the day of the final evacuation. The rebuilding of the city proceeded but slowly till 1814, when the greatest exertions were made; by the beginning of 1818 the new city seemed to have risen from the ruins, and by the end of that year the whole was completed.

MOULTRIE, WILLIAM, a major-general in our Revolution, came to South Carolina from England at an early age. He served against the Indians prior to 1775, and, during the Revolution distinguished himself at Charleston, Beaufort, and Sullivan's Island, the fort on which was named after him. He was several times governor of South Carolina. He died at Charleston, Sept. 27th, 1805, aged seventy-five.

MOZART, JOHANN CHRYSOSTOMUS WOLFGANG GOTTLIEB, was born at Salzburg, Jan. 25th, 1756. He evinced the most precocious genius for music, and it was strengthened by instruction and culture. When at Rome in 1770, during passion week, he heard the

"Miserere" at the Sistine chapel. This piece was prohibited to be copied, or in any manner published, on pain of excommunication. Mozart went a second time to hear, having a manuscript copy that he had made from memory, concealed in his hat for the opportunity of noting corrections. It was considered a great feat to thus obtain this difficult music. The last years of Mozart's life were spent at Vienna in the service of the emperor. There he died Dec. 5th, 1792, leaving compositions that are immortal.

MURAT, JOACHIM, the son of a pastry-cook, was born at Achers in 1771. At a very early age he was a fine horseman, and fond of military exercises. It is not surprising, therefore, that he escaped from the convent where he was placed to study theology, and enlisted in a regiment of dragoons. His merit raised him from the ranks, and he fought brilliantly under Napoleon throughout his career. Murat married Caroline, Napoleon's youngest sister, and was created marshal of the empire and Grand Duke of Berg and Cleves. On the elevation of Joseph to the Spanish throne, in 1809, Bonaparte transferred the crown of Naples to his brother-in-law. In December, 1812, Murat was appointed to the chief command of the French army at Wilna, after their memorable but ill-fated retreat from Moscow. In 1814 Murat basely joined the alliance against France by opening the Neapolitan ports to the English, and engaging to assist Austria with an army of 30,000 men.

When Napoleon returned from Elba, Murat once more took up his cause, and, by an enterprise against the Austrians in Italy, lost the crown of Naples. When the expedition from Elba reached France, he had assembled his cabinet, and declared his resolution to support the allies; but on learning that Bonaparte had entered Lyons, he demanded leave of the pope to march a force through his territories. Pius VII. refused; on which two Neapolitan divisions penetrated to Rome, and his holiness, hastily retiring, placed himself under the protection of the English at Genoa. Murat himself advanced to Ancona, and his army marched in four columns on the routes of Bologna, Modena, Reggio, and Ferrara, while a fifth division drove the Austrian garrisons from Cesena and Rimini.

MUR

Harassed on all sides by the British and Austrian forces, and having in vain solicited an armistice, he attacked Bianchi, near Tolentino, in which contest his army was totally ruined. After a disastrous retreat of ten days, he found, on approaching Naples, that the inhabitants had declared for the King of Sicily wherever the Austrians appeared; that Colonel Church was raising against him an army of his late subjects; and that everything, in short, was going against him. Leaving his followers, who were now reduced to 4,000 men, he hastened to Naples, and arrived at the palace exhausted with fatigue. He escaped in disguise with a few adherents to the isle of Ischia, and embarking thence for France, landed on the 25th of May at Cannes.

Murat, after the battle of Waterloo, made his retreat in an open boat to Corsica. In September, proposals were made to Joachim, that he should assume the name of a private person; that he should choose his abode either in Bohemia, Moravia, or Upper Austria; and that he should engage not to quit those states without the consent of the emperor. He rejected this overture, and undertook, in imitation of Bonaparte, an expedition for the recovery of his kingdom. When he landed at Pizzo on the 8th of October, he could only muster about thirty officers. Thus disappointed he proceeded to Monteleone. He was overtaken half-way by a very strong party, and after fighting desperately, broke through his pursuers, and hastened to the beach, where he was seized and conveyed before General Nanziente, the commandant of Calabria. On the 15th, pursuant to orders from Naples, he was tried by court-martial, and shot in half an hour.

MURILLO, BARTHOLOME ESTEBAN, was born at Seville, Jan. 1st, 1618. After some education, he was placed with Juan del Castillo, a kinsman, to learn painting, for which he had shown a decided ability. Velasquez, then the greatest painter of Spain, who was Murillo's fellow-townsmen, very kindly aided him in his studies at Madrid. In 1645 Murillo returned to Seville, and there his life was spent in the pursuit of his art. He married, in 1648, a wealthy lady of Pilas, and his house became the resort of people of taste and fashion. The academy of Seville was established by him. In his latter years he

changed both his style and his subjects. His earlier pictures, which are painted in a forcible manner, are chiefly illustrative of humble life: his latter works, with equal truth, are in a more elevated and chaste style, and are almost exclusively scriptural or religious in their subjects. He occasionally painted landscapes. His favorite masters were Spagnoletto, Vandyck, and Velasquez. The last work of Murillo was the large altar-piece of St. Catharine, painted at Cadiz for the church of the Capuchins; a picture never completed, for a fall from the scaffolding while engaged upon it, forced his return to Seville, where he died not long afterward, April 3d, 1682.

MURRAY, ALEXANDER, was born at Chesertown, Maryland, in 1755. At the age of eighteen he commanded a merchant-vessel. At twenty-one he was appointed a lieutenant in the navy, but fought on shore until he could obtain a vessel. He commanded several letters-of-marque during the Revolutionary struggle, and served some time under Barry. When in command of the *Constellation*, he beat off some Tripolitan gunboats with great spirit and success. His last appointment was to the post of commandant of the navy-yard at Philadelphia. He died Oct. 6th, 1821.

MURRAY, JAMES STUART, Earl of, was the natural son of James V., King of Scotland, and the unnatural brother of Queen Mary. He was a powerful supporter of the reformation. After the return of Mary from France, he administered her affairs until her marriage with Darnley, which he opposed by force of arms, and was obliged to flee into England. After the murder of Rizzio, he was again restored to favor. He went abroad to France on the murder of Darnley in 1556, and returned on being elected regent by his party. This election was confirmed by parliament, and he soon established his authority. Mary, escaping from Lochleven Castle, collected her friends, who were defeated at Langside, near Glasgow, and she was compelled to flee into England in 1568. Murray was supported by the alliance of Queen Elizabeth. In 1569 he was murdered by Hamilton, whose wife he had seduced.

MURRAY, LINDLEY, a noted grammarian, was born in Pennsylvania in 1745, and died in England in 1826.

MUR

MURRAY, WILLIAM VANS, was born in Maryland 1761, died 1803, aged forty-two. He was a distinguished and eloquent member of Congress; minister to the Batavian republic; and with Chief-Justice Ellsworth and Mr. Davie as envoys extraordinary, he assisted in negotiating the treaty of Paris, in 1800.

MUSCAT, a state on the east coast of Arabia. During the present century the Imam of Muscat has so extended his territories, naval power, and commercial importance, as to rank among the greatest of the independent countries of Asia. The town of Muscat has about 60,000 inhabitants.

MUSIC. According to the Mosaic records, Jubal, the son of Lamech, played on musical instruments even before the deluge. At a later period, we find mention made of the harp, the trumpet, and the drum. The oldest song is that which Miriam sang after the passage of the Red Sea. Music reached its highest perfection among the Hebrews, at the time of David and Solomon.

The Greeks are said to have received the art of music from Lydia and Arcadia. But it was not till the sixth century that much of the science of music was understood. Labus, a Greek, who lived about 546 B.C., wrote something on the theory of music. In the time of Pericles, Damon is said to have been a distinguished teacher of music.

In the time of Plato and Aristotle, many improvements in music were made; these philosophers considering music useful as a means of education. At the time of Alexander, Aristoxenus distinguished himself as a writer on music. He composed many treatises, and made many great changes and improvements. He introduced the chromatic scale. We have on the whole but little light on the subject of the music of the ancients, as the existing writings are very obscure and unintelligible.

The Romans seem to have received their sacred music from the Etruscans, and their warlike music from the Greeks. Stringed instruments were introduced into Rome, 186 B.C. Under Nero, music was cultivated as a luxury. After his death, five hundred singers and musicians were dismissed.

In the middle ages, the progress of music

was promoted by its being consecrated to the service of religion, and education was not thought complete without some knowledge of music. Guido, of Arezzo, made great improvements in the manner of writing the notes in music, and in the fifteenth century still farther improvement was made by Johannes de Muris.

At the same period, music was treated scientifically in the Netherlands, France, and Spain. The invention of the opera in the sixteenth century, has chiefly contributed to the splendor and variety of modern vocal music, and in the eighteenth century there were immense improvements made in musical instruments.

The merit of the advancement of vocal music is claimed by the Italians; that in instrumental music by the Germans and French. Musical notes as now used were invented in 1338.

MUTIUS SCAEVOLA (the left-handed). When Porsenna, King of Etruria, had besieged Rome to reinstate Tarquin in all his rights and privileges, Caius Mutius Cordus determined to deliver his country from so dangerous an enemy. He disguised himself in the habit of a Tuscan, and as he could speak the language fluently, he gained an easy introduction into the camp, and soon into the royal tent. Porsenna sat alone with his secretary when Mutius entered. The Roman rushed upon the secretary and stabbed him to the heart, mistaking him for his royal master. This occasioned a noise, and Mutius, unable to escape, was seized and brought before the king. He gave no answer to the inquiries of the courtiers, and only told them that he was a Roman; to give them a proof of his fortitude he laid his right hand on an altar of burning coals, and sternly looking at the king, and without uttering a groan, he boldly told him, that three hundred young Romans like himself had conspired against his life, and entered the camp in disguise, determined either to destroy him or perish in the attempt. This extraordinary confession astonished Porsenna; he made peace with the Romans and retired from their city. Mutius obtained the surname of *Scævola*, because he had lost the use of his right hand by burning it in the presence of the Etrurian king.

N.

NAMUR. [See BELGIUM.]

NANTES, a seaport of France, capital of the department of the Lower Loire, pleasantly situated on the Loire thirty miles from the Atlantic; population, 91,000. Its manufactures are extensive, and its public institutions important. In history it is celebrated for the act called the Edict of Nantes, granted by Henry IV., by which Protestants enjoyed toleration in France, April 30th, 1598. It was revoked by Louis XIV., Oct. 24th, 1685; by which bad policy thousands of industrious Huguenots were obliged to seek refuge in England, Holland, and different parts of Germany, where they established various manufactures, much to the injury of France.

NAPIER, Sir CHARLES JAMES, a distinguished lieutenant-general in the British army, born in 1782, fought desperately under Moore and Wellington in the Spanish peninsula, but won his laurels as an administrator and conqueror in Afghanistan. He died Aug. 29th, 1855.

NAPIER, JOHN, Baron of Merchiston, the inventor of logarithms, born in Scotland, 1550, died in 1617.

NAPLES, THE KINGDOM OF, is the name commonly given to the continental part of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies. [See SICILY.] It comprises the southern half of Italy. A portion we have already described under ABRUZZO. Although the climate is singularly genial, and the soil corresponds in fertility, the ignorance and laziness of the peasantry, and the miserable rule under which they live, turn these blessings into a curse. The kingdom was brutally misgoverned by its Bourbon rulers, but was annexed to the kingdom of Italy in 1860, Francis II. absconding to Rome, Nov. 7th of that year. The population of the whole kingdom is 8,705,000.

The city of Naples, the capital and royal residence of the Two Sicilies, containing 450,000 inhabitants, is charmingly situated on the brink of the most beautiful bay in the world, which is thus eloquently described by a traveler.

It is evening, and scarcely a breeze ruffles the bosom of the beautiful bay, which resembles a mirror, reflecting on its glassy surface the bright sky and the thousand glittering stars with which it is studded. Naples, with its white colonnades, seen amidst the dark foliage of its terraced gardens, rises like an amphitheatre; lights stream from the windows, and fall over the sea beneath like columns of gold. The castle of St. Elmo crowning the centre; Vesuvius, like a sleeping giant in grim repose, whose awaking all dread, is to the left; and to the right are the vine-crowned heights of beautiful Varmero, with their palaces and villas peeping forth from the groves that surround them; while rising above it, the convent of Camaldoli lifts its head to the skies. Resina, Portici, Castellamare, and the lovely shores of Sorrento, reach out from Vesuvius, as if they tried to embrace the isle of Capri, which forms the central object; and Pausilippo and Misenum, which in the distance seemed joined to Procida and Ischia, advance to meet the beautiful island on the right. The air as it leaves the shore is laden with fragrance from the orange-trees and jessamine, so abundant round Naples; and the soft music of the guitar, or lively sound of the tambourine, marking the brisk movements of the *tarentella*, steals on the ear.

The climate of Naples is delightful, and such of the *lazzaroni* as are unable to procure shelter experience no painful results from sleeping in the open air. The nobles are opulent and luxurious, and a love of pleasure pervades alike all classes. The necessaries of life are easily obtained, and the *lazzaroni* live from day to day on their casual earnings and beggings. A shirt and pair of loose trousers are costume enough for them.

Naples, or Neapolis (that is, 'new city'), was colonized at some unknown time by Greeks from Cumæ. After the fall of the Roman empire Naples was subject to the Goths, and afterward to the Lombards. In the ninth century it became tributary to the Duke of Beneventum. During the govern-

ment of Pandulph II., as Prince of Benevento, A.D. 1003, the Normans first arrived in Italy, and established themselves in this country. Landulph V., the son of Pandulph, was expelled from the government by Richard I., the Norman Count of Aversa, who caused himself to be proclaimed Prince of Benevento. Thus the dominion of the Lombards in this principality terminated, A.D. 1059. Richard was succeeded in the government of Benevento by Jordanus, Richard II., Robert, Richard III., Jordanus II., Robert II., and Roger, who assumed the title of king, and obtained the investiture of the dukedom of Naples. Some years after, Roger, having taken Pope Innocent prisoner, obliged his holiness to confirm to him the title of king.

To him succeeded William in 1154; William II. in 1166; Tancred, Count of Lecce, in 1190; Frederick in 1208, who enlarged and embellished the city of Naples, which he made the chief place of his residence; and Conrad in 1250. Four years after, Conrad died, and was succeeded by Conradin, whose army was attacked and dispersed by Manfred. In 1253 Manfred assumed the crown of Sicily; and in 1266 he was defeated and slain by the army of Charles of Anjou, on whom Pope Urban had conferred the title of king. Soon after, Conradin laid claim to Sicily, and marched with an army into Italy, but was entirely defeated and taken prisoner by Charles, who caused him and the Duke of Austria to be publicly beheaded upon the scaffold in the market-place of Naples, A.D. 1269.

Charles, by his arbitrary and oppressive government, so entirely lost the affections of the Sicilians, that they offered their allegiance to Peter, King of Arragon, who was soon after crowned at Palermo, and from this period the history of Naples is an unvaried and uninteresting detail of scenes of war and invasion, during nearly two hundred years.

At length, in 1442, after a long separation, Alphonso of Arragon united both Sicily and Naples under his dominion. Upon the death of Ferdinand, the Emperor Charles V. succeeded to Naples, as well as to the rest of the Spanish monarchy. During his reign, and that of his successors, Philip II., Philip III., and Philip IV., this country was governed by the viceroys of Spain, and suffered greatly

from their oppression. On the death of Philip IV., A.D. 1664, Charles II. succeeded to the crown of Spain, and adopted Philip of Anjou, afterward Philip V., as the heir of all his dominions.

In 1700 Philip succeeded to the crown of Naples and Sicily; but his title was opposed by the house of Austria, and a conspiracy procured the government of Naples for Charles II., son of the Emperor Leopold. However, by the conditions of the general peace, Naples again owned the sway of Philip in 1719; but Sicily was given to the Duke of Savoy. Some years after, the Emperor Charles VI. again seized upon Naples, and by cession obtained also Sicily. He continued to reign over them for several years, till Don Carlos of Spain, being vested with the rights of his father, who was yet alive, conquered these two kingdoms in 1734, and fixed the seat of his government among his subjects. Don Carlos changed the face of his kingdoms, which, on his taking possession of the crown of Spain, he left in a flourishing condition to his son Ferdinand IV., in 1759.

In 1767 the Jesuits were expelled from Naples, and were all conveyed into the pope's dominions, the vicinity of whose territories rendered every scheme of opposition fruitless. During the invasion of Italy by the French, after some immaterial hostilities, a suspension of arms was agreed to between the King of Naples and the republican commander in 1796; and soon after, a peace was concluded between the two powers, Naples being required to pay a sum of eight millions, either in money or in naval stores.

In 1798 the King of Naples commenced hostilities against the French, attacked the new Roman republic, and entered Rome in triumph; but in the year following, he was obliged to conclude an armistice with the enemy on very hard conditions. Naples was reduced under the power of the French in 1799, who constituted it a republic, and established a provisionary government. However, a few months afterward the great successes of the Austro-Russian army forced the French to evacuate Naples; and, by the aid of the English, the King of the Two Sicilies, who had hoisted his flag on board the *Foudroyant*, the English admiral's ship, was enabled to return once more to his capital. But the victory of

Bonaparte at Marengo, and the conditions of the treaty of Luneville, gave the French a great ascendancy in Italy.

In 1805 Bonaparte issued a proclamation, declaring that the Neapolitan dynasty had ceased to reign, and ordered his troops to subject the whole of Italy to his laws or those of his allies. In consequence of this, a French army, under the command of Joseph Bonaparte, entered Naples, and occupied all the principal fortresses in the kingdom. The king and the royal family were obliged to seek an asylum in Sicily. Under the Prince of Hesse, Gaeta made a long and memorable defense against the French troops, and was taken only in consequence of that commander being badly wounded, and some of his officers proving treacherous. On the translation of Joseph Bonaparte to the throne of Spain, in 1808, Joachim Murat, who had married a sister of Napoleon, was nominated to the kingdom of Naples.

After an extraordinary career, in which some of the martial talent and vigor of Murat was displayed, but was ill seconded by his troops, Naples was invested by land, whilst an English naval force entered its port, and compelled a surrender of the ships and arsenal. The Neapolitan commanders, and those of Austria and England, signed a convention, of which the prominent feature was the abdication of Joachim. Naples was occupied by the allies, who were joined by an armament of English and Sicilians; and Ferdinand IV., King of the Two Sicilies, after an absence of nine years, was restored in 1815.

NAPOLI DI ROMANIA, or NAUPLIA, a port and city on the eastern coast of the Morea, on the Gulf of Nauplia, or Argolis, containing about 5,000 inhabitants. It was taken by the Greeks during their revolution, and in 1824 became for a time the seat of government.

In 1205 it was taken by the French and Venetians; and a little after, King Giannoviza seized and plundered it. The Venetians bought it of Peter Cornaro's widow in 1383, made it their chief settlement in the Morea, and defended it gallantly against Mahomet II. in 1460, obliging him to raise the siege. Sultan Solymán took it from them in 1637.

NARVA, BATTLE OF. Peter the Great, with 70,000 Russians, was badly defeated by

Charles XII. with only 20,000 Swedes, Nov. 30th, 1700. The 'madman of the north,' then only nineteen years of age, attacked the Russians in their intrenchments. He had several horses shot under him, and as he mounted a fresh one, he said, "These fellows seem disposed to give me exercise."

NASEBY, a village of Northamptonshire, England, famous for the decisive and well disputed battle fought there, June 14th, 1645, between the army of Charles I. and the parliamentary troops, with nearly equal forces on both sides. The king commanded in person, and displayed all the conduct of a prudent general and stout soldier. Fairfax and Skippon were his opponents; and Cromwell behaved with his usual prudence and gallantry. The royal infantry were entirely discomfited; and though the king cried aloud to the cavalry, "One charge more and we recover the day!" they could not be prevailed on to renew the combat, and the king was obliged to quit the field, losing all his cannon and baggage, and 5,000 prisoners. The slain on the side of the parliament, however, exceeded those of the king. Among the spoils was found the king's cabinet, with copies of his letters to the queen.

NASH, FRANCIS, a brigadier-general in the American Revolution, killed at Germantown in 1777. He was a citizen of North Carolina.

NASH, RICHARD, commonly called Beau Nash, was a native of Swansea in Wales, 1674. After a brief life at the bar and in the army, he made pleasure and fashion his business, and in 1704 was appointed master of ceremonies at Bath, then the great watering-place of England. Here he bore arbitrary sway more than fifty years. When his health failed, and his vivacity and taste fled, his fickle position gave way, and he expired in indigence and neglect in 1761.

NASSAU, a small duchy of Germany, with an area of 1,736 square miles, and a population of 432,039. The boast of Nassau is its wine,—its hock, and the wines of Rüdesheim and Johannisberg. Wiesbaden is the chief town. Otho, brother of Conrad I., in the tenth century, is considered the founder of the house of Nassau, which after the death of Henry II. divided into two branches. The dukes of Nassau are descended from the elder branch, and the house of Orange-

Nassau, the royal family of Holland, from the younger.

NAVAL BATTLES in modern history. The most important engagements at sea are described separately, as Lepanto, Aboukir, or the Nile, Trafalgar, St. Vincent, Navarino, Sinope, &c.

897. Fight between English and the Danes, when Alfred defeated 120 ships off the coast of Dorsetshire.
1389. Eighty French ships taken by the English.
1416. The Duke of Bedford took 500 French and 3 Genoese vessels.
1459. The French fleet taken by the Earl of Warwick in the Downs.
1571. Between the Christian powers and the Turks, in the Gulf of Lepanto, Oct. 7th.
1588. Between the English fleet and the Spanish Armada, July 19th.
1653. Between Blake and Van Tromp, July 29th. The Dutch lost 30 men-of-war, and Admiral Van Tromp was killed.
1664. The Duke of York took 130 of the Bordeaux fleet, Dec. 4th.
1692. The French fleet entirely defeated, and twenty-one large men-of-war destroyed by the English and Dutch, off Cape La Hogue, May 19th.
1702. The Vigo fleet taken by the Dutch and English, Oct. 12th.
1704. The French are beaten by the English, off Malaga, and entirely relinquish to them the dominion of the sea, Aug. 24th.
1779. Paul Jones captured the British frigate *Scrapis*, Sept. 23d.
1782. Admiral Rodney defeated the French going to attack Jamaica, April 12th.
1794. Lord Howe totally defeated the French fleet off Ushant, June 1st.
1797. The Spanish fleet defeated off Cape St. Vincent, by Sir J. Jervis, Feb. 14th.
- The Dutch fleet defeated by Admiral Duncan on the coast of Holland, at Camperdown, Oct. 11th.
1798. The famous battle of Aboukir, or the Nile, The French fleet of 17 ships totally defeated by Nelson, Aug. 1st.
1801. The Danish fleet of 23 sail taken by Lord Nelson off Copenhagen, April 2d.
1804. Stephen Decatur succeeded in obtaining possession of the frigate *Philadelphia* from the harbor of Tripoli. He then set fire to her; twenty of the enemy were destroyed. Lieutenant Decatur did not lose a man. The same year in August and September, Commodore Preble made several famous attacks upon the town, fortress, and naval forces of Tripoli.
1805. French and Spanish fleets totally defeated off Cape Trafalgar, and Lord Nelson was killed in the action, Oct. 21st.
1811. Rencontre between the British sloop of war *Little Belt*, and the United States frigate *President*, Commodore Rodgers, May 16th.
1812. The British sloop of war *Alert* taken by the United States frigate *Essex*, Captain Porter, Aug. 13th.
- The British frigate *Guerriere* taken by the United States frigate *Constitution*, Captain Hull, Aug. 19th.
- The British brig *Frolic*, by the United States sloop *Wasp*, Captain Jones; same day, the *Wasp* and *Frolic* were captured by the British 74 *Poictiers*, Captain Beresford, Oct. 18th.
- British frigate *Macedonian* captured by the frigate *United States*, Commodore Decatur, Oct. 25th.
- British frigate *Java* captured by the United States frigate *Constitution*, Captain Bainbridge, Dec. 29th.
1813. *Peacock*, British sloop of war, captured by the United States sloop of war *Hornet*; the *Peacock* sunk with part of her crew; Feb. 24th.
- United States frigate *Chesapeake* captured by the British frigate *Shannon*; the gallant commander of the *Chesapeake*, James Lawrence, fell; June 1st.
- United States armed vessels *Growler* and *Eagle* taken, after a smart action, by the British gun-boats, June 3d.
- United States sloop of war *Argus* taken by the British sloop of war *Pelican*, Aug. 14th.
- British brig *Boxer* taken by the United States brig *Enterprise*, Sept. 4th.
- Commodore Oliver H. Perry, in a gallant action of the United States squadron under his command, captured the British fleet on Lake Erie, Sept. 13th.
1814. The United States frigate *Essex* taken by the British frigate *Phoebe* and sloop of war *Cherub*, after a desperate and sanguinary defense, March 28th.
- United States sloop of war *Frolic* taken by a British squadron, April 21st.
- British brig *Epervier* taken by the United States brig *Peacock*, April 29th.
- British sloop of war *Reindeer* taken by the U. S. sloop of war *Wasp*, June 28th.
- McDonough's victory over the British squadron on Lake Champlain, Aug. 11th.
1815. United States frigate *President*, Decatur commander, captured by a British squadron, consisting of the *Endymion*, *Tenedos*, and *Pomona* frigates, and the *Majestic* razee; Decatur, after being captured, refused indignantly to deliver his sword to any other than the commander of the squadron; Jan. 15.
- The British ships *Cyane* and *Levant* taken by the United States frigate *Constitution*, Feb. 20.
- The United States ship *Hornet* captures the British ship *Penguin*, March 23d.
- 1831-4. (For the principal naval actions of the rebellion, see *Chronology*, end book.)

NAVARINO, or NEOCASTRO, a small town and fortress on the south-west coast of the Morea, with a large harbor. In 1715 it was in the hands of the Venetians, who fortified it against the Turks. Here, Oct. 20th, 1827, the combined Russian, French, and English fleet, commanded by Admiral Codrington, defeated the Turco-Egyptian fleet after a warm engagement. The battle of Navarino caused the independence of Greece, but almost annihilated the naval power of Turkey.

NAXOS, now NAXIA, in very ancient times *Dia* and *Strongyle*, the largest island of the Cyclades, contains 169 square miles, and 20,000 inhabitants. The Naxians were anciently governed by kings, but they afterward exchanged this form of government for a republic, and enjoyed their liberty till the age of Pisistratus, who appointed a tyrant over them. They were reduced by the Persians; but in the expeditions of Darius and Xerxes against Greece, they revolted and fought on the side of the Greeks. During the Peloponnesian war, they supported the interest of Athens. The capital was also called Naxos; and near it, B.C. 377, the Lacedæmonians were defeated by Chabrias.

NAYLER, JAMES, an enthusiastic and extravagant convert to Quakerism, born in 1616. He was sentenced by parliament to be whipped, branded, and bored in the tongue with a hot iron, and imprisoned for life, for blasphemy. He died in 1666.

NEANDER, JOHANN AUGUSTUS, the celebrated church historian, and famous Protestant theologian, was born at Göttingen, Jan. 13th, 1789, and died at Berlin, July 13th, 1850. He was of Jewish descent, but at the age of seventeen he embraced the Christian religion, to the defense of which his labors, and to the exemplification of which his life, were thenceforth devoted. In token of the sincerity and strength of his faith, he was publicly baptized, and, furthermore, assumed the name *Neander*, from two Greek words signifying "a new man." Having studied theology at Halle under Schleiermacher, and also at the universities of Göttingen and Heidelberg, he was appointed private lecturer at the latter; and shortly after was made the chief professor of theology at the royal university of Berlin, which post he held to the time of his death. Neander

was a very pious as well as learned man. His writings are held in high estimation, both in Europe and in America; the chief of them being the "Life of Christ," in refutation of Strauss, his "General History of the Christian Religion and Church," and his "History of the Apostolic Church."

NEBUCHADNEZZAR I., or NABUCHODONOSAR, King of Nineveh and Babylon. He is supposed to be the same with Nabopolassar, governor of Babylon, who founded the kingdom of Nineveh. He sent Holopernes against Judea, who was slain by Judith.

NEBUCHADNEZZAR II., King of Assyria and Babylon, is supposed to have been the son of the preceding. He invaded Judea, took Jerusalem, and carried the treasures of the temple, and a number of captives, to Babylon. After this he set up a golden statue in the plain of Dura, which he commanded all his subjects to adore, on pain of being cast into a fiery furnace. Three young Jews, named Shadrach, Meshach, and Abednego, refused to submit to this idolatry, and the sentence was executed upon them; but they were preserved amidst the flames. Having lost his senses, he became an outcast from the society of men, and lived among wild beasts in the forest; but on recovering his reason, he again ascended the throne, and died, B.C. 562, after reigning forty-three years.

NECHO, King of Egypt, called in Scripture, Pharaoh Necho, succeeded his father, Psammeticus, B.C. 616. He undertook to make a canal from the Nile to the Arabian gulf, which undertaking he was forced to abandon, after it had cost the lives of 120,000 men. Herodotus says that the ships of Necho sailed from the Red Sea, around the coast of Africa, into the Mediterranean; and returned to Egypt, after a voyage of three years. This monarch invaded Assyria, and on his march was attacked by Josiah, King of Judah, who was slain in the battle. The King of Egypt was defeated in his turn by Nebuchadnezzar, and obliged to return to his own country, where he died, B.C. 600.

NECKER, a famous minister of finance in France, was a native of Geneva. He foresaw the storm of the French revolution, and in 1790 retired to his native land, where he died in 1804, at the age of seventy-two. He was the father of Madame de Stael.

NELSON, HORATIO, the greatest of England's admirals, was the fourth son of the rector of Burnham Thorpe in Norfolk, where he was born Sept. 29th, 1758. At the age of twelve years he was taken to sea by his maternal uncle, Captain Suckling, of the *Raisonable* man-of-war. In 1773, in a voyage undertaken for the discovery of a north-west passage, the young midshipman distinguished himself by his skill, courage, and promptitude. Soon after his return he was appointed to a station in the *Seahorse*, in which he sailed to the East Indies.

He passed for a lieutenant in 1777, and received his commission as second of the *Lowestoff* frigate, in which he cruised against the Americans. In 1779 he obtained the rank of post-captain, and was appointed to the command of the *Hinchinbrooke*, with which he sailed to the West Indies, and while there essentially contributed to the taking of Fort Juan in the Gulf of Mexico. We find him next commanding the *Boreas*, stationed in the West Indies, having under him the Duke of Clarence (afterward William IV.), who was captain of the *Pegasus*.

While thus engaged he married Mrs. Nesbit (the daughter of William Woodward, judge of the island of Nevis), by whom he never had any issue. On the breaking out of the war with France he was nominated to the *Agamemnon* of sixty-four guns, on board of which he sailed to the Mediterranean, and was present at the possession of Toulon. He took part on shore in the attempt to wrest Corsica from the French, and was present at the siege of Bastia, where he served at the batteries with a body of seamen; as he afterward did at Calvi, and while employed before that place he lost an eye. He was so active on that station that his name was dreaded throughout the Mediterranean.

He was with Admiral Hotham in the action with the French fleet, March 15th, 1795; and the same year he took the island of Elba. In 1796 he was appointed commodore on board *La Minerve*, in which frigate he captured *La Sabine*, a ship of forty guns. Soon after this he desecrated the Spanish fleet, and steered with the intelligence to Sir John Jervis off St. Vincent. He had scarcely communicated the news, and shifted his flag

on board the *Captain*, seventy-four guns, when the enemy hove in sight. A close action ensued, which terminated in a complete victory on the side of the British, who were inferior in numbers. On this occasion Commodore Nelson attacked the *Santissima Trinidad*, one hundred and thirty-six guns; and afterward he boarded and took the *San Nicholas*, eighty guns; whence he proceeded in the same manner to the *San Josef*, one hundred and twelve guns; both of which surrendered to him. For his share in this glorious victory, the commodore was honored with the order of the Bath; and having soon afterward hoisted his flag as rear-admiral of the blue, he was appointed to command the inner squadron at the blockade of Cadiz. He there made a bold but unsuccessful attempt to bombard the city, heading his men himself.

The next exploit in which he was engaged was an attempt to get possession of Teneriffe, which was beaten off, the British sustaining severe loss. Admiral Nelson lost his right arm by a cannon shot, and was carried off to the boat on the back of his son-in-law, Captain Nesbit. Some years before Nelson had become intimate with a person on board ship who was officially engaged in writing, which he accomplished with his left hand. Captain Nelson, attentively observing him one day while thus occupied, said, "Parnell, I can not think how you manage to write with your left hand." The result of this remark was that Nelson was taught to perform the task which had excited his wonder; little dreaming that the disastrous loss of his arm at Teneriffe would leave him no other alternative in committing his ideas to paper than to write with the left hand.

The hero now returned to England for the recovery of his health, and received the grant of a pension of £1,000 a year. He did not, however, long remain inactive: in 1798 he rejoined Earl St. Vincent in the Mediterranean, who, on receiving intelligence of the sailing of Bonaparte from Toulon, detached him with a squadron in pursuit.

After exploring the coast of Italy, the indefatigable commander steered for Alexandria, where to his great mortification not a French ship was to be seen. He then sailed to Sicily, and having taken in a fresh supply of water,

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and obtained more correct information, returned to Alexandria, which he desecrated Aug. 1st, 1798, at noon. The enemy were discovered in Aboukir Bay, lying at anchor in line of battle; and supported by strong batteries on an island, and strengthened by gun-boats. Notwithstanding this formidable appearance, the British admiral made the signal for battle; and, by a masterly and bold manœuvre, gave directions for part of his fleet to lead inside the enemy, who were thus exposed between two fires. The contest was hot and bloody. Several of the French ships were soon dismasted; and, at last the admiral's ship *L'Orient*, one hundred and twenty guns, took fire, and blew up. The firing, however, continued, but by the dawn of day only two sail of the line were discovered with their colors flying, all the rest having struck. For this victory he received a peerage, by the title of Baron Nelson of the Nile.

Soon after this he sailed for Sicily, and from thence to Naples, where he quelled a rebellion, and restored the king. It was at this time that he formed his unhappy intimacy with Lady Hamilton. Upon returning to England, he was received with enthusiastic joy. A confederacy of the northern powers having alarmed the government, a fleet was fitted out, the command of which was given to Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, assisted by Lord Nelson. On their arrival off the Cattegat, and being refused a passage, Lord Nelson offered his services for conducting the attack on the Danish force which was stationed to oppose an entrance. This being accepted, he shifted his flag to the *Elephant*, and passed the Sound with little loss. On the 2d of April the action commenced at ten o'clock, and after a sharp conflict seventeen sail of the Danes were sunk, burnt, or taken. A negotiation was then entered into between his lordship and the crown prince; in consequence of which the admiral went ashore, and an armistice was settled.

He returned to England, and was created a viscount. In August, 1801, he bombarded the enemy's flotilla of gun-boats at Boulogne, but without any material effect. A treaty suddenly taking place, his lordship retired, but hostilities recommencing he sailed for the Mediterranean, and in March, 1803, took the command of that station on board the

Victory. Notwithstanding all his vigilance, the French fleet escaped from Toulon, and was joined by the Spanish fleet off Cadiz; of which being apprised, he pursued them to the West Indies with a far inferior force, in unremitting but unsuccessful chase. The combined squadrons, struck with terror, returned without effecting anything; and, after a partial action with Sir Robert Calder off Ferrol, re-entered Cadiz. Admiral Nelson returned to England, but soon set sail to join his fleet off Cadiz.

The French under Admiral Villeneuve, and the Spaniards under Gravina, ventured out with a number of troops on board, Oct. 19th, 1805, and on the 21st, about noon, the great action began off Cape Trafalgar. Nelson's signal to his fleet just before the fight began, was the sentence, "England expects every man to do his duty." He ordered his ship the *Victory* to be carried alongside his old antagonist, the *Santissima Trinidad*, where he was exposed to a severe fire of musketry; and, not having the precaution to cover his coat, which was decorated with his star, and other badges of distinction, he became an object for the riflemen placed purposely in the tops of the *Bucentaur*, which lay on his quarter. A shot from one of these entered just below his shoulder, of which he died in about two hours. He survived long enough that victory was completely won, and his last words were, "Thank God, I have done my duty." In this action the enemy's force consisted of thirty-three ships of the line, several of extraordinary magnitude, and seven frigates; while the British only had twenty-seven, and five frigates. After the fall of Lord Nelson, the command devolved on Admiral Collingwood, by whose bravery and skill a complete victory was obtained. The remains of Lord Nelson were interred with great pomp in St. Paul's cathedral, the 9th of January following.

NELSON, THOMAS, JR., one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, was born at York, Va., Dec. 26th, 1738. He was sent to England at an early age, and completed an excellent education at the university of Cambridge. Returning to Virginia in 1761, he soon entered into political life, and in 1775 was chosen a member of Congress; a post which his delicate health compelled him

to resign in 1777. He was chosen for 1779 and 1780, and in 1781 succeeded Jefferson as governor of Virginia. He held a commission as brigadier-general in the Virginia militia, was active in the taking of Cornwallis, and his services were particularly noticed by Washington in the general orders issued after the capture of Yorktown. He died Jan. 4th, 1789.

NEPOS, CORNELIUS, a Latin historian, who flourished in the time of Julius Cæsar.

NEPTUNE, in ancient mythology, the god of the sea, the brother of Jupiter, from whom he derived his sovereignty. He was generally represented as a bearded old gentleman, with a trident in his hand, seated in a huge marine shell which was drawn over the waters by sea-horses.

NERO, LUCIUS DOMITIUS AHENOBARBUS, after his adoption called CLAUDIUS DRUSUS, the son of Caius Domitius Ahenobarbus, and Agrippina, the daughter of Germanicus, was born at Antium, A.D. 37. After the marriage of his mother with her uncle, the Emperor Claudius, he was adopted by the emperor, A.D. 50, wedded his daughter Octavia, and four years after succeeded him on the throne, Agrippina poisoning her husband to make room for him. The beginning of his reign was marked by acts of the greatest kindness and condescension, by affability, complaisance, and popularity. The object of his administration seemed to be the good of his people; and when he was desired to sign his name to a list of malefactors that were to be executed, he exclaimed, "I wish to heaven I could not write." He was a professed enemy to flattery, and when the senate had liberally commended the wisdom of government, Nero desired them to keep their praises till he deserved them. These promising virtues were soon discovered to be artificial, and Nero displayed the propensities of his nature. He delivered himself from the sway of his wretched mother, and at last ordered her to be assassinated.

This unnatural act of barbarity might astonish some of the Romans, but Nero had his devoted adherents; and when he declared that he had taken away his mother's life to save himself from ruin, the senate applauded his measures, and the people signified their approbation. Many of his courtiers shared

the unhappy fate of Agrippina, and Nero sacrificed to his fury or caprice all such as obstructed his pleasure. He sacrificed to his wantonness his wife Octavia, and the celebrated writers, Seneca, Lucan, Petronius, &c. The Christians also did not escape his barbarity.

He had heard of the burning of Troy, and as he wished to renew that dismal scene, he caused Rome to be set on fire in different places. The conflagration became soon universal, and during nine successive days the fire was unextinguished. All was desolation; nothing was heard but the lamentations of mothers whose children had perished in the flames, the groans of the dying, and the continual fall of palaces and buildings. Nero was the only one who enjoyed the general consternation. He placed himself on the top of a high tower, and he sang on his lyre the destruction of Troy, a dreadful scene which his barbarity had realized before his eyes. He attempted to avert the public odium from his head, by a feigned commiseration of the miseries of his subjects, and attributing the incendiarism to the Christians. He began to repair the streets and the public buildings at his own expense. He built himself a celebrated palace, which was profusely adorned with gold, and precious stones, and with whatever was rare and exquisite. The entrance of this edifice could admit a large colossus of the emperor one hundred and twenty feet high; the galleries were each a mile long; and the whole was covered with gold. The roofs of the dining-halls represented the firmament in motion as well as in figure, and continually turned round night and day, showering down all sorts of perfumes and sweet waters. When this grand edifice, which occupied a great part of the city, was finished, Nero said that now he could lodge like a man. His profusion was not less remarkable in all his other actions. When he went a fishing, his nets were made with gold and silk. He never appeared twice in the same garment, and when he undertook a voyage, there were thousands of servants to take care of his wardrobe.

This continuation of debauchery and extravagance at last roused the resentment of the people. Many conspiracies were formed against the emperor, but they were generally

discovered, and such as were accessory suffered the greatest punishments. The most dangerous conspiracy against Nero's life, was that of Piso, from which he was delivered by the confession of a slave. The conspiracy of Galba proved more successful; and the conspirator, when he was informed that his plot was known to Nero, declared himself emperor. The unpopularity of Nero favored his cause; he was acknowledged by all the Roman empire, and the senate condemned the tyrant that sat on the throne to be dragged naked through the streets of Rome, and whipped to death, and afterward to be thrown down from the Tarpeian rock like the meanest malefactor. This, however, was not done, Nero, by a voluntary death, having prevented the execution of the sentence. He killed himself, A.D. 68, in the thirty-second year of his age, after a reign of thirteen years and eight months.

Rome was filled with acclamations at the intelligence, and the citizens, more strongly to indicate their joy, wore such caps as were generally used by slaves who had received their freedom. Their vengeance was not only exercised against the statues of the deceased tyrant, but his friends were the objects of the public resentment, and many were crushed to pieces in such a violent manner, that one of the senators, amid the universal joy, said that he was afraid they should soon have cause to wish for Nero. Though his death seemed to be the source of universal gladness, yet many of his favorites lamented his fall, and were grieved to see that their pleasures and amusements were stopped by the death of the patron of debauchery and extravagance. Even the Parthian king sent ambassadors to Rome to condole with the Romans, and to beg that they would honor and revere the memory of Nero. His statues were also crowned with garlands of flowers, and many believed that he was not dead, but that he would soon make his appearance, and take a due vengeance upon his enemies.

NERO, CLAUDIUS, a Roman general sent into Spain to succeed the two Scipios. He suffered himself to be imposed upon by Asdrubal, and was soon after succeeded by young Scipio. He was afterward made consul, and intercepted Asdrubal, who was passing from Spain into Italy with a large re-enforcement

for his brother Annibal. An engagement was fought near the river Metaurus, in which 56,000 of the Carthaginians were left on the field of battle, and great numbers taken prisoners, 207 B.C.

NERVA COCCEIUS, a Roman emperor after the death of Domitian, A.D. 96. He rendered himself popular by his mildness, his generosity, and the active part he took in the management of affairs. He suffered no statues to be raised to his honor, and he applied to the use of the government all the gold and silver statues which flattery had erected to his predecessor. In his civil character he was the pattern of good manners, of sobriety, and temperance. He made a solemn declaration that no senator should suffer death during his reign; and this he observed with such sanctity that when two members of the senate had conspired against his life, he was satisfied to tell them that he was informed of their wicked machinations. He also conducted them to the public spectacles, and seated himself between them, and, when a sword was offered to him, according to the usual custom, he desired the conspirators to try it upon his body. Such goodness of heart, such confidence in the self-conviction of the human mind, and such reliance upon the consequence of his lenity and indulgence, conciliated the affection of all his subjects. Yet, as envy and danger are the constant companions of greatness, the praetorian guards at last mutinied, and Nerva nearly yielded to their fury. He uncovered his aged neck in the presence of the incensed soldiery, and bade them wreak their vengeance upon him, provided they spared the life of those to whom he was indebted for the empire, and whom his honor commanded him to defend. His seeming submission was unavailing, and he was at last obliged to surrender to the fury of his soldiers, some of his friends and supporters. The infirmities of his age, and his natural timidity, at last obliged him to provide himself against any future mutiny or tumult, by choosing a worthy successor. He had many friends and relations, but he did not consider the aggrandizement of his family, and he chose Trajan, a man of whose virtues and greatness of mind he was fully convinced. This voluntary choice was approved by the acclamations of the people; and the wisdom and prudence

which marked the reign of Trajan showed how discerning was the judgment and how affectionate were the intentions of Nerva for the good of Rome. He died A.D. 98, in his seventy-second year, and his successor showed his respect for his merit and his character by raising him altars and temples in Rome and in the provinces, and by ranking him in the number of the gods. Nerva was the first Roman emperor who was of foreign extraction, his father being a native of Crete.

NETHERLANDS, the kingdom of the, often called Holland, consists of the territory of the former republic of the Seven United Provinces, the duchy of Limburg, and the grand-duchy of Luxemburg, which the King of the Netherlands possesses, with the title of grand-duke, as a part of the German confederation. The area of the entire kingdom is 13,553 square miles, and it has 3,618,459 inhabitants. The Dutch have also extensive colonies in the East Indies, and some possessions in the West Indies. This country, fitly called the Lowlands, has by untiring labor been rescued from the sea, against whose inroads it is guarded by immense dikes. Large tracts once arid deserts, and others once slimy marshes, have been transformed into fertile pastures and productive fields. Canals traverse the country in every direction. The reclaimed lands are called 'polders,' and are often much below the level of the sea, or the adjacent rivers. They are first diked about, and then drained by pumps worked by windmills or steam-engines, lifting the water to the nearest river or canal. It is a strange sight to see luxuriant corn and rich grass growing, and fat cattle grazing, and fine sheep pastured, where water would naturally lie; while the large sails of the canal barges glide by high above dikes, houses, and trees.

The principal manufactures are linen, woollens, silks, leather, refined sugar, tobacco-pipes, gin (distilled in vast quantities at Schiedam and Delft), cottons, and jewelry. In the middle of the seventeenth century, Holland was the first commercial state and the greatest maritime power in the world. Of late its commerce has revived, though not to the former magnitude. Calvinism is the established religion, but there are many Catholics. Education is very generally diffused throughout the kingdom. The great univer-

sities are those of Leyden, Utrecht, and Gröningen. The government is a hereditary male monarchy. The legislative power is vested in the king, and the states-general, a body consisting of two chambers; the members of the first of which are appointed for life by the king; those of the second are chosen by the assemblies of the provinces. The kingdom is divided into the provinces of North Brabant, Guelderland, North Holland, South Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friesland, Over-yssel, Gröningen, Drenthe, and Limburg.

The Hague (*'s Graevenhage*), the capital of the kingdom, is situated near the coast, a stately town, stirred by no commerce or manufactures; population, 64,000. Amsterdam, once the commercial mistress of the world, at the commencement of the thirteenth century was nothing more than an insignificant fishing village. It was formerly called Amstelredamme, the dam or dike of the Amstel. It is situated at the Amstel's influx into the arm of the sea called the Y, forming a capacious port, two leagues from the Zuyder Zee. The city stands upon a marshy soil, in consequence of which the buildings are supported on oaken piles; whence the jest of Erasmus, who said that in his country the people lived on the tops of trees.

In 1490 Mary of Burgundy encompassed the city with a brick wall, to protect it from the incursions of the inhabitants of Utrecht, who were frequently involved in quarrels with the Hollanders. Soon after the erection of this wall, the city was burnt to the ground. In 1512 it was besieged by the people of Guelderland, who, finding themselves baffled in their attempt to take the city, fired the vessels in the harbor. The scene presented by the burning ships was awfully grand; the waters appeared like a sea of molten gold, over which a thousand volcanoes poured their volumes of fire, while the roaring of the conflagration was like the voice of a tempest. The Anabaptists, in 1512 and 1525, filled the city with commotion and bloodshed. An insurgent chief, Van Geelen, headed a conspiracy which had for its object the subversion of the magistracy of Amsterdam, and the assumption of power by the rebels. Van Geelen fixed his head-quarters in the town house, where his fanatical troops displayed their banners, and gave every evidence that they considered

their victory certain. But the burghers attacked them with great spirit and resolution, and the fanatics being surrounded, were put to death to a man.

In 1578 Amsterdam, after a siege of ten months, capitulated to the Hollanders, stipulating that the Roman Catholics should be allowed the free observance of their religious rites. The Protestants, however, did not maintain the agreement, but drove the Catholics from the city, destroying the altars and the images. From that time, persons of all sects and nations came to the city, raising it to a high rank, and rendering it famous for opulence and industry. It snatched the commerce of Antwerp; its merchants conquered kingdoms and islands in Asia; the costly spices of the East were dealt to Europe from its warehouses, and left the fragrance of wealth; the gold, the pearls, and the diamonds of the Indies floated hither; Amsterdam became the centre of the exchanges, funds, and banking transactions of the world; till at the close of the eighteenth century its unparalleled prosperity received a death-blow through the French revolution, and London bore away the palm. Amsterdam has still important manufactures and trade, but it is now surpassed by Rotterdam.

The aspect of Amsterdam has not changed in a century. It is intersected by numerous canals, which divide the city into islands, between which are built numerous bridges, of stone or wood. Of great commercial importance, these canals give the streets through which they pass a picturesque and pleasant appearance, filling the air with freshness, and mirroring the long rows of trees and houses which line their banks. Complaints, however, are made of the effluvia arising from them in calm and warm weather. Another singular feature in the scenery of Amsterdam is the inclosure of the city on the side of the haven, by means of piles, which are driven into the ground, and connected with immense horizontal beams, affording openings sufficiently ample for the ingress and egress of ships. These are closed every evening. The port is a mile and a half long, and towering masts attract the eye, and give a lively appearance to the scene. The new canal from Amsterdam to Nieuwediep, opposite the Texel, is an immense work. The canal is fifty miles and a half long,

and so broad as to admit of one frigate passing another. This has removed the necessity of unloading large vessels, which must be done before they can pass through the harbor.

The streets of Amsterdam, although narrow, are well paved, and exhibit that neatness which is peculiar to the Dutch, and which is equally conspicuous in their walks and in their smart brick or stone buildings. The population is estimated at more than 212,000 persons.

The New Church, dedicated to St. Catharine, is said to have been begun in 1408, or 1414, and to have occupied a century in its erection. The interior is adorned with sculpture, and the paintings on the glass windows are of the richest description. The superb organ has been celebrated throughout the world. The church contains a marble monument, erected to the memory of Admiral de Ruyter. The Stadthouse, now a royal palace, is a beautiful building, erected in 1648. The whole of this imposing edifice exhibits proofs of the characteristic neatness and industry of the Dutch. It is said to have a foundation of 13,695 piles. The Beurs, or Exchange, which is built of free-stone, stands upon five arches over the Amstel; the interior galleries rest upon twenty-six marble columns. The principal houses of correction are the Rasphuus and the Spinhuis. In the former offenders were, in old times, employed sawing and rasping Brazil-wood. Those who obstinately refused to work were carried into a cellar into which water was flowing, and, unless they worked briskly at the pump, they were in danger of drowning. In the spin-house women were compelled to spin wool, flax, and hemp.

Rotterdam, on the right bank of the Maas, about twenty miles from its mouth, is now the most commercial town in Holland; population 90,000. Haarlem, or Haerlem, on the river Spaaren, about four miles from the sea, contains many fine public edifices and some scientific institutions, is a thriving place, and has 24,000 inhabitants. The organ of the cathedral of St. Bavon at Haarlem, the largest church in Holland, is famous for its size. In the southern suburb of Haarlem are the flower-gardens whence, when tulips and hyacinths were the rage, all Europe was supplied.

The earliest accounts of the Netherlands are from the Romans, by whom all the south-

ern and central part (called Belgia) was kept in subjection till the decline of their empire in the fifth century. North of the Rhine dwelt the Batavi, who were also subjugated by Rome. The country was incorporated with the duchy of Burgundy at the close of the fourteenth century. Mary of Burgundy, the only daughter and heiress of Charles the Bold, the last duke, married Maximilian, and the Netherlands came under the dominion of the house of Austria. Charles V. united the seventeen provinces with Spain; but the bigotry of his son Philip II. produced the separation of the Dutch provinces, and great dissension and distress in the others. The Spanish tyranny being insupportable, the seven provinces revolted, and formed the republic called the United Provinces, by the union of Utrecht, 1579. These were Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Guelderland, Friesland, Overysse, and Groningen. The others remained subject to Spain.

The ten southern provinces remained under the Spanish crown until the middle of the seventeenth century, when arduous exertions were made by Conde and Turenne to add them to the dominions of Louis XIV. The quadruple alliance, concluded at the Hague in 1668, however, put a stop to their progress, but the wars from 1672 to 1679, and 1689 to 1697, were prosecuted chiefly for the Netherlands. At length, in 1702, Louis obtained them, but the French being defeated by the Duke of Marlborough at the battle of Ramillies, in 1706, the southern provinces were brought under the power of the allies, and assigned to Austria at the peace of Utrecht. A peace ensued, until the war of 1741 was transferred to the Netherlands, and the French under Marshal Saxe recovered them. Bergen-op-Zoom was captured by the French in September, 1747, and Maestricht in the following year, when the successes of the British navy, and the persevering aspect of the coalition, led to the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, and the southern Netherlands thus became restored to Austria. By the treachery of Austria in 1756 they were once more nearly ceded to France, but the scheme was not carried into effect. In the campaign of 1792, Austria again lost the Netherlands, and though recovered in 1793, they again passed over to France in 1794. The hope of

recovering them was the cause of the coalitions of 1799 and 1805, both baffled in their object. The disasters of the French army in Russia in 1812, at length opened the long wished for prospect. In 1813 Germany occupied all the exertions of the allies, but in 1814 the Netherlands were detached by a consequence of the revolution by which the Bourbons was restored.

Meantime the republic of Holland, or the United Provinces, attained great maritime power, contended with England, and participated in the wars against Louis XIV. Republican jealousy of the desire of the house of Orange to increase its might, often convulsed the land with intestine struggles. In 1747 the house of Orange triumphed, and the office of stadtholder, or captain-general of all the provinces, was made a hereditary dignity in it. In 1794 the republican party, cheered by the approach of the victorious armies of France, rose against the stadtholder. Pichegru aided them, and the stadtholder fled. The provinces were organized as the Batavian republic. England, at that time, played the part of Don Quixote, ready to break a lance in behalf of all princes kicked from their thrones. The commerce of Holland was sadly shattered in the war, and for a time she lost her colonies. Napoleon made his brother Louis her king. This moody scholar studied the welfare of the country till he abdicated. Holland was then incorporated with the French empire. In 1813 the Dutch, encouraged by the disasters of Napoleon, revolted, and recalled the Prince of Orange. The British cabinet accomplished the union of all the seventeen provinces after a separation of two hundred years, and their erection into an independent state, under the Prince of Orange, in 1815. The prince, therefore, assumed the title of King of the Netherlands, and Grand-Duke of Luxemburg. In 1830 the Belgians broke from his rule and became an independent state. [See BELGIUM.]

KINGS OF THE NETHERLANDS.

- 1815. William, Prince of Orange; abdicated in favor of his son, Oct. 7th, 1840; died Dec. 12th, 1843.
- 1840. William II., born Dec. 6th, 1792; died March 17th, 1849.
- 1849. William III., born Feb. 19th, 1817.

NEW BRUNSWICK, a British province of North America; population, 252,047. In the interior of the country the soil is good, and the uplands are well timbered. Grass and grain are the principal agricultural productions, and the main exports are timber and fish. The river St. John's is the principal stream. Frederickton, the capital, has 6,000 inhabitants. St. John, the principal town, has a population of 12,000. The province was set off from Nova Scotia in 1785. Several thousand British soldiers settled here, after the close of the American Revolution. In October, 1825, a tract extending above a hundred miles along the Miramichi River, was swept by a great conflagration: a violent wind drove the flames through the forest; the towns of Douglas and Newcastle were wholly consumed, many lives were lost, and a vast amount of property was destroyed.

NEWBURY, BATTLE OF, fought desperately, but uncertain in its issue, Sept. 20th, 1643, between the army of Charles I., and that of the parliament under Essex. A second, equally dubious in result, was fought here, Oct. 27th, 1644.

NEWFOUNDLAND, a large island in the North Atlantic Ocean at the mouth of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, discovered by Sebastian Cabot in 1497. The population is estimated at about 120,000. The face of the country is very rugged, and the climate is cold and dreary. The fisheries off the banks employ more than one hundred thousand men. St. John's, the capital, contains about 27,000 inhabitants.

NEW GRENADA, formerly a viceroyalty of South America, and more recently a portion of Colombia, is now a separate republic. Together with Venezuela, it was formerly called Terra Firma. It has an area of 380,000 square miles, and a population of 3,363,000 souls. The mountains are rich in the precious metals.

Santa Fé de Bogotá is the capital. The population has been variously estimated at from 30,000 to 60,000. It lies on an elevated plain to the east of the Andes, 8,000 feet above the sea, and contains, besides a superb cathedral, many fine buildings. The lands in the environs yield two harvests annually. Bogota was founded in 1538. In the vicinity is the cataract of Tequendama, formed by the

river Bogota, as it descends from its native plain to mingle with the current of the Magdalena. Its mass of waters, previously spread to a considerable breadth, are narrowly contracted, and dashed down a precipice of 650 feet into an almost fathomless abyss, bounding back in a cloud of spray which the sunshine tinges with beautiful rainbows. The plain above the fall is covered with the cereals of the temperate zone, while at its foot grow the palms and sugar-cane of the tropics. Here, too, is the bridge of Icononzo, a natural arch over a chasm 360 feet deep, at the bottom of which flows a rapid torrent, which would otherwise have been impassable. The bridge appears to have been formed by three masses of rock detached from their original bed, and thrown together by an earthquake. It is about fifty feet long, and forty broad. At one spot, a view is obtained into the abyss beneath. The continual night which reigns there, the birds of darkness whose mournful cries re-echo in the caverns, the gloomy waters at the bottom, and the thick foliage which shrouds the scene with darkness, convey no feeble idea of a realm of death.

Carthagena, long the bulwark of the Spanish possessions in this region, and equally noted for the successful attacks of Drake and the buccaneers, and for the disastrous failure of Admiral Vernon in 1741, has fallen from its former importance. It has now some 18,000 inhabitants. Tolu, in a rich vegetable district of the province of Carthagena, is noted for the balsam bearing its name.

The ancient route across the isthmus between the oceans, was from Panama to Porto Bello. These places bore a great name in the days when the treasure of Peru passed this way to Spain. But when the wealth of the mines diminished, and the bullion was borne around Cape Horn, their consequence declined. Porto Bello, so called from its fine harbor, was cursed by a pestilential climate that made it the grave of Europeans; it fell into decay, and was supplanted by Chagres. When the gold seekers began to hurry over the isthmus on their way to California, Panama revived; it became a depot for steamers; a railway connects it with the Atlantic shore at Aspinwall on Navy Bay; and it now has a population of over 10,000.



NEW HAMPSHIRE is one of the New England states, having an area of 8,030 square miles, and a population in 1860 of 326,073. It has a sea-coast of only eighteen miles, behind which there is a narrow, level tract of twenty-five or thirty miles in width; beyond, the hills increase in height until they swell into the lofty grandeur of the White Mountains, whose snow-white summits have been seen in a clear day more than fifty miles out at sea, skirting the horizon like a silvery cloud. The highest is Mt. Washington, 6,428 feet above the level of the ocean. New Hampshire is well watered; the Connecticut washes its western border; and fine mill streams abound. There are quite a number of lakes, of which the picturesque and pellucid Winnepiscogee ('Smile of the Great Spirit'), studded with more than three hundred isles, is the greatest. The bulk of the population of New Hampshire reside in the southern part, much of the north being unimproved, and a large portion of it too sterile and rugged for cultivation. The occupation of the people is chiefly agricultural, and though their hilly farms can not vie with the virgin soil of the West, intelligent industry wrests from them subsistence and comfort. There are many valuable pastures, and the grazing interest is very considerable. The source of wealth is found in the inexhaustible quarries which have given the commonwealth the name of the Granite State. Busy manufactures fill with thrift such towns as Manchester, Nashua, and Dover. In the

cotton manufacture New Hampshire stands next to Massachusetts.

John Smith visited New Hampshire in 1614, but its name was bestowed by John Mason, to whom and Sir Ferdinand Gorges grants of land were made by the crown in 1622. The country was thence popularly termed the Hampshire Grants. The first settlements were made in 1623 at Dover and Portsmouth. From 1641 to 1679, the settlements formed a portion of Massachusetts. Charles II. separated them. It was afterward reunited to Massachusetts, but finally separated in 1741. In 1775 the provincial convention declared the royal government dissolved.

New Hampshire bore its part in the struggle for independence, and was one of the first colonies to shake off the royal governor. By its present constitution the legislative power is vested in a senate and house of representatives, which together are styled the general court. The executive power is vested in a governor and council. The governor, council, and general court are chosen by the people annually. Every male inhabitant of twenty-one years of age (except paupers, and persons excused from paying taxes at their own request) has the right of suffrage. The governor is styled 'his excellency,' and, with the members of the council, and of both branches of the legislature, must be "of the Protestant religion." The judiciary consists of a superior court, and a court of common pleas. The judges are appointed by the governor and council, and hold office during

NEW

good behavior, though not beyond the age of seventy. In the matter of common schools, New Hampshire is outdone by few states. Dartmouth College, at Hanover, is an institution of high repute.

Concord is the capital of the state, on the right bank of the Merrimack; it is the terminus of several railways, and is steadily increasing in prosperity; population in 1850, 8,576. Manchester, lower down the Merrimack, just below the Amoskeag falls, is the seat of extensive cotton manufactures, to

which it owes its growth and life: it has sprung up since 1838, and in 1853 had 20,000 inhabitants. Portsmouth is the only port of the state; ship-building is largely engaged in; here is located an United States navy-yard; population in 1853, 11,000. On Badger's Island, in the harbor of Portsmouth, during the Revolution, there was built the North America, the first line-of-battle ship launched in the western hemisphere. Dover and Nashua are thriving manufacturing towns.



NEW JERSEY has an area of 6,851 square miles; population in 1860, 672,035. The northern part is hilly, being traversed by the prolongation of several mountain ridges from Pennsylvania, which nowhere reach a great height, yet abound in bold and varied scenery, interspersed with fertile and pleasant valleys, comprising some of the best land in the state. The southern part, from Raritan Bay and Trenton to Cape May, is a great sandy plain. From Sandy Hook to Cape May, the Atlantic coast consists of a long line of sandy beaches, sometimes interrupted by inlets, and enclosing narrow, shallow lagoons, behind which for several miles inland is a low marshy tract. This coast is the scene of many and dangerous shipwrecks. A number of small rivers, such as the Hackensack, Passaic, and Raritan, water the state. It has the noble Delaware River and Bay on its western border, and the Hudson on the north-east. Valuable iron, zinc, and copper

ores are mined, the pines that cover the sandy tracts furnishing fuel for the smelting-furnaces. The middle district of the state is the most highly tilled, and fruits and vegetables are there raised for the markets of New York and Philadelphia. The northern counties contain much good pasture land, and numerous handsome farms. The apples and cider of the north are as noted for their excellence as are the peaches of the south. There are large manufactures of iron, glass, cottons, and woollens. Carriages, harnesses, and leather are also largely produced.

Settlements were made by the Swedes, at an early period, in the southern part of the state, near Salem, where some of their descendants are still found, and some names of places given by them still retained. The Dutch occupied the north-east, which was included in New Netherlands. The whole country was comprised in the grant made to the Duke of York, and a settlement was made

at Elizabethtown in 1664. In 1676 the country was divided by the Duke of York into East and West Jersey, which were separate proprietary governments, and not united until 1702, at which time the name of New Jersey was given to the colony. In the measures of our Revolution this state was ever active and forward, and she suffered severely from the war.

The legislature is styled "the senate and general assembly of the state of New Jersey." The senators are elected for three years, one-third annually; the assemblymen are elected annually. The governor is chosen by the people once in three years. The right of suffrage is exercised by every white male citizen of the United States, who has resided in the state one year, paupers, idiots, lunatics, and criminals excepted. The judiciary consists of a court of errors and appeals, a court of chancery, a supreme court, and courts of common pleas. The judges are appointed by the governor, with the approval of the senate, for seven and six years. A superintendent of public schools is chosen by the people biennially. The college at Princeton is a venerable and excellent institution.

Trenton, on the Delaware, is the capital; population in 1850, 6,461. [*See TRENTON, PRINCETON.*] New Brunswick, at the head of navigation on the Raritan, is a handsome city. Population in 1850, 10,019. Here is Rutgers's College, founded in 1770 under the name of Queen's. Newark, the largest and most important town of the state, is situated on the Passaic, three miles from Newark Bay; population in 1853, 45,500. Its streets are broad and straight, and ornamented with lofty elms and spacious public squares. It is very largely busied in producing shoes, boots, saddles, harnesses, hats and caps, vehicles, cutlery, and jewelry. Newark was settled in 1666 by thirty families from Guilford, Branford, Milford, and New Haven, in Connecticut. Paterson on the Passaic, near the falls, has stolen the wild grandeur of the cascade, and by the immense water-power thus purloined from nature, has become the seat of great manufactures. In 1850 it had 17,615 inhabitants.

NEW ORLEANS, BATTLE OF. Early in December, 1814, a large British force entered Lake Pontchartrain, near New Orleans, de-

feating after an obstinate conflict, the small American naval force stationed there. The British forces were commanded by Gen. Packenham; the American by Gen. Jackson. Several skirmishes took place in which the British suffered severely. On Sunday morning early, Jan. 8th, a grand attack was made by the British on the American troops in their intrenchments. After an engagement of upward of an hour, the enemy were cut to pieces to a degree almost beyond example, and fled in confusion, leaving their dead and wounded on the field of battle. The loss of the British was 293 killed, 1,267 wounded, and 484 taken prisoners, making a total of 2,600. The American loss in the engagement was 13 killed, and 39 wounded. Sir Edward Packenham and Major General Gibbs were among the slain. The attack was not renewed, and in a short time the British left the coast, news arriving that peace had been concluded before the conflict.

NEWTON, Sir ISAAC, justly called the creator of natural philosophy, was born at Woolsthorpe, in Lincolnshire, Dec. 25th (o.s.), 1642. He evinced, in early youth, a great fondness for mechanical pursuits, and a remarkable aptitude for drawing, and constructing machinery, being his own instructor in all his pursuits. At the age of eighteen he entered Trinity College, Cambridge. Here his fondness for mathematical studies enabled him to make a great proficiency in them, and before completing his twenty-third year, he made some great discoveries in the science to which he was attached. The fall of an apple led him to a train of reflections which resulted in his elucidation of the principles of gravitation which he proved to affect vast orbs on high not less than the smallest thing on earth. He was the first to divide light into rays of seven colors, differently refrangible. It is impossible for us to follow him through his scientific career, tracing out the brilliant discoveries he made in optics, chemistry, natural philosophy, and mathematics. In 1688 Newton was elected by his university to the convention parliament. In 1695 he was made warden of the mint. In 1703 he was chosen president of the royal society, and in 1705 was knighted by Queen Anne. He died March 20th, 1727, and was interred in Westminster Abbey.

NEW

The following is Pope's epitaph on this great man:—

ISAACUS NEWTON HIC JACET,
QUEM IMMORTALEM CÆLI, NATURA,
TEMPUS OSTENDUNT,
MORTALEM HOC MARMOR FATETUR.

Nature and all her works lay hid in night:
God said, let Newton be—and all was light.

This great man was mild and good-natured in his private life. He had constructed a small laboratory for prosecuting his chemical investigations, and seems, after his publication of his "*Principia*," to have devoted almost all his time to them. One morning (1692), he had accidentally shut up his little pet dog Diamond in his room, and, on returning, found that the animal, by upsetting a candle on his desk, had destroyed the labors of several years. On perceiving his loss, he only exclaimed, "Oh, Diamond! Diamond! thou little knowest the mischief thou hast done!" The mischief done was so great as for a time to unsettle his powerful mind, injured already by excessive study, and he never recovered his full vigor of intellect, although enough remained for an ordinary mortal.

Newton's modesty was equal to his merit. While he was aware of the value of his discoveries, he knew also how vast a region lay

unexplored beyond. A short time before his death he uttered this memorable sentiment: "I do not know what I may appear to the world; but to myself I seem to have been only like a boy playing on the seashore, and diverting myself in now and then finding a smoother pebble or a prettier shell than ordinary, while the great ocean of truth lay all undiscovered before me." The Latin epitaph on his monument may be thus translated: "Here lies Isaac Newton, knight, who, by a vigor of mind almost supernatural, first demonstrated the motions and figures of the planets, the paths of the comets, and the tides of the ocean. He discovered, what before his time no one had even suspected, that rays of light are differently refrangible, and that this is the cause of colors. An assiduous, sagacious, and faithful interpreter of nature, antiquity, and the holy Scriptures, he asserted in his philosophy the majesty of God, and exhibited in his conduct the simplicity of the gospel. Let mortals rejoice that there has existed such and so great an ornament of human nature." His greatest work is entitled "*Philosophiæ Naturalis Principia Mathematica*."

NEWTON, THOMAS, Bishop of Bristol, author of "*Dissertations on the Prophecies*," born in 1704, died in 1782.



NEW YORK has a territory of 46,000 square miles; population in 1860, 3,880,735. It forms a portion of the elevated table-land which runs parallel with the Atlantic coast, broken in some places by prolongations of the Alleghanies, mountainous ridges of con-

siderable elevation, and containing some remarkable depressions, which form the basins of lakes or channels for rivers. Through the fertile intervalles flow large rivers, among which may be mentioned the Hudson, Mohawk, St. Lawrence, Delaware, Susquehanna,

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Tioga, Alleghany, Genesee, Oswego, and the Niagara, with its stupendous cataract. The picturesque beauty of the Hudson, and the legendary and historic interest clustering along its banks, render it the Rhine of America. The inland seas of Erie and Ontario bathe the north-western borders of New York; in the north-east Lake Champlain divides her from Vermont, and the bright waters of Lake George nestle among lofty hills, and about its islets; and in the centre of the state is a row of lakes, that fortunately retain the names of the tribes which once dwelt on their shores, Canandaigua, Seneca, Cayuga, Onondaga, Oneida, and lesser sheets. The lakes and rivers are linked together by a magnificent system of canals, connecting the great central basin of the St. Lawrence, and the seas it drains, with the Atlantic coast.

Iron ore of good quality and great quantity is found in the north-eastern part, and occurs also in some of the central, eastern, and south-western counties. Gypsum, limestone, marble, and slate are procured. St. Lawrence county is rich in lead. The salt springs about Syracuse yield large quantities of salt annually. Most of the soil in the state is of a useful quality, and much of it is highly fertile. Wheat is the great agricultural staple, and flour and provisions are largely exported. About one-third of all the buckwheat, two-thirds of the barley, one-fourth of the rye, one-sixth of the oats, and one-eighth of the wheat grown in the United States, are raised in New York. In manufactures New York occupies a proportional rank, having her share of factories, mills, foundries, and workshops, with intelligent and thrifty mechanics. Her commerce is on a great scale, far exceeding that of any other state; since, in addition to her own wants and productions, she imports and exports for all the Union through her great commercial metropolis. Her foreign commerce is surpassed by her inland and coasting trade.

New York was visited by Henry Hudson, an English navigator, in 1609. He sailed up the river which bears his name, to the distance of 150 miles, and on his return to Europe communicated the results of his enterprise to his employers, the Dutch East India Company. Dutch trading establishments were immediately formed at different places.

The earliest establishment of the kind was Fort Orange, founded in 1613, on the site of the city of Albany. New Amsterdam (now the city of New York) was formed a few years later. The East India Company, having obtained from the government of Holland a grant of the exclusive right to trade in America, called the country which they settled, New Netherlands. In 1664 Charles II. of England granted to his brother, the Duke of York and Albany, an extensive territory which included the colony of New Netherlands. A small armament was fitted out in England to act against the Dutch in America, who, however, speedily submitted to the English. The latter changed the name of New Amsterdam to New York, and Fort Orange to Albany. While Canada was held by the French, New York was the theatre of bloody struggles with them and their Indian allies. In 1775 the inhabitants of New York asserted their independence, and through the Revolutionary war took a distinguished part in the struggle for liberty.

The governor of New York holds office for a term of two years. The sessions of the legislature are annual; half the senators are chosen each year. Every white male citizen, twenty-one years of age, resident in the state one year, has the right of suffrage. No man of color shall vote unless he shall have been for three years a resident, and shall have owned during the year previous to the election a freehold worth \$250 above all incumbrances; and no person of color shall be taxed unless he own such real estate. The judiciary consists of the court of appeals, the supreme and circuit courts, county courts, and the criminal courts, of sessions, and oyer and terminer. Judges, clerks, attorneys, &c., are chosen by the people. Education is liberally provided for, and beside a system of public schools, aid is extended to academies and colleges. There is a normal school at Albany, a lunatic asylum at Utica, an asylum for idiots at Syracuse, and indigent deaf-mute youth are sustained by the state at the institution in New York. The military academy at West Point, under the direction of the national government, is an admirable institution. The annual expenditure made for the common schools exceeds \$3,500,000.

Albany, the capital, is pleasantly seated on

an eminence on the west bank of the Hudson, 144 miles above New York city; population in 1860, 62,367. The river is navigable to Albany, for steamers. The Erie and Champlain canals unite above the city, and are connected with a basin at Albany. The facility of communication which it possesses, renders it a great thoroughfare. The Dutch settled Albany in 1614, calling it Fort Orange. After it came into English hands, it was named in honor of James II., then Duke of York and Albany. It was built up with the disregard to elegance so common among the Dutch, but its modern buildings, both private and public, are beautiful and tasteful.

Brooklyn, on Long Island, is separated from the city of New York by the East River. In 1860 it had 266,661 inhabitants. The houses of recent date are spacious and elegant, and the heights which overhang the river and command a view of New York, are studded with neat and pretty dwellings, embowered in shrubbery and flowers. The healthiness of Brooklyn, and its contiguity to New York, have tended to increase its population largely within a few years. Its many houses of worship have given it the name of the City of Churches. The first settlement of Brooklyn was made at the Wallabout Bay, by George Jansen Rapelje, in 1625. The earliest deed for lands on record is to Thomas Besker, in 1639. Oct. 18th, 1667, Governor Nicholls granted a patent "to certain inhabitants of the town Breukelen, for and in behalf of themselves and their associates, the freeholders and inhabitants, for all the lands in the town not taken up in severalty." This patent was confirmed by Governor Dongan in 1686. In 1670 license was given by Governor Lovelace to the inhabitants to purchase the Indian title.

The city of Buffalo lies on the outlet of Lake Erie at the head of Niagara River, and on Buffalo Creek, which constitutes its harbor, 288 miles west of Albany, or 363 by the Erie Canal. It was originally laid out by the Holland Land Company in 1801. It was entirely burned by the British in 1813, excepting two buildings. The commencement of the rapid growth and great importance of this place may be dated from the opening of the Erie Canal. The city is laid out in broad and regular streets. The land rises, by a very gentle ascent, two miles from the water, to an exten-

sive plain, and from the elevated parts of the city are fine views of the lake, of Niagara River, of the Erie Canal, and the Canada shore. There are three public squares which add much to the beauty of the city. The harbor of Buffalo is spacious and safe, having twelve or fourteen feet of water a mile from its entrance into the lake. Buffalo stands as a great gate between the East and the West, through which much of their commerce must pass; and it is a great depot for the western country. Population in 1860, 81,129.

NEW YORK, the city of, the largest, most wealthy, most flourishing of the cities of our continent, and the commercial metropolis of America, is situated at the mouth of the Hudson, on Manhattan Island. In the bay that opens before it to the Atlantic, navies might lie in safety. Toward its harbor throng the ships of all nations, freighted with merchandise and emigrants from almost all the earth. The navigable waters of the Hudson, long lines of canals, and a network of rail-roads give it the amplest facilities for inland trade. In 1860 it had 805,651 inhabitants. This does not include Brooklyn, Jersey City, and its other suburbs.

The first settlement made on Manhattan Island, with a view to permanent occupancy, was by the Dutch in 1615. In 1629, being resolved to establish a colony at New Amsterdam, as New York was then called, they appointed Walter Van Twiller governor, who held the office nine years. In 1635 the governor erected a substantial fort; and in 1643 a house of worship was built in the southeast corner of the fort. In 1644 a city hall or stadhous was erected, which was on the corner of Pearl street and Coenties Slip. In 1653 a wall of earth and stone was built from Hudson River to East River, designed as a defense against the Indians, immediately north of Wall Street, which from that circumstance received its name. The first public wharf was built in 1658, where Whitehall Street now is.

The administration of Governor Stuyvesant, the last of the Dutch governors, terminated, after a continuance of seventeen years, with the capture of the colony by the English in 1664, when the city was named New York in honor of James, Duke of York. The property of the Dutch West India Trad-

ing Company was all confiscated. The number of inhabitants was then about 3,000.

In 1673 the Dutch took the city from the English, it having been surrendered by Captain Manning without firing a gun. It was restored to the English the next year; and Manning was tried for cowardice and treachery, and sentenced to have his sword broken over his head. The inhabitants were all then required to take the oath of allegiance to the English government. As descriptive of the commercial condition of the city at that period, Governor Andros, in his report to the government in England, in 1678, says: "Our principal places of trade are New York and Kingston, except Albany for the Indians. Our buildings most wood, some lately stone and brick; good country houses, and strong of their severall kinds. A merchant worth £1,000, or £500, is accounted a good substantial merchant, and a planter worthe half that in moveables is accounted rich; all estates may be valued att about £150,000; there may lately have traded to ye colony, in a yeare, from 10 to 15 ships or vessells of about togeather 100 tunns each, English, New England, and oure own built, of which five small shippes, and a ketch now belonging to New Yorke, foure of them built there."

In 1686 James II. abolished the representative system, and prohibited the use of printing-presses. A meeting of commissioners, denominated a congress of the several colonies, was this year assembled at New York. A regulation for lighting the city was established in 1697, requiring that lights be put in the windows of the houses fronting on the streets, on a penalty of ninepence for every night's omission; and that a lighted lantern be hung out upon a pole at every seventh house, the expense to be borne equally by the seven intervening houses. In 1703 Wall Street was paved from William Street to the English (Trinity) Church. The Presbyterian ministers were prohibited from preaching by Governor Cornbury, in 1707, and two of their number were arrested and tried for violating this prohibition; but they were discharged on their paying \$220 costs. In 1719 a Presbyterian Church was built in Wall Street. In 1725 the *New York Gazette*, a weekly newspaper, was established. The

first stage began to run between New York and Boston in 1732. It made its trips once a month, and took two weeks for the journey. In 1745 Lady Murray owned the only coach in town. The following year there were 1,834 houses and 11,717 inhabitants, all below the Park. This was an increase of about a thousand people in nine years. A theatre was opened in 1750. During the next quarter of a century streets were laid out and built upon more or less as far north as Murray Street.

After the disastrous battle of Long Island in August, 1776, the British entered the city, and remained its masters till the conclusion of peace. They evacuated it on the 25th of November, 1783, and the same day Gen. Washington marched in at the head of the American army. At this time there were 23,614 inhabitants, an increase of 2,000 in fifteen years. In 1785 the first congress held after the war met in the city hall, where the custom-house now stands; and here, four years after, when the federal constitution had been adopted, Washington was inaugurated president of the United States.

For a place of such magnitude, New York can not be considered unhealthy. It has enjoyed as great an exemption as cities of this class in most countries from the ravages of epidemic diseases. It has been four times visited by yellow fever, viz., in 1742, in 1798, in 1805, and in 1822. The disease was the most fatal in 1798, when it prevailed from July to November. The city, with other cities large and small, suffered severely from Asiatic cholera in the years 1832, 1834, and 1849.

The most extensive and destructive fire which has ever occurred in New York was that of the 16th of December, 1835, which swept over between thirty and forty acres of the most valuable part of the city, densely occupied with stores and filled with the richest merchandise. About 674 buildings were consumed, and the amount of property destroyed was estimated, by a committee appointed to ascertain the loss, at nearly \$20,000,000. Under this heavy calamity, the wealth and recuperative energies of the city were in a wonderful manner demonstrated, as in an incredibly short time the

whole burned district was covered again with stores and with public edifices, more costly, convenient and elegant than before.

NEY, MICHAEL, Duke of Elchingen, Prince of Moscow, marshal and peer of France, grand-cross of the legion of honor, knight of St. Louis, &c., was born in Alsace, in 1769. He rose from the ranks to the chief command of the armies, but was more distinguished for his bravery than his tactics. He opposed Wellington in Spain, and pursued the British army to the lines of Torres Vedras. He afterward served under Napoleon in Russia, and at the great battle of the Moskwa acquired the name of "the bravest of the brave." His bravery was signal in the terrible retreat from Moscow. He commanded the rear-guard of the army. At one point he was attacked by an overwhelming force of Russians, and summoned to surrender. "A marshal of France never surrenders," was his heroic answer, and by strategy and hard fighting he reached the wreck of the main army, with a handful of his original corps. Napoleon welcomed him with joy, for he had given up all hope of him, as captive or slain. The retreat continued, and with indomitable courage and energy Ney still covered the rear. With only thirty men he defended the gate of Kowno, the last Russian town in the march of the French, while his comrades escaped at the other end. He was the last man to leave the soil of Russia. On the abdication of Napoleon, Ney promised to support the Bourbons. At the return of Napoleon from Elba, the command of the royalist army was confided to him, but when Napoleon summoned him to his standard as the bravest of the brave, he could not resist, and went over to the emperor. He was second in command at Waterloo, where he fought with desperate tenacity, till night and defeat compelled him to flee. Five horses were shot under him, and his clothes were torn with bullets. Contrary to the general amnesty that was decreed, the Bourbons ordered his arrest: he was condemned to die, and was shot Aug. 16th, 1815.

NICARAGUA, a republic of Central America, bounded north by Honduras; east by the Caribbean Sea; south by Costa Rica, and west by the Pacific. The country is fertile, and rich in forests. The population is 400,000,

and the area 44,000 square miles. Through the river San Juan and Lake Nicaragua, a route was opened, communicating on each coast by steamers with the Atlantic cities and California. Civil contentions and filibustering expeditions of piratical vagabonds from the United States have retarded the progress of this unhappy country.

NICHOLAS, Czar of Russia. [*See ROMANOFF.*]

NICHOLS, CHARLOTTE BRONTE, the daughter of Rev. Patrick Bronte, a Yorkshire clergyman, was born April 21st, 1816. There is but little incident in her life, which was mostly passed at Haworth, a rough village in the West Riding of Yorkshire. In 1847 the reading world was startled by three novels, "Jane Eyre," "Wuthering Heights," and "Alice Gray," whose title-pages bore respectively the names of Currer Bell, Ellis Bell, and Acton Bell. The secret of their authorship was kept well and long, notwithstanding the eagerness of the public to discover it. The brother Patrick died, then Emily, then Anne, and Charlotte Bronte was left alone with her father in 1849. In 1854, she wedded Mr. Bronte's curate, Rev. Arthur Bell Nichols. Then, after the nine happiest months of her life, the knell from Haworth church early on Saturday morning, March 31st, 1855, told the villagers that Charlotte Bronte was no more. She had written two novels after "Jane Eyre,"—"Shirley" and "Villette." She is the most remarkable writer of all the women of English literature. Her novels display a startling vigor.

NICHOLSON, JAMES, an American naval officer, born at Charlestown, Maryland, in 1737. Throughout the Revolutionary war, he served with distinction in our infant navy. June 2d, 1780, Nicholson, with the Trumbull, a frigate of thirty-two guns, manned with only 199 men, fought a severe action with the British frigate Wyatt. This engagement lasted three hours, at the expiration of which the disabled state of the Trumbull's masts compelled Nicholson to withdraw, with a loss of nine men killed, and twenty-one wounded. In 1781 Captain Nicholson in the Trumbull was captured by the Iris and General Monk, after a severe engagement at night. He was carried to England, and not released till peace was concluded.

NIEBUHR, **BARTHOLOMÆ** GEORGE, an eminent historian, diplomatist, and philologist, was born at Copenhagen, 1776; entered the civil service of Prussia in 1806; was successively professor of history in the universities of Berlin and Bonn; and died at Bonn in 1831. He was the master of twenty languages.

NINEVEH, the capital of the Assyrian empire, was one of the largest and most populous cities of the ancient world. It stood on the left bank of the Tigris, opposite the modern town of Mosul. After the dissolution of the Assyrian monarchy by the Medes, it fell into decay, and even its site became a matter of conjecture. Within a few years the researches of M. Botta and Mr. Layard have brought to light the long buried city. The curious sculptures and vessels which have been exhumed are full of interest. Modern science finds in the long cuneiform inscriptions the records of the wars, customs, life, and manners of one of the greatest nations of antiquity.

NINUS, a son of Belus, who built a city to which he gave his own name, and founded the Assyrian monarchy, of which he was the first sovereign, B.C. 2059. He was very warlike, and extended his conquests from Egypt to the extremities of India and Bactriana. Ninus reigned fifty-two years, and at his death he left his kingdom to the care of his wife Semiramis, by whom he had a son. The history of Ninus is very obscure, and even fabulous according to the opinion of some. Ninus after death received divine honors, and became the Jupiter of the Assyrians and the Hercules of the Chaldeans.

NOAH, **MORDECAI MANASSEH**, an American journalist and an active politician, was born at Philadelphia, July 19th, 1784; died in New York, March 28th, 1851. He was consul to Tunis in 1813. About 1829 he conceived the project of collecting his brethren the Jews, and rebuilding Jerusalem. He issued a singular proclamation, appointing Grand Island, near Niagara Falls, as the place of rendezvous, and summoned the scattered tribes to transmit their contributions. The scheme came to nothing.

NORMANDY, an ancient province in the north of France, now divided into five departments. In the latter part of the ninth century the Northmen, led by Rollo, settled

here, and were governed by their own dukes; the most renowned of whom was William, who achieved the conquest of England in 1066. Normandy was lost to England by the weakness of King John. The English still retain, however, the islands on the coast, Jersey, Guernsey, &c. In 1346 Normandy was overrun by Edward III.; and in 1418 it was held by Henry V., who conquered the whole province, and obtained its formal cession to England by the peace of 1420. It was wrested from the English in 1449; and from that time Normandy was exempt from the evils of war until the religious contests of the sixteenth century. It escaped the revolution, though, in 1794, a Vendean army entered its western frontier, for they were soon put to flight. Normandy had, until the revolution, its separate parliaments, which sat at Rouen; and its provincial laws and usages were preserved under the name of *Coutumier de Normandie*.

NORRIS, **SIR JOHN**, second son of Henry, the first Lord Norris, famous for his valor, was first trained up in military exercises under Admiral Coligni in the civil wars of France; next in Ireland, under Walter, Earl of Essex; then served in the Netherlands under Matthias, Archduke of Austria, in 1579; afterward under the Duke of Lorraine, 1582; next under William of Nassau; and, in the twenty-seventh year of Queen Elizabeth's reign he was constituted colonel-general of all the horse and foot sent out of England to the relief of Antwerp, then besieged by the Spaniards, and empowered to treat with the states-general for the entertaining of the English foot appointed to serve in those parts. In the 30th of Queen Elizabeth, being then president of the council in the province of Munster, in Ireland, he had a commission giving him power to constitute such principal officers as well by sea and land, as he thought fit for the defense of the kingdom. In the 33d of Queen Elizabeth he was constituted captain-general of those English auxiliaries that were sent to King Henry IV. of France, against his rebellious subjects in Bretagne. Having deported himself with great prudence and courage in all these eminent employments, to the great honor of the English nation as well as of his own name, he expected that upon the recalling of Sir

William Russell, knight, afterward Lord Russell, he should have been deputy of Ireland; but, finding that Thomas, Lord Borough, was preferred to that command, and himself required to continue still in Munster, he became so highly discontented, as to occasion his premature death.

NORTH, FREDERICK, second Earl of Guilford, better known as Lord North, was the eldest son of Francis, the first earl, and was born in 1732. He was educated at Eton, and at Trinity College, Oxford; after which he went to Leipsic. On his return home he was

elected into parliament, and in 1759 he became a commissioner of the treasury. - In 1767 he was appointed chancellor of the exchequer, and in 1770 first lord of the treasury, both which offices he held during the American war, till 1782. Not long after this, the same statesmen who had repeatedly threatened his lordship with an impeachment, formed a coalition with him; but this motley administration lasted a very few months. In 1790 Lord North succeeded his father in the earldom, and died in 1792, having been blind some years.



NORTH CAROLINA is bounded on the north by Virginia, on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by South Carolina, and on the west by Tennessee. It is of considerable extent, comprising 45,500 square miles, with a population, in 1850, of 992,822 souls, of whom 331,059 were slaves, and 30,463 free blacks. The state is divided into seventy-nine counties, and Raleigh is the seat of government. This place is pleasantly situated, and laid out with great regularity. The state-house, built upon the model of the Parthenon, is celebrated for the completeness and beauty of its architecture. Raleigh has 4,500 inhabitants. A senate and house of commons are the legislative branches of government. Elections are biennial. There is a common-school system which is rapidly growing in usefulness; besides, there are several respectable academies at various places, and, at Chapel Hill, an institution

styled the University of North Carolina, which is well endowed and in high repute. The face of the country is extremely diversified; a wide belt, skirting the sea, is perfectly level, while in other parts the surface is broken and rough, presenting in some places considerable elevations. One of these, Black Mountain, 6,476 feet high, is said to be the highest peak east of the Rocky Mountains. Pilot Mountain, or Ararat, which is of a pyramidal form, rises 1,550 feet from a wide and level area, commanding a most imposing view of the surrounding country.

The coast of North Carolina is made dangerous by its capes and shoals, the names of some of which indicate the terror they excite. This state contains a portion of that swamp which is justly called the Great Dismal Swamp, a marshy tract whose low brushwood, in many parts impenetrable, covers a space of nearly thirty miles in extent. Parts

of the soil of North Carolina are extremely productive, and the earth has been found to possess a treasure in gold mines of considerable extent and value. The commerce of this state is not extensive, but many of the planters are very wealthy. The pine forests yield not only lumber, but great quantities of turpentine, rosin, tar, and pitch.

The first colony within the limits of North Carolina was English, and settled on Roanoke Island, (since the scene of Burnside's victory,) in 1587. It soon perished, however, for it was never heard from. Some Virginians made a permanent settlement near Albemarle sound in 1650.

North Carolina joined the South in the rebellion, and seceded May 20, 1861, after a good deal of adjourning and delaying. The U. S. forts in the state had been seized in January. The state did not suffer much during most of the war, being covered by land and coast; but a good deal of damage was done during Sherman's last great march from Savannah, and the North Carolina campaign against Bragg and Johnston. Gen. Butler and Commodore Stringham took the forts at Hatteras, in August, 1861, and Burnside's expedition, in Feb., 1862, took Roanoke Island, and on March 14th succeeding captured Newbern. From that time the Union forces held the sea approaches, except Wilmington, which it was found impossible to close to blockade runners, until the glorious bombardment and storming of Fort Fisher, Jan. 15, 1865, soon followed by the fall of Wilmington. The state soon after returned formally into the Union.

NORTH-WEST PASSAGE. The belief in a passage to China and the Indies through the Arctic seas followed close upon the discovery of the western continent. Cortereal, a Portuguese, sought the north-west passage in 1500. England made the essay in 1553, at the instance of Sebastian Cabot. In May of that year, Hakluyt has chronicled, gallant Sir Hugh Willoughby took his departure on his fatal voyage for discovering the north-east passage to China. He sailed with great pomp by Greenwich, where the court then resided. Mutual honors were paid on both sides. The council and courtiers appeared at the windows, and the people covered the shores.

The young king, Edward VI., alone lost the noble and novel sight, for he then lay on his death-bed; so that the principal object of the parade was disappointed. The three vessels separated: Sir Hugh with his crew perished on the coast of Lapland; but Chancellor entered the White Sea, a discovery of importance, inasmuch as it led to the establishment of a trade between England and Archangel, and to the design of carrying on commerce with India by means of the Volga and the Caspian Sea, which project so engrossed the attention of the merchants of London that all farther attempts at discovering the North-East Passage were abandoned. The Dutch merchants afterward resolved to try if the East Indies could be reached in this direction. William Barents made two voyages (1594-1596), but was unable to proceed east of Nova Zembla on account of the ice.

Frobisher tried the North-West Passage in 1576. The project was greatly encouraged by Elizabeth in 1585, and a company formed called the "Fellowship for the Discovery of the North-West Passage." In that and the two following years John Davis made three voyages, discovering the well-known straits which ever since have borne his name. He retained full faith, and would have sailed again, had not the Spanish armada interrupted. From 1607 to 1610 Hudson made several voyages, some for English merchants and one in the service of the Dutch; during which he discovered the noble river and the broad bay now known by his name. In 1616 Baffin discovered and in great part traced the extensive bay called after him. A number of enterprises undertaken by various countries followed. From 1745 to 1818 there was a standing offer of £20,000 from the British government for the discovery of the north-west passage. Samuel Hearne, an agent of the Hudson Bay company, undertook a land expedition in 1769. Seven years later the celebrated Captain Cook tried to solve the mystery. He sailed to the Pacific, discovered the Sandwich Islands, and early in the summer of 1778 reached Behring's Strait. He was able to penetrate no farther than lat. 70° 44'. On his return he lost his life. Mackenzie, in 1789, headed an overland expedition, traced the great river named after

him, and reached the Arctic Ocean in latitude 69°. Hearne had gained it at the mouth of the Coppermine eighteen years before.

In 1818 the attention of the English government was turned anew to the possibility of finding a north-west passage to the Pacific seas, and the standing reward was modified by proposing that £5,000 should be paid whenever either 110°, 120°, or 130° W. long. should be passed. Two expeditions were dispatched, that of Buchan and Franklin, and that of Ross and Parry. Many others have followed.

Capt. Buchan and Lieut. Franklin's expedition in the *Dorothea* and *Trent*, 1818.

Capt. Ross and Lieut. Parry, in the *Isabella* and *Alexander*, 1818.

Lieutenants Parry and Liddon, in the *Hecla* and *Griper*, May 4th, 1819. They crossed the meridian of 110° long. W., and were entitled to the reward of £5,000. They returned to Leith, Nov. 3d, 1820.

Captains Parry and Lyon, in the *Fury* and *Hecla*, May 8th, 1821.

Captain Parry's third expedition with the *Hecla*, May 8th, 1824.

Captains Franklin and Lyon, after having attempted a land expedition, again sailed from Liverpool, Feb. 16th, 1825.

Captain Parry, again in the *Hecla*, sails from Deptford, March 25th, 1827. And returns, Oct. 6th, 1827.

Capt. Ross arrived at Hull, on his return from his Arctic expedition, after an absence of four years, and when all hope of his return had been nearly abandoned, Oct. 18th, 1833.

Capt. Back and his companions arrived at Liverpool from their perilous Arctic Land Expedition, after having visited the Great Fish River, and examined its course to the Polar Seas, Sept. 8th, 1835.

Capt. Back sailed from Chatham in command of his majesty's ship *Terror*, on an exploring adventure to Wager River, June 21st, 1836.

Sir John Franklin and Captains Crozier and Fitzjames, in the ships *Erebus* and *Terror*, leave England, May 24th, 1845.

Commanders Collinson and M'Clure, in the *Enterprise* and *Investigator*, sailed eastward in search of Sir John Franklin, Jan. 20th, 1850.

North-West Passage discovered by M'Clure, Oct. 26th, 1850.

The anxiety felt as to the fate of Sir John Franklin and his comrades led to many expeditions to the polar seas. Sir John, with Captains Crozier and Fitzjames, in H.M. ships *Erebus* and *Terror* (carrying in all 138 persons), sailed on an Arctic expedition of discovery and survey, from Greenhithe, May 24th, 1845. Their last dispatches were

from the Whalefish Islands, dated July 12th, 1845. On the 26th of July, they were seen by a passing whaler moored to an iceberg near the centre of Baffin's Bay. Since that time no certain intelligence of their fate has been received. Franklin contemplated an absence of three years, so that, although nothing was heard of the expedition, no anxiety was felt for its safety until 1848. Then the protracted absence began to cause intense anxiety throughout Europe, and numerous expeditions were sent from England and elsewhere to various parts of the polar regions in search. Quantities of coals, provisions, clothing, and other comforts were deposited in such places in the Arctic seas as the crews of the *Erebus* and *Terror* might visit, so as to afford them immediate relief, by the British and American governments, by Lady Franklin, and by numerous private persons. The *Truelove*, Capt. Parker, which arrived at Hull Oct. 4th, 1849, from Davis's Straits, brought intelligence (not afterward confirmed) that the natives had seen Sir John Franklin's ships as late as the previous March, beset or frozen up by the ice in Prince Regent's Inlet. Other like accounts were equally illusory. Her majesty's government, March 7th, 1850, offered a reward of £20,000 to any party, of any country, that should render efficient assistance to the crews of the missing ships. Sir John's first winter quarters were found at Beechey Island by Captains Ommanney and Penny. The following expeditions were sent out in search.

H. M. S. *Plover*, Capt. Moore (afterward under Capt. Maguire), sailed from Sheerness to Behring's Straits, Jan. 1st, 1848.

Land expedition under Sir John Richardson, and Dr. Rae of the Hudson's Bay Company, left England, March 25th, 1848. Sir John Richardson returned to England in 1849, and Dr. Rae continued his search till 1851.

Sir James Ross, with the *Enterprise* and *Investigator* (June 12th, 1848), having also sailed in search to Barrow's Strait, returned to England, Nov. 3d, 1849.

The *Enterprise*, Capt. Collinson, and *Investigator*, Commander M'Clure, sailed from Plymouth for Behring's Straits, Jan. 20th, 1850. Both of these ships proceeded through to the eastward, and the North-West Passage was discovered by M'Clure, Oct. 26th, 1850. M'Clure returned to England in October, 1854, and Collinson in May, 1855.

Capt. Austin's expedition (*Resolute*, Capt. Austin, C.B.; *Assistance*, Capt. Ommanney; *Intrepid*,

Com. Bertie Cator; and Pioneer, Com. Sherard Osborne) sailed from England for Barrow's Straits, April 25th, 1850, and returned in September, 1851.

The Lady Franklin, Capt. Penny, and Sophia, Capt. Stewart, sailed from Aberdeen for Barrow's Straits, April 18th, 1850, and returned home in September, 1851.

The first American expedition, in the Advance and Rescue, under Lieut. De Haven and Dr. Kane, toward which Mr. Grinnell gave \$30,000, sailed for Lancaster Sound and Barrow's Straits, May 25th, 1850. After drifting in the pack down Baffin's Bay, the ships were released in 1851 uninjured.

The Felix, Sir John Ross, fitted out chiefly by the Hudson Bay Company, sailed to the same locality, May 22d, 1850, and returned in 1851.

H.M.S. North Star, Commander Saunders, which had sailed from England in 1849, wintered in Wolstenholme Sound, and returned to Spithead, Sept. 28th, 1850.

H.M.S. Herald, Capt. Kellett, C.B., which had sailed in 1848, made three voyages to Behring's Straits, and returned in 1851.

Lieut. Pim went to St. Petersburg in November, 1851, with the intention of traveling through Siberia to the mouth of the river Kolyma; but he was dissuaded from proceeding by the Russian government.

Sir Edward Belcher's expedition (Assistance, Sir Edward Belcher, C.B.; Resolute, Capt. Kellett, C.B.; North Star, Capt. Pullen; Intrepid, Capt. M'Clintock; Pioneer, Capt. Sherard Osborne) sailed from Woolwich, April 15th, 1852.

Lady Franklin, from her own resources, aided by a few friends (and by the "Tasmanian Tribute of £1,500), equipped four separate private expeditions.

The Prince Albert, Capt. Forsyth, sailed from Aberdeen to Barrow's Straits, June 5th, 1850; returned Oct. 1st, 1850.

The Prince Albert, Mr. Kennedy, accompanied by Lieut. Bellot of the French navy and John Hepburne, sailed from Stromness to Prince Regent's Inlet, June 4th, 1851; returned in October, 1852.

The Isabel, Commander Inglefield, sailed for the head of Baffin's Bay, Jones's Sound and the Wellington Channel, July 6th, and returned in November, 1852.

Mr. Kennedy sailed again in the Isabel on a renewed search to Behring's Strait, 1853.

H.M.S. Rattlesnake, Commander Trollope, dispatched to assist the Plover, Capt. Maguire (who succeeded Capt. Moore) at Point Barrow in April, met with it in August, 1853.

The second American expedition, the Advance, under Dr. Kane, early in June, 1853.

The Phoenix (with the Breadalbane transport), Commander Inglefield, accompanied by Lieut. Bellot, sailed in May, and returned in October, 1853.

The Phoenix, North Star, and Talbot, under the

command of Captain Inglefield, sailed in May, and returned in October, 1854.

The third American expedition, in search of Dr. Kane, consisted of the Release and the steamer Arctic, the barque Eringo, and another vessel, under the command of Lieut. H. J. Hartstene, accompanied by a brother of Dr. Kane as surgeon, May 31st, 1855. On the 17th of May, 1855, Dr. Kane and his party left the Advance, and journeyed over the ice, 1,300 miles, to the Danish settlement. On their way home in a Danish vessel, they fell in with Lieut. Hartstene, Sept. 18th, and arrived with him at New York, Oct. 11th, 1855. [See KANE.]

The eighteenth British expedition (equipped by Lady Franklin and her friends, the government having declined), consisting of the screw steamer Fox, Captain M'Clintock, R. N., sailed from Aberdeen, July 1st, 1857.

In the spring of 1853, Dr. Rae again proceeded toward the magnetic pole, and in July, 1854, he reported to the Admiralty that he had purchased from a party of Esquimaux a number of articles, which had belonged to Sir John Franklin and his party, namely, Sir John's star or order, part of a watch, silver spoons, and forks with crests, &c. He also reported the statement of the natives, that they had met with a party of white men about four winters previous and had sold them a seal, and that four months later, in the same season, they had found the bodies of thirty men (some buried) who had evidently perished by starvation; the place appears, from the description, to have been in the neighborhood of the Great Fish River of Back. Dr. Rae arrived in England in Oct. 22d, 1854, with the melancholy relics, which have since been deposited in Greenwich Hospital. Dr. Rae and his companions received the reward of £10,000 for discovering these remains, as the first clue.

All the ships of Sir Edward Belcher's expedition were finally abandoned. Capt. Kellett's vessel, the Resolute, was found adrift a thousand miles from where she was left, by a New London whaler, and was brought home. It was bought by order of Congress, thoroughly repaired and equipped, and intrusted to Capt. H. J. Hartstene to be presented to Queen Victoria. It arrived at Southampton, Dec. 12th, 1856, and was visited by her majesty on the 16th.

The honor of completing the north-west passage is due to Capt. M'Clure, who sailed in the Investigator in company with Com.

Collinson in the *Enterprise*, in search of Sir John Franklin, Jan. 20th, 1850. On Sept. 6th he discovered high land which he named Baring's land; on the 9th, other land which he named after Prince Albert; on the 30th the ship was frozen in. Entertaining a strong conviction that the waters in which the Investigator then lay communicated with Barrow's Strait, he set out on Oct. 21st with a few men in a sledge, to test his views. On Oct. 26th, he reached Point Russell (73° 31' N. lat., 114° 14' W. long.), where from an elevation of 600 feet he saw Parry or Melville Sound beneath them. The strait connecting the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans he named after the Prince of Wales. The Investigator was the first ship which traversed the Polar Sea from Behring's Straits to Baring Island. Intelligence of this discovery was brought to England by Com. Inglefield, and the admiralty chart was published Oct. 14th, 1853. Capt. McClure returned to England in September, 1854. He was knighted for his discovery. In 1855 parliament ordered £5,000 to be paid to Captain McClure, and £5,000 to be distributed between the officers and crew.

NORWAY, an extensive kingdom of the north of Europe. Its area is 122,711 square miles, and its population 1,490,000. The face of the country is broken by mountain ridges, the summits of which are covered with snow and ice. The climate presents the extremes of heat and cold, and a great proportion of the soil is barren. In fact, the wealth of Norway consists in timber, cattle, fisheries, and minerals. The chief towns are Bergen, Christiana, Drontheim, Königsberg, Christiansand, and Frederichshall. Norway was divided into petty principalities until the ninth century, and was little known except for piracies. In 1029 Norway was conquered by Canute the Great, King of Denmark, and was governed by Sueno, as regent. On the death of Canute, Norway recovered its independence. In 1397 it was incorporated with Denmark. Their peaceful union continued till 1814, when it was interrupted by the treaty which the King of Denmark was compelled to make with Great Britain, resigning the sovereignty of Norway to the King of Sweden, to which Norway was forced to submit; but as an integral state,

and with the preservation of its constitution and laws.

NOVA SCOTIA, a British province of North America, a peninsula, jutting out into the Atlantic, containing about 15,607 square miles. It is about 280 miles in length, and partially separated from New Brunswick by the Bay of Fundy. The country is somewhat rough, but the soil in the interior is good. The exports consist principally of fish, timber, and plaster of Paris. The population in 1861 was 830,857. Nova Scotia was discovered by John Cabot in 1497. The French, who gave it the name of Acadia, were the first settlers. Sir William Alexander received a grant of the peninsula, under the name of Nova Scotia, in 1621, but it was surrendered to the French by Charles I. on the family alliance between him and that court in 1632. It was recovered by Major Sedgwick, under Cromwell, in 1654; delivered again to the French by Charles II. in 1667; recovered by Sir William Phipps in 1690; ceded to France at the peace of Ryswick in 1697; but conquered again by the English in 1710, and continued to them by the treaty of Utrecht in 1714. Afterward, in conjunction with the Indians, the French gave great disturbance to the English settlers in this country; but their possession was again confirmed by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. Many loyalists from the United States settled here at the close of the Revolution.

Halifax, the capital and chief port of the province, on Chebucto Bay, has one of the finest harbors in the world. It was founded in 1749 by Gen. Cornwallis. It is the chief naval station in British America, and has a large dockyard and a fine naval arsenal. There are about 32,000 inhabitants.

NOVGOROD, an ancient city of European Russia, containing now only 7,000 inhabitants. It is the capital of a government of the same name, and formerly enjoyed many privileges under an independent prince. In the fifteenth century it had 400,000 inhabitants, and was once so rich and powerful, that a common proverb was, "Who can oppose God, or the great city of Novgorod?" Vithold, Great Duke of Lithuania, was the first who, in 1427, obliged the city to pay a tribute of 200,000 crowns. Ivan Wassiliewitsch I., tyrant of Muscovy, made himself master of

it in 1477, and placed a governor in it; and, some time after, came in person and plundered the city, carrying away with him to Moscow, 300 wagons loaded with gold, silver, and precious stones, and other rich goods and furniture; to which place also he transported the inhabitants of Novgorod, sending Muscovites to inhabit their city. Ivan Basilowitz, Great Duke of Muscovy, in 1569, upon a groundless suspicion of their designing to revolt, slew many of its inhabitants, besides a vast number that were trodden to death by a party of his horse, let in upon them. After having plundered the rich church of Sancta Sophia, and all the treasures of the other churches, he also pillaged the archbishopric, and then commanded the archbishop to ride upon a white horse, with a fiddle tied about his neck, and a flute in his hand; and in this posture conducted him to Moscow. The city was taken by the Swedes in 1611, and restored to the Russians in 1634. In 1664 it was populous, and a place of good trade, encompassed with a timber wall, well stored with ammunition and brass ordnance, and defended by a castle. The building of St. Petersburg struck the final blow to Novgorod. This duchy, once the greatest in Russia, was assigned by lot to Ruruk Varegus, their first duke, whose posterity have enlarged their dominions as far as the Greek empire on one side, and Norway on the other.

NUMA POMPILIUS, a Sabine, the second king of Rome, reigned from 714 to 672 B.C. At the death of Romulus, the Romans fixed upon him to be their new king; and two senators were sent to acquaint him with the decision of the senate, and of the people. Numa refused their offer; and it was only at the repeated solicitations and prayers of his friends, that he was prevailed upon to accept the royalty. The beginning of his reign was popular, and he dismissed the 300 body guards which his predecessor had kept

around his person; observing, that he did not distrust a people who had compelled him to reign over them. He was not, like Romulus, fond of war and military expeditions; but he applied himself to tame the ferocity of his subjects, to inculcate in their minds a reverence for the Deity, and to quell their dissensions, by dividing all the citizens into different classes.

NUMANTIA, a town of the Celtiberi in Spain, near the sources of the river Durius (Duero), celebrated for the war of fourteen years, which, though unprotected by walls and towers, it bravely maintained against the Romans. The inhabitants obtained some advantages over the Roman forces, till Scipio Africanus was empowered to finish the war, and to see the destruction of Numantia. He began the siege with an army of 60,000 men, and was bravely opposed by the besieged, who were no more than 4,000 men able to bear arms. Both armies behaved with uncommon valor, and the courage of the Numantines was soon changed into despair and fury. Their provisions began to fail, and they fed upon the flesh of their horses, and afterward of that of their dead companions, and at last were necessitated to draw lots to kill and devour one another. The melancholy situation of their affairs obliged some to surrender to the Roman general. Scipio demanded them to deliver themselves upon the morrow; they refused, and when a longer time had been granted to their petitions, they retired and set fire to their houses, and all destroyed themselves, B.C. 133, so that not even one remained to adorn the triumph of the conqueror. Some historians, however, deny that, and maintain that a number of Numantines delivered themselves into Scipio's hands, and that fifty of them were drawn in triumph at Rome, and the rest sold as slaves. The fall of Numantia was more glorious than that of Carthage or Corinth.

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OATES, THOMAS, was born about 1619. He was the son of an Anabaptist preacher, was educated at Cambridge, and afterward took orders. Dismissed from his chaplaincy in disgrace, in 1677, he turned Roman Catholic, and was admitted into the society of Jesuits. On his return to England, in 1678, however, he declared himself a Protestant, and in conjunction with one Dr. Ezra Tongue, gave information of a pretended popish plot; which met with too ready a belief, and caused the execution and imprisonment of many innocent men. Oates was rewarded with a pension of £1,200 a year, but when James II. came to the throne, he was found guilty of perjury. He was sentenced to be stripped of his clerical habit, to be pilloried in Palace Yard, to be led round Westminster Hall with an inscription declaring his infamy over his head, to be pilloried again in front of the Royal Exchange, to be whipped from Aldgate to Newgate, and, after an interval of two days, to be whipped from Newgate to Tyburn. If, against all probability, he should happen to survive this horrible infliction, he was to be kept a close prisoner during life. Five times every year he was to be brought forth from his dungeon and exposed on the pillory in different parts of the capital. The wretch barely survived his terrible flogging. In the reign of William III. he obtained his liberty, and a pension of £400 a year. He died in 1705.

OBERLIN, JOHN FREDERIC, was born at Strasburg, August 1st, 1740. Under the training of devout parents and a beloved pastor, the boy early cherished the wish to give his life to the ministry, and for that he was educated. He obtained a curacy in the Ban de la Roche, or Steintal, a wild, mountainous district in Alsace. His field was an extensive valley, lying in the primeval roughness of nature, and divided into two parishes, of which the Waldbach was one, and comprising nearly a hundred families. Completely sequestered from the world, the people were little better than savages, ignorant, filthy, and lazy. They knew nothing of the Bible, except that it was a large book said to have

come from God. In this neglected nook, was the opportunity for the labor of good that Oberlin sought, and here he passed his days. He bestirred himself for the physical and social welfare of his children, as he called his parishioners, as well as their spiritual, and he was rewarded by awaking them from the stupor of barbarism to intelligence and industry. Roads took the place of the rude foot-paths; bridges were built where before were only stepping stones, under water three-quarters of the year; agricultural implements were introduced; the youth were taught useful trades; neat cottages were reared in place of wretched cabins of turf; till Oberlin's cure was no longer a dreary waste. He wrought a similar betterment in the moral condition of the people. Schools and libraries were established, and aided him in his simple, earnest, evangelical teachings. His people grew to number three thousand. During the terrors of the French revolution, when elsewhere all worship was at an end, Oberlin was not molested in his work; an immunity which he owed both to the obscure position of his parish and to his own excellence of character. He died in 1826, aged eighty-six, leaving to the world an eminent example of a life wholly consecrated to the highest benevolence, and illuminated by fidelity to both God and man.

OCCUM, SAMPSON, a Mohegan Indian, converted to Christianity; a missionary among the Indians of New York; died 1792.

O'CONNELL, DANIEL, was born in the county of Kerry, Ireland, August 6th, 1775. He was educated at St. Omers and Douay in France, and was at first destined for the church, but the relaxation that admitted Roman Catholics to the bar, opened for him a more brilliant career. He was admitted to the Irish bar in 1798, and became the first advocate of the day. He was prominent in the movement for the political emancipation of the Catholics, and after the reform bill became conspicuous as the head of a parliamentary body, acknowledging his leadership and voting together, called "O'Connell's Tail." About 1840 he commenced agitating the re-

peal of the union, and in January, 1844, the British government procured his trial for treason. A conviction was obtained, followed by a sentence of imprisonment, but it was reversed in the House of Lords. O'Connell, however, was now an old man: the trial shook his nerves and his position. It was followed by the miseries of the potato blight. On the 15th of May, 1847, he died during a sojourn in Italy, which was called a pilgrimage, and supposed to partake of a penitential or religious character.

OCTAVIA, a Roman lady, sister to the Emperor Augustus, and celebrated for her beauty and virtues. Her marriage with Antony was a political step to reconcile her brother and her husband. Antony proved for some time attentive to her, but he soon after despised her for Cleopatra. After the battle of Actium and the death of Antony, Octavia, forgetful of the injuries she had received, took into her house all the children of her husband, and treated them with maternal tenderness. The death of her son Marcellus continually preyed upon the mind of Octavia, and she died of melancholy about ten years before the Christian era. Her brother paid great regard to her memory, by pronouncing himself her funeral oration. The Roman people also showed their respect for her virtues, by their wish to pay her divine honors.

ŒDIPUS, son of Laius, King of Bœotia, and Jocasta. Laius was induced to believe that his son would be his murderer, and the infant was accordingly exposed on Mount Cithæron. He was educated at the court of Polybus, king of Corinth. Being reproached by a haughty nobleman with not being the son of Polybus, he resolved to satisfy himself by making inquiries at the shrine of the Delphic oracle. The answer was as follows: "Avoid thy country if thou wouldst escape the sin of murdering thy father and marrying thy mother." Œdipus, looking on Corinth as his country, fled thence to Thebes, where he killed his father, without knowing him, B.C. 1276, and received the hand of his mother Jocasta. Discovering the horrible calamity which had befallen him, Œdipus put out his eyes, and died far from the scene of his misfortunes. Jocasta hanged herself.

OEHLENSCHLAAGER, ADAM, the greatest dramatic poet in Scandinavian literature,

born at Copenhagen, 1777, died there Jan. 28th, 1850. He rewrote many of his works in German, and thus holds a high place in German letters.

OGLETHORPE, JAMES EDWARD, an English general, was born in London, in 1698. He served under Prince Eugene. He was the founder of the colony of Georgia, for which he obtained the royal charter. He died at the age of eighty-seven. His private life was exceedingly amiable, and he has been eulogized by Thomson, Pope, and Johnson.

OHIO comprises 39,964 square miles. In 1860 it contained 2,339,502 inhabitants. A slightly elevated ridge divides the waters flowing into Lake Erie from those feeding the Ohio, and the eastern and the south-eastern parts are much diversified with hill and valley, but the country is nowhere mountainous. Swamps and morasses occasionally occur, but nine-tenths of the state is susceptible of cultivation, and three-fourths eminently productive. The river bottoms are of exuberant richness. In the centre and north-west are many prairies, but the greater part of the country was originally covered with forests of gigantic trees. The chief are the Ohio, Muskingum, Hockhocking, Scioto, Miami, Maumee, Sandusky, and Cuyahoga. Ohio is amply provided with the most useful of minerals, iron and coal, and lime. Valuable salt-springs occur. The fertile soil gives abundant crops of maize, wheat, rye, and other grains. The vintage is becoming an important harvest. Drovers of fat cattle come to eastern markets from the valleys of the Scioto, and beef is largely packed. Swine are a staple production, and Cincinnati, where their flesh is largely cured and packed, has been jocosely called Porkopolis.

The history of Ohio belongs almost to the present century. Its growth is among the marvels of our country. The first permanent settlement in its limits was made at Marietta, April, 1788, by a party of emigrants from New England. In 1791 a body of French emigrants founded Gallipolis. In 1796 several towns along Lake Erie were settled by bands from New England. In 1799 the first territorial legislature was assembled at Cincinnati. In 1802 it was erected into an independent state.

The general assembly and state officers are chosen biennially by the people. The elective



franchise is enjoyed by every white male citizen of the United States, aged twenty-one, who shall have been a resident of the state one year. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, district courts, courts of common pleas, courts of probate, justices of the peace, and such tribunals inferior to the supreme court as the general assembly may establish. The judges and justices are chosen by the people. The constitution provides that there shall be a thorough and efficient system of common schools established throughout the state. An asylum for the deaf and dumb is sustained at Columbus, and an institution for the blind.

Columbus, the capital, is pleasantly situated on the Scioto, in a rich and beautiful district. It is built on a regular plan, with a pretty square in the centre, about which stand some of the principal public buildings. In 1853 it had 25,000 inhabitants. The largest city of Ohio, and the metropolis of the West, is Cincinnati, on the north bank of the Ohio River, 116 miles south-west from Columbus. Population in 1856, 470,000. It has grown with great rapidity, and now ranks as the third place in population in the United States. It is an extensive manufacturing place; although destitute of water power, yet this destitution has been extensively compensated by the employment of steam. From the position Cincinnati holds as the great emporium of the West, it must continue to increase with the growth of the rapidly rising country with which it is connected. Seventy years ago Cincinnati was a mere military outpost.

On the 28th of December, 1788, a band of emigrants from New England and New Jersey landed on the north bank of the Ohio, opposite the mouth of Licking River, to commence the settlement of a town. Their first log cabin was built on a spot which is now on Front Street, a little east of Main Street. In January, 1789, they proceeded to lay off their town, which was then covered with a dense forest; the lower bottom bearing huge sycamore and sugar maple trees, and the upper, beech and oak. The streets were run, and the corners marked upon the trees. To their projected city they gave the name of Losantiville, which was afterward changed to Cincinnati. In 1802 it was incorporated as a town, with a population of less than 1,000 inhabitants. Thus recent is the origin, and thus rapid has been the growth, of this beautiful city, which long since obtained the name of the Queen City of the West.

Cleveland is the most important port of the state on Lake Erie. Its trade is great and growing, and in 1860 it had 43,417 inhabitants. It derives its name from General Moses Cleveland, an agent of the Connecticut land company, who accompanied the first surveying party to the Connecticut Reserve, and under whose direction the town was first surveyed in 1796. Cleveland was incorporated as a village in 1814, and as a city in 1836. Population in 1796, three; in 1858, 60,000.

OLDCASTLE, Sir JOHN, also known as Lord Cobham, was an adherent of Wickliffe, the head of the Lollards, and esteemed by Henry IV. and Henry V. The latter monarch

at the instance of the Archbishop of Canterbury expostulated with him, and endeavored to reconcile him to the Catholic faith. But Cobham persevered in his opinion, and was at length condemned to the flames for his religious tenets. Cobham escaped from the Tower and four years afterward was retaken. He was hung by the waist in chains from a gallows, his legs having been previously broken, and was thus roasted and consumed, 1417.

OLDENBURG, a grand-duchy in the north of Germany, containing 2,470 square miles, and 287,000 inhabitants. The house of Oldenburg is one of the most illustrious in Europe; the Emperor of Russia, the King of Denmark, and the late royal family of Sweden are descended from it.

OLYMPIAS, a celebrated woman, who was daughter of a king of Epirus, and who married Philip, King of Macedonia, by whom he had Alexander the Great. Her haughtiness, and more probably her infidelity, obliged Philip to repudiate her, and to marry Cleopatra, the niece of King Attalus. Olympias was sensible of this injury, and Alexander showed his disapprobation of his father's measures by retiring from the court to his mother. The murder of Philip, which soon followed this disgrace, and which some have attributed to the intrigues of Olympias, was productive of the greatest extravagances. The queen paid the highest honor to her husband's murderer. She gathered his mangled limbs, placed a crown of gold on his head, and laid his ashes near those of Philip.

When Alexander was dead, Olympias seized the government of Macedonia; and, to establish her usurpation, she cruelly put to death Aradæus, son of Philip, with his wife Eurydice, as also Nicanor, the brother of Cassander, with a hundred leading men of Macedon, who were inimical to her interest. Such barbarities did not long remain unpunished; Cassander besieged her in Pydna, where she had retired with the remains of her family, and she was obliged to surrender after an obstinate siege. The conqueror ordered her to be put to death. A body of two hundred soldiers were directed to put the bloody command into execution, but the splendor and majesty of the queen

disarmed their courage, and she was at last massacred by those whom she had cruelly deprived of their children, about 316 B.C.

OLYMPIC GAMES were celebrated by the ancient Greeks in honor of Jupiter Olympus, on the banks of the Alpheius, in the Peloponnesus. They occurred once in every four years, and the Greeks computed time from them. The competitors contended for glory only, and the prize was a wreath from the sacred olive-tree near Olympia, and the honor of being proclaimed victor. No females, except the priestesses of Ceres, were permitted to witness them, death being denounced to the woman who should be present. The competitors prepared themselves by ten months' exercise in the gymnasium at Elis. The games consisted of races on horseback and on foot, leaping, throwing the discus, wrestling, boxing, musical and poetical contests.

Racing was considered in Greece a matter of the highest national importance; had it not been so, Sophocles would have been guilty of a great fault in his *Electra*, where he puts into the mouth of the messenger who comes to recount the death of Orestes, a long description of this sport. Of the training and management of the Olympic race-horse we are unfortunately left in ignorance: all that can be inferred being the fact that the equestrian candidates were required to enter their names and send their horses to Elis at least thirty days before the celebration of the games commenced, and that the charioteers and riders, whether owners or proxies, went through a prescribed course of exercises during the ensuing month. They had their course for full aged horses, and their course for colts, and their prize for which mares only started, resembling in these respects our degenerate selves. It is true that the race with riding-horses was neither so magnificent nor so expensive, and consequently not considered so royal, as the race with chariots yet they had their gentlemen-jockeys in those days, and noted ones too, for among the number were Philip, King of Macedon, and Hiero, King of Syracuse. The want of stirrups alone must have been a terrible deficiency. But horsemanship was an art in which the Greeks excelled. Homer, although

he mentions only chariots in his account of the siege of Troy, speaks of riding so familiarly in some parts of his Iliad and Odyssey, that it must have been practiced among the Greeks before the composition of either of these poems. In the fifteenth book of the Iliad, he represents the strength and activity of Ajax, when he fought in defense of the Grecian ships of war that were attacked by the Trojans, and leaped from one ship to another, by the readiness and address with which a skillful horseman would vault from the back of one horse to that of another; and his ability to defend many ships at once by that of an accomplished rider, who is capable of managing and controlling several horses at the same time.

High on the decks, with vast gigantic stride,
The god-like hero stalks from side to side.
So when a horseman from the watery mead
(Skilled in the manage of the bounding steed,)
Drives four fair coursers, practiced to obey,
To some great city through the public way;
Safe in his art, as side by side they run,
He shifts his seat, and vaults from one to one,
And now to this, and now to that he flies;
Admiring numbers follow with their eyes.

Pope's Homer.

The Olympiad from which the Greeks began to reckon, was, according to Petavius, 777; according to Usher, 772; and according to Calvisius, 774 B.C. Gatterer and most of the moderns call it 776. An Olympiad was a period of four years.

OMAR I., the second caliph, or successor of Mahomet. He was raised to this dignity after the death of Abubeker in 634. Soon after his entering upon the government, he carried on wars with Ali, who was the lawful successor of Mahomet, and who had retired into Arabia. Omar having defeated Ali, taken the city Bosra, and many other places of Arabia, turned his arms against the Christians, and entered Syria, where he gained a victory over Theodorus Bogarius, brother to the Emperor Heraclius, and afterward returned victorious into Arabia. The emperor, who was then at Jerusalem, desirous to provide for his own safety, took the relics and most precious ornaments of the temple; and leaving Theodorus with Bahamus, retired to Constantinople. In 635 Omar gathered his forces, and marched against Damascus, which he took the year following, and afterward all

Phoenicia, and committed a thousand violences to force people to embrace his religion. A part of his army subdued Alexandria, burning the great library, and not long after all Egypt. In the mean time, Omar went in person to attack Jerusalem, and after two years' siege entered it victoriously in 638. Omar thus reduced all Judea to his obedience, and Jerusalem was, from that time, possessed by infidels till the conquest of it by Godfrey of Bouillon in 1099. In 639 he subdued all Mesopotamia, and at the same time built the city of Cairo, near the ruins of Memphis, in Egypt. And lastly, in 643, he made himself master of Persia. From the time of his taking Jerusalem he made his ordinary residence in that city, and built a magnificent temple there in honor of Mahomet; and, after having reigned ten years, he was killed by a Persian, one of his domestics, and buried at Medina in 644.

OMAR II., the tenth caliph, or successor of Mahomet, was chosen after the death of his cousin, Solyman Hascoïn, in the beginning of the year 721, at the time Constantinople was besieged. He collected all his forces, and attacked that city; but the besieged made so stout a resistance, and so good use of their fire-works, that he was forced to raise it. And scarcely was Marvan, or Masalma, the general of the army, safe out of the channel of Constantinople, when a dreadful tempest destroyed most of his ships, and many others were consumed by fire; so that of 300 ships only fifteen escaped, five of which were taken by the Christians, and the other ten proceeded with the news of this defeat to the caliph, who, imagining that God was angry with him for permitting Christians the exercise of their religion in his dominions, made all those whose fathers or mothers were Mohammedans, embrace Mohammedanism on pain of death, and upon great penalties forbade the eating of swine's flesh, and the use of wine. He discharged all Christians that turned Mohammedans from paying taxes and customs, and cruelly persecuted the others; and pushed on by a false zeal, he sent letters to Leo Isauricus, the emperor at Constantinople, to embrace Mohammedanism, and sent a renegade to instruct him in the way of it; but he died soon after, having reigned two years.

OPIE, AMELIA, was the daughter of Dr. Alderson, of Norwich, England, and the spouse of John Opie, the eminent historical painter, whom she survived nearly half a century. She was the authoress of many moral tales, of which "Illustrations of Lying" was considered the best. The last twenty-five years of her life she was a member of the society of Friends, and lived in the strictest retirement at Norwich, where she died in 1853, over eighty years of age.

ORACLES were impostures of the ancient priesthood, supported by the policy of governments, and apparently credited by habit and education; but constantly used to impose on the soldiery and ignorant multitudes. No institutions were more famous than the ancient oracles of Egypt, Greece, and Rome. They were impudently said to be the will of the gods themselves, and were consulted, not only upon every important matter, but even in the affairs of private life. To make peace or war, to introduce a change of government, to plant a colony, to enact laws, to raise an edifice, or to marry, were all sufficient reasons to consult the pretended will of the gods.

The small province of Bœotia could once boast of twenty-five oracles, and the Peloponnesus of the same number. Not only the chief of the gods gave oracles, but in process of time heroes were admitted to enjoy the same privileges; and the oracles of a Trophonius and an Antinoüs were soon able to rival the fame of those of Apollo and Jupiter. The temple of Delphi seemed to claim a superiority over the other temples; its fame was once so extended, and its riches were so great, that not only private persons, but even kings and numerous armies, made it an object of plunder and of rapine.

The manner of delivering oracles was different. A priestess at Delphi was permitted to pronounce the oracles of the god, and her delivery of the answers was always attended with acts of apparent madness and desperate fury. Not only women, but even doves, were the ministers of the temple of Dodona; and the suppliant votary was often startled to hear his questions readily answered by the decayed trunk or the spreading branches of a neighboring oak. Ammon conveyed his answers in a plain and open manner; but

Amphiaraus required many ablutions and preparatory ceremonies, and he generally communicated his oracles to his suppliants in dreams and visions. Sometimes the first words that were heard, after issuing from the temple, were deemed the answers of the oracles, and sometimes the nodding or shaking of the head of the statue, the motions of fishes in a neighboring lake, or their reluctance in accepting the food which was offered to them, were as strong and valid as the most express and most minute explanations.

Some have believed that all the oracles of the earth ceased at the birth of Christ. It was, indeed, the beginning of their decline; but they remained in repute, and were consulted, though perhaps not so frequently, till the fourth century, when Christianity began to triumph over paganism. The oracles often suffered themselves to be bribed. Alexander did it; but it is well known that Lysander failed in the attempt. Herodotus, who first mentioned the corruption which often prevailed in the oracular temples of Greece and Egypt, has been severely treated for his remarks by the historian Plutarch. Demosthenes is also a witness of the corruption; and he observed, that the oracles of Greece were servilely subservient to the will and pleasure of Philip, king of Macedon, as he beautifully expresses it by the word *Philip-pized*.

When in a state of inspiration, the eyes of the priestess at Delphi suddenly sparkled, her hair stood on end, and a shivering ran over all her body. In this convulsive state she spoke the oracles of the god, often with loud howlings and cries, and her articulations were taken down by the priest, and set in order. Sometimes the spirit of inspiration was more gentle, and not always violent; yet Plutarch mentions one of the priestesses who was thrown into such an excessive fury, that not only those that consulted the oracle, but also the priests that conducted her to the sacred tripod, and attended her during the inspiration, were terrified, and forsook the temple; and so violent was the fit, that she continued for some days in the most agonizing situation, and at last died.

At Delphos, the Pythia, before she placed herself on the tripod, used to wash her whole body, and particularly her hair, in the waters

of the fountain Castalia, at the foot of Mount Parnassus. She also shook a laurel-tree that grew near the place, and sometimes ate the leaves, with which she crowned herself.

The priestesses of Delphi always appeared in the garments of virgins, to intimate their purity and modesty; and they were solemnly bound to observe the strictest laws of temperance and chastity, that neither fantastical dresses nor lascivious behavior might bring the office, the religion, or the sanctity of the place, into contempt. There was originally but one Pythia, besides subordinate priests; but afterward two were chosen, and sometimes more. The most celebrated of all these is Phemonoe, who is supposed by some to have been the first who gave oracles at Delphi. The oracles were delivered in hexameter verse, a custom which was some time after discontinued. The Pythia was consulted only one month in the year, about the spring. It was always required that those who consulted the oracle should make large presents to Apollo, and from thence arose the opulence, splendor, and magnificence of the celebrated temple of Delphi. Sacrifices were also offered to the divinity; and, if the omens proved unfavorable, the priestess refused to give an answer. There were generally five priests who assisted at the offering of the sacrifices; and there was also another who attended the Pythia, and assisted her in receiving the oracle.

The most celebrated of the ancient oracles were Delphos, Delos, Ammon, Dodona, the Roman Augurs, and the Sibylline Books. We give an account derived from the credulous descriptions of antiquity.

* Delphos, now called *Castri*, the capital of Phocis, in Greece, was anciently much celebrated for its temple and oracle of Apollo. It was also called *Pytho* by the poets, from the serpent Python, which Apollo killed in this place. Pausanias, however, says that this name Pytho was given to the city of Delphos by Pythis, son of Delphus, and grandson of Lycorus. The Greek historians gave to this city the name of Delphos, which some suppose to have been so called from *adelphoi*, 'brethren,' because Apollo and his brother Bacchus were both worshiped there; and others, with greater probability, derive the name from *delphos*, single or solitary,

referring to the retired situation of the city among the mountains.

Justin questions which was the most worthy of admiration, the fortification of the place, or the majesty of the god who here delivered his oracles. The temple of Apollo occupied a large space, and many streets opened to it. The first discovery which laid the foundation of the extraordinary veneration in which the oracle of Delphos was held, and of the riches accumulated in the temple, is said to have been occasioned by some goats which were feeding on Mount Parnassus, near a deep and large cavern with a narrow entrance. These goats having been observed by the goatherd, Coretas, to leap and frisk after a strange manner, and to utter unusual sounds immediately upon their approach to the mouth of the cavern, he had the curiosity to view it, and found himself seized with the like fit of madness, skipping, dancing, and foretelling things to come.

At the news of this discovery multitudes flocked thither, many of whom were possessed with such frantic enthusiasm, that they threw themselves headlong into the opening of the cavern, insomuch that it was necessary to issue an edict, forbidding all persons to approach it. This surprising place was treated with singular veneration, and was soon covered with a kind of chapel, which was originally made of laurel boughs, and resembled a large hut. This, according to the Phocian tradition, was surrounded by one of wax, raised up by bees; after this a third was built of solid copper, said to have been the workmanship of Vulcan.

This last was destroyed by an earthquake, or (according to some authors) by fire, which melted the copper; and then a sumptuous temple, altogether of stone, was erected by two excellent architects, Trophimus and Agamedes. This edifice was destroyed by fire in the 58th Olympiad, or 548 B.C. The Amphictyons proposed to be at the charge of building another; but the Alcmeonides, a rich family of Athens, came to Delphos, obtained the honor of executing the building, and made it more magnificent than they had at first proposed. The riches of this temple, amassed by the donations of those who frequented it and consulted the oracle, exposed it to various depredations. At length the

Gauls, under the conduct of Brennus, came hither for the same purpose, about 278 B.C.; but they were repulsed with great slaughter. Last of all, Nero robbed it of five hundred of its most precious brazen and golden statues.

It has not been ascertained at what time this oracle was founded. It is certain, however, that Apollo was not the first who was consulted here. Æschylus, in his tragedy of "Eumenides," says Terra was the first who issued oracles at Delphi; after her, Themis; then Phœbe, another daughter of Terra, and, as it is said, mother of Latona, and grandmother to Apollo. Pausanias says, that before Themis, Terra and Neptune had delivered oracles in this place, and some say that Saturn had also been consulted here. At length the oracle of Apollo became established and permanent; and such was its reputation, and such were the multitudes from all parts that came to consult it, that the riches which were thus brought into the temple and city, became so considerable as to be compared with those of the Persian kings.

About the time when this oracle was first discovered, the whole mystery requisite for obtaining the prophetic gift, is said to have been merely to approach the cavern and inhale the vapor that issued from it, and then the god inspired all persons indiscriminately; but at length, several enthusiasts, in the excess of their fury, having thrown themselves headlong into the cavern, it was thought expedient to contrive a prevention of this accident, which frequently occurred. Accordingly, the priests placed over the hole, whence the vapor issued, a machine which they called a tripod, because it had three feet, and commissioned a woman to seat herself in it, where she might inhale the vapor without danger, because the three feet of the machine stood firmly upon the rock. This priestess was named Pythia, from the serpent Python, slain by Apollo, or from the Greek *pythesthai*, signifying to inquire, because people came to Delphi to consult this deity. The females first employed were virgins, selected with great precaution; but the only qualification necessary was to be able to speak and repeat what the god dictated.

This was done by placing her ear close to one of the horns of the altar, and listening to

the voice of one of Apollo's priests, to whom the *question* had been communicated. This priest, who stood near the altar, in the interior of the temple, having been assisted by his brethren in the necessary devotions and sacrifices, opened the Book of Fate, which was deposited in the temple, and after many prayers worked the required problems. The answer, which from the nature of the case in hand, was often *conditional*, being communicated to the priestess on the tripod, was, after various ceremonies, delivered to the inquiring multitude, or to the individual who came privately to consult the oracle.

The custom of choosing young virgins continued for a long time, till one of them, who was extremely beautiful, was dishonored by a young Thessalian. An express law was then enacted, that none should be chosen but women above fifty years old. At first there was only one priestess, but afterward there were two or three. The oracles were not delivered every day: but gifts and sacrifices were in some cases presented for a long time, and even for a whole year; and it was only once a year, in the beginning of spring, that Apollo inspired the priestess. Except at this time she was forbidden, under pain of death, to go into the sanctuary to consult Apollo.

Alexander, before his expedition into Asia, came to Delphi on one of those days when the sanctuary was shut, and entreated the priestess to mount the tripod; which she steadily refused, alleging the law which forbade her. The prince became impatient, and drew the priestess by force from her cell, and whilst he was conducting her to the sanctuary, she took occasion to exclaim, "*My son, thou art invincible!!*" As soon as these words were pronounced, Alexander cried out that he was satisfied, and would have no other oracle.

It is here to be observed, however, that great but unnecessary preparations were often made, for giving mysteriousness to the oracle, and for commanding the respect that was paid to it. Among other circumstances relating to the sacrifices that were offered, the priestess herself fasted three days, and before she ascended the tripod, she bathed herself in the fountain Castalia. She drank water from that fountain, and chewed laurel-leaves gathered near it. She was then led

into the sanctuary by the priests, who placed her upon the tripod.

As soon as she began to be agitated by the divine exhalation, said to arise from the cavern, but which was merely the vapor of incense burnt there, in order to give more mystery to the affair, her hair stood on end, her aspect became wild and ghastly, her mouth began to foam, and her whole body was suddenly seized with violent tremblings. In this condition she attempted to escape from the priests, who detained her by force, while her shrieks and howlings made the whole temple resound, and filled the bystanders with a sacred horror.

At length, unable to resist the impulse of the god, she surrendered herself up to him, and at certain intervals uttered from the bottom of her stomach, by the faculty or power of ventriloquism, some unconnected words, which the priests ranged in order, and put in form of verse, giving them a connection which they had not when they were delivered by the priestess. The oracle being pronounced, the priestess was taken off the tripod, and conducted back to her cell, where she continued several days, to recover herself. Lucan tells us, that speedy death was frequently the consequence of her enthusiasm. The oracles pronounced by the priestesses being generally delivered to the poets, who attended on the occasion, and being put by them into wretched verse, gave occasion to the raillery that "Apollo, the prince of the muses, was the worst of poets." The priests and priestesses, to whose conduct the responses of the oracle were committed, were, however, frequently guilty of fraud and imposture. And many instances might be mentioned, in which the Delphic priestess was not superior to corruption. Hence she persuaded the Lacedæmonians to assist the people of Athens in the expulsion of the thirty tyrants. Hence, also, she caused Demaratus to be divested of the royal dignity to make way for Cleomenes; and supported the impostor Lysander, when he endeavored to change the succession to the throne of Sparta. It is not improbable, that Themistocles, who well knew the importance of acting against the Persians by sea, inspired the god with the answer he gave, "to defend themselves with walls of wood."

The answers were likewise, on many occasions, equivocal. Thus, when Croesus was about to invade the Medes, he consulted this oracle upon the success of the war, and received for answer, that by passing the river Halys, he should ruin a great empire. But he was left to conjecture, or to determine by the event, whether this empire was his own or that of his enemies. Such was also the same oracle's answer to Pyrrhus,—'*Aio te, Eacide, Romanos vincere posse*,'—which meant, "I say, O son of Æacus, that thou canst overcome the Romans," or, "I say, O son of Æacus, that the Romans can overcome thee."

The oracle of Apollo, in Delos, was one of the most famous oracles in the world, not only for its antiquity, but for the richness of the sacred presents dedicated to the god, and the numbers of persons that resorted hither from all parts for advice; in which respect it surpassed not only all the oracles of other gods, but even others of Apollo himself,—that of Delphos alone excepted. Some writers say that the island had the name of Delos from the clear and simple terms in which the answers were here given by the oracle, contrary to the ambiguity observed in other places; but it was consulted only while Apollo made Delos his summer residence, for his winter abode was at Patara, a city of Lycia. The presents offered by the votaries to Apollo, were laid on the altar, which some said was erected by Apollo himself, when he was only four years old, and formed of the horns of goats, killed by Diana on Mount Cynthus. It was preserved pure from blood and every kind of pollution, as offensive to Apollo. The whole island was an asylum, which extended to all living creatures, dogs excepted, which were not suffered to be brought on shore.

The native deities, Apollo and Diana, had three very magnificent temples erected for them in this island. That of Apollo was, according to Strabo (lib. x.), begun by Erysiathus, the son of Cecrops, who is said to have possessed this island 1558 B.C.; but it was afterward much enlarged and embellished at the general charge of all the Grecian states, but Plutarch says that it was one of the most stately buildings in the universe, and describes its altar as deserving a place among

the seven wonders of the world. The inscription in this temple, as Aristotle informs us (*Ethic.*, l. i., c. 9), was as follows: "Of all things the most beautiful is justice; the most useful is health; and the most agreeable is the possession of the beloved object." Round the temple were magnificent porticoes, built at the charge of various princes, as appears from the still legible inscriptions. To this temple the neighboring islands sent yearly a company of virgins to celebrate with dancing the festival of Apollo and his sister Diana, and to make offerings in the name of their respective cities. Delos was held in such reverence by most nations; that even the Persians, after having laid waste the other islands, and everywhere destroyed the temples of the gods, spared Delos; and Datis, the Persian admiral, forebore to anchor in the harbor.

The temple of Jupiter Ammon was in the deserts of Libya, nine days' journey from Alexandria. It had a famous oracle, which, according to ancient tradition, was established about eighteen centuries before the time of Augustus, by two doves which flew away from Thebais in Egypt, and came, one to Dodona, and the other to Libya, where the people were soon informed of their divine mission. The oracle of Ammon was consulted by Hercules, Perseus, and others; but when it pronounced Alexander to be the son of Jupiter, such flattery used up its long established reputation, and in the age of Plutarch it was scarcely known. The situation of the temple was pleasant; and there was near it a fountain whose waters were cold at noon and midnight, and warm in the morning and evening. There were above 100 priests in the temple, but the elders only delivered oracles. There was also an oracle of Jupiter Ammon in Æthiopia.

Dodona was a town of Thesprotia in Epirus. There was in its neighborhood, upon a small hill called Tmarus, a celebrated oracle of Jupiter. The town and temple of the god were first built by Deucalion, after the universal deluge. It was supposed to be the most ancient oracle of all Greece, and according to the traditions of the Egyptians mentioned by Herodotus, it was founded by a dove. Two black doves, as he relates, took their flight from the city of Thebes in Egypt,

one of which flew to the temple of Jupiter Ammon, and the other to Dodona, where with a human voice they acquainted the inhabitants of the country that Jupiter had consecrated the ground, which in future would give oracles. The extensive grove which surrounded Jupiter's temple was endowed with the gift of prophecy, and oracles were frequently delivered by the sacred oaks, and the doves which inhabited the place. This fabulous tradition of the oracular power of the doves is explained by Herodotus, who observes that some Phœnicians carried away two priestesses from Egypt, one of whom went to fix her residence at Dodona, where the oracle was established. It may further be observed, that the fable might have been founded upon the double meaning of the word *peleiai*, which signifies *doves* in most parts of Greece, while in the dialect of the Epirots, it implies *old women*. In ancient times the oracles were delivered by the murmuring of a neighboring fountain, but the custom was afterward changed. Large kettles were suspended in the air near a brazen statue, which held a lash in its hand. When the wind blew strong, the statue was agitated and struck against one of the kettles, which communicated the motion to all the rest, and raised that clattering and discordant din which continued for a while, and from which the priests drew their predictions. Some suppose that the noise was occasioned by the shaking of the leaves and boughs of an old oak, which the people frequently consulted, and from which they pretended to receive the oracles. It may be observed with more probability that the oracles were delivered by the priests, who, by concealing themselves behind the oaks, gave occasion to the multitude to believe that the trees were endowed with the power of prophecy. As the ship Argo was built with some of the oaks of the forest of Dodona, there were some beams in the vessel which gave oracles to the Argonauts, and warned them against the approach of calamity. Within the forest of Dodona there was a stream with a fountain of cool water, which had the power of lighting a torch as soon as it touched it. This fountain was totally dry at noon-day, and was restored to its full course at midnight, from which time till the following noon it began to de-

crease, and at the usual hour was again deprived of its waters. The oracles of Dodona were originally delivered by men, but afterward by women.

The Roman Augurs were certain priests at Rome who foretold future events, and took their name, *ab avium garritu*. They were first created by Romulus to the number of three. Servius Tullius added a fourth; the tribunes of the people, A.U.C. 454, increased the number to nine; and Sylla added six more during his dictatorship. They had a particular college, and the chief amongst them was called *magister collegii*. Their office was honorable; and if any one of them was convicted of any crime, he could not be deprived of his privilege; an indulgence granted to no other sacerdotal body at Rome. The augur generally sat on a high tower, to make his observations. His face was turned toward the east, and he had the north to his left, and the south at his right. With a crooked staff he divided the face of the heavens into four different parts, and afterward sacrificed to the gods, covering his head with his vestment. There were generally five things from which the augurs drew omens: the first consisted in observing the phenomena of the heavens, such as thunder, lightning, comets, &c. The second kind of omen was drawn from the chirping or flying of birds. The third was from the sacred chickens, whose eagerness or indifference in eating the bread which was thrown to them, was looked upon as lucky or unlucky. The fourth was from quadrupeds, from their crossing or appearing in some unaccustomed place. The fifth was from different casualties, which were called *dira*, such as spilling salt upon a table, or wine upon one's clothes, hearing strange noises, stumbling or sneezing, meeting a wolf, hare, fox, or pregnant bitch. Thus did the Romans draw their prophecies; the sight of birds on the left hand was always deemed a lucky object, and the words *sinister et levus*, though generally supposed to be terms of ill luck, were always used by the augurs in an auspicious sense.

A strange old woman came once to Tarquinius Superbus, king of Rome, with nine books, which she said were the Oracles of the Sibyls, and proffered to sell them. But the king making some scruple about the price, she went away and burnt three of them, and returning

with the six, asked the same sum as before. Tarquin only laughed at the humor; upon which the old lady left him once more, and after she had burnt three others, came again with those that were left, but still kept to her old terms. The king began now to wonder at her obstinacy, and thinking there might be something more than ordinary in the business, sent for the augurs to consult what was to be done. They, when their divinations were performed, soon acquainted him what a piece of impiety he had been guilty of, by refusing a treasure sent to him from heaven, and commanded him to give whatever she demanded for the books that remained. The woman received her money, and delivered the writings, and only charging them by all means to keep them sacred, immediately vanished. Two of the nobility were presently after chosen to be the keepers of these oracles, which were laid up with all imaginable care in the capitol, in a chest under ground. They could not be consulted without a special order of the senate, which was never granted, unless upon the receiving some notable defeat, upon the rising of any considerable mutiny or sedition in the state, or upon some other extraordinary occasion. The number of priests in this, as in most other orders, was several times altered. The *duumviri* continued till about the year of the city 388, when the tribunes of the people preferred a law, that there should be ten men elected for this service, part out of the nobility, and part out of the commons. We meet with the *decemviri* all along from hence, till about the time of Sylla the dictator, when the *quindecimviri* occur. It were needless to give any further account of the Sibyls, than that they are generally agreed to have been ten in number; for which we have the authority of Varro, though some make them nine, some four, some three, and some only one. They all lived in different ages and countries, were all prophets, and, according to common opinion, foretold the coming of our Saviour. As to the writing, Dempster tells us it was on linen.

Solinus acquaints us that the books which Tarquin bought were burnt in the conflagration of the capitol, the year before Sylla's dictatorship. Yet there were others of their inspired writings, or at least copies or extracts of them, gathered up in Greece and other

parts, upon a special search made by order of the senate; which were kept with the same care as the former, till about the time of Theodosius the Great, when the greatest part of the senate having chosen the Christian faith, they began to grow out of fashion; till at last Stilicho burnt them all under Honorius, for which he is severely censured by the poet Rutilius.

ORDEAL. In the dark ages, when judicial proceedings were exceedingly imperfect, it was believed that on extraordinary occasions, the guilt or innocence of a suspected person would be manifested by a direct interposition of the Deity, and various methods were resorted to, to procure conviction or acquittal. These were termed ordeals, or judgments of God. As late as the sixteenth century it was generally believed that if a murderer was forced to touch the corpse of the person he had murdered, blood would flow from the lips and wounds.

The ordeal was of various kinds; that of fire, that of red-hot iron, that of cold water, that of judicial pottage, that of hallowed cheese, that of boiling water, that of the cross, and that of dice laid on relics covered with a woolen cloth. There were particular masses for each species of ordeal.

Fire ordeal was performed either by taking up in the hand, unhurt, a piece of red-hot iron, of one, two, or three pounds weight; or else by walking barefoot and blindfold, over nine red-hot ploughshares, laid lengthwise, at unequal distances; and if the party escaped without injury, he was adjudged innocent, but if otherwise, as without collusion it generally happened, he was then condemned as guilty. One of these proceedings was as follows: a ball of iron was prepared, of one, two, or three pounds weight, according to the nature of the accusation. When all the prayers and religious ceremonies were finished, the ball was heated red-hot. The prisoner, having crossed himself, and sprinkled his hand with holy water, took the ball of hot iron in his hand, and carried it to the distance of nine feet; after which his hand was placed in a bag, that was sealed and remained so for nine days; at the expiration of which it was examined, in the presence of twelve persons of each party. If any marks of burning appeared

upon it, the accused was found guilty; if otherwise, he was declared innocent.

The ordeal of water was performed either by plunging the bare arm up to the elbow in boiling water, or by casting the suspected person into a river or pond of cold water, and if he floated therein, without any action of swimming, it was deemed an evidence of his guilt, but if he sunk he was acquitted! The latter ordeal was adopted with regard to witches and sorcerers, and was thought infallible! The Chinese, Africans, Tartars, and Hindoos have their ordeals.

ORIGEN, surnamed **ADAMANTIUS**, was born at Alexandria about A.D. 186. His father was a Christian martyr. Origen early became famous as a student and teacher of Christianity. He practiced peculiar austerities, and suffered a strange mutilation agreeably to what he thought the meaning of Matthew xix. 12. Through his life he was in danger from the rage of heathen enemies and the jealousy of theological opponents. He died at Tyre in the year 253. His life was marked by great piety, moderation, meekness, humility, and industry, although his fancy led him astray in wild and extravagant speculations. Comparatively few fragments of his voluminous works have been preserved; the most important is the famous "Hexapla," which presents in successive columns, the Hebrew text of Scripture, Hebrew in Greek characters, and the Greek versions of Aquila, Symmachus, the Seventy, and Theodotion; other Greek versions being occasionally added in additional columns. This was a critical attempt to amend the text of the Septuagint.

ORKNEY ISLANDS, or **ORCADES**, a cluster of small islands north of Scotland, about sixty-seven in number, only twenty-seven of which are inhabited. The population of the group is 31,500: Pomona, or Mainland, the principal island, sustains about half this. Kirkwall, on Pomona, is the chief town, having some 3,500 inhabitants. These islands are scattered over a space fifty miles long and thirty broad. Little of the soil is adapted for agriculture, although it affords good pasturage. Game is abundant; red grouse, plovers, and snipe, eagles, wild ducks, geese, solan geese or gannets, swans, &c., thronging

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to the Orkneys. They are mentioned by several Roman writers, and were visited by the fleets of Agricola, sent to explore the island. The first inhabitants were the Picts, but they were subdued by the Norwegians, or Northmen, at the time that that enterprising people effected conquests through almost every part of Europe. Orkney, after this, was governed by a succession of warlike earls, who kept up a powerful fleet, with which they ravaged the coasts of England, Ireland, and Scotland; in the latter they conquered several of the northern counties. The black raven, which was the flag of Orkney, continued to be an object of terror till the time of James III. of Scotland, in 1474, when the Orkneys were ceded to that monarch as part of the marriage portion of Margaret of Denmark; and this treaty was afterward confirmed on the marriage of James VI. with Anne of Denmark. The piratical expeditions were then suppressed, and the group has long been a well regulated and peaceable portion of the British empire.

ORLEANS, an ancient dukedom borne by princes of the blood royal in France. There are two distinct lines. The first commenced with Louis, second son of Charles V., who became regent in consequence of the mental incapacity of his brother Charles VI. in 1393, and was murdered by his kinsman the Duke of Burgundy in 1407. His grandson came to the throne as Louis XII. The second line began with Philip, second son of Louis XIII., created Duke of Orleans in 1660. His son Philip was regent during the minority of Louis XV. His great-grandson, Louis Joseph Philip, was born in 1747, and bore the title of Duke of Chartres until his father's death in 1787. He was rich and handsome, and, although not deficient in intelligence, ignorant, credulous, selfish, sensual, and debauched. In the revolution he took part against the royal family, rendering himself infamous by his libels on Marie Antoinette. After the death of the king, for which he voted, the Jacobins, who had no farther use for him, procured his condemnation by the revolutionary tribunal. He met his fate with firmness, Nov. 6th, 1793. He is well known by his assumed name of *Egalité*, or Citizen Equality. He was the father of the late King of the French. [See LOUIS PHILIPPE.]

ORLOFF, GREGORY, a Russian general and political intriguer, instrumental in elevating his mistress, Catharine II., to the throne. She loaded him with honors and titles. Being disappointed in his hope of sharing the crown with her, he refused a private marriage, and was ordered to travel. He died insane, 1783. He had one son by the empress, named Bobrinski. Alexis, his brother and fellow-conspirator, was a man of gigantic stature and strength, and is said to have strangled the emperor Peter with his own hands.

ORONO, a chief of the Penobscot tribe, labored to promote Christianity, died at Oldtown, Me., in 1801, aged 113 years. His wife died in 1809, aged 115.

ORPHEUS, an ancient Greek poet and musician, flourished before Homer. Many fables are related of him.

ORTHEZ, BATTLE OF, Feb. 27th, 1814, in which the Marquis of Wellington, commanding the British and Spanish armies, gained a decisive victory over the French under Marshal Soult. The battle of Toulouse soon followed.

OSSIAN, a Gaelic poet, supposed to have flourished in the third century.

OSSOLI, MARGARET FULLER D', was born in Massachusetts in 1810. In 1847, while on a tour in Italy, she became the wife of the Marquis d'Ossoli. She was at Rome during the revolution, and took deep interest in the struggles of that time. On returning to America in 1850, she perished with her husband and child, by shipwreck on the beach of Fire Island, July 19th. She was remarkable for her thorough intellectual cultivation, the vigor of her mind, her conversational powers, and her enthusiastic devotion to letters, art, and progress.

OSTEND, a fortified and well-built seaport in the Belgic province of West Flanders; population, 15,000. It is noted for the sieges which it has withstood; particularly for a terrible siege of three years, from July 5th, 1601, to Sept. 22d, 1604, against the armies of Spain, when the town was valiantly defended by the troops of the Prince of Orange, assisted by the forces of Queen Elizabeth, under the command of Sir Francis Vere, who was chief general for five months. The loss of the Spaniards was immense, being little

short of 100,000 men; and although they afterward succeeded in taking the place, it was yet at such an expense of men and treasure, that this siege is justly considered as one great cause of the ruin of their affairs in the Netherlands, and of the establishment of the independence of the United Provinces. On the death of Charles II. of Spain, the French seized Ostend: but in 1706, after the battle of Ramillies, it was retaken by the allies. The Emperor Charles VI. established an East India Company here, but it met with such a powerful opposition from the maritime powers, that after many negotiations it was abolished in 1731. Ostend was taken by the French in 1745, but given up at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. In the war of 1756 the French garrisoned the town for the Empress Maria Theresa. The Emperor Joseph again attempted to establish an East India trade, but was not very successful. In 1792 it was taken by the French, and retaken by the English in 1793, who garrisoned it for the Emperor Francis II. When the French conquered Belgium, Ostend fell into their hands. In the course of the war, a detachment of British troops landed, and destroyed the sluices of the canals through which the French were collecting a naval force. The detachment, after effecting their object, were made prisoners of war, 1798.

OTHO, MARCUS SALVIUS, a Roman emperor, descended from the ancient kings of Etruria. After Nero's death he attached himself to Galba; but that emperor having adopted Piso as his heir, Otho excited an insurrection, murdered Galba and Piso, and ascended the throne in 69. He was acknowledged by the senate and the Roman people, but the sudden revolt of Vitellius, in Germany, rendered his situation precarious, and it was mutually resolved that their respective rights to the empire should be decided by arms. Otho obtained three victories over his enemies, but in a general engagement near Brixellum, his forces were defeated, and he stabbed himself when all hopes of success were vanished, having reigned three months.

OTHO I., eldest son of Henry the Fowler, Duke of Saxony, elected Emperor of Germany at Aix-la-Chapelle in 936. At the earnest solicitation of the Italians, Otho repaired in person to Rome, where he was solemnly

crowned emperor of the Romans in 962, dignified with the appellation of Augustus, and honored with the homage of the senate and people. He died in 973.

OTHO II., his son, surnamed the Sanguinary, succeeded his father on the imperial throne: but his authority was warmly disputed by Henry, Duke of Bavaria, and the commencement of his reign was disturbed by some hostile incursions of the Danes and Bohemians. In 979 he led a numerous body of forces into Italy, in order to punish a revolt of the Romans. He died in 983, and was succeeded by his son Otho III., at the age of twelve years.

OTIS, JAMES, was born in Massachusetts, Feb. 5th, 1725, and was graduated at Harvard College, after which he studied law, and was admitted to the bar in Plymouth. He removed to Boston in 1750, and rose rapidly in his profession. His speech against the "writs of assistance," in 1761, was the first public proof which Mr. Otis gave of his attachment to the cause of liberty. That spring he was chosen to the legislature, where he at once became a leader of the popular party. He was a member of the congress of 1763 in New York, and in the same year published a masterly defense of the rights of the colonies in opposition to the stamp act. In 1767 he resigned the office of judge advocate, and declined all other employment under a government that encroached upon the liberties of his country. His severe strictures gained him strong hate from the crown officials in Boston. Meeting John Robinson, one of the commissioners of customs, at a public room, one evening in 1769, an affray followed, in which Mr. Otis was assaulted and beaten on the head by several ruffians, who left him and a friend who interposed in his defense, covered with wounds. The fine mind of Mr. Otis was laid in ruins, and he lingered in imbecility through the arduous struggle for liberty to whose success he had devoted himself. A stroke of lightning ended his life at Andover, May 23d, 1783. It has been well said of him that he was a man of powerful genius and ardent temper, with wit and humor that never failed; as an orator, he was bold, argumentative, impetuous, and commanding, with an eloquence that made his own excitement irresist-

ibly contagious; as a lawyer, his knowledge and ability placed him at the head of his profession; as a scholar, he was rich in acquisition, and governed by a classic taste; as a statesman and civilian, he was sound and just in his views; as a patriot, he resisted all allurements that might weaken the cause of that country to which he devoted his life, and for which he sacrificed it.

OTWAY, THOMAS, was born March 3d, 1651, at Trotting in Sussex, the son of a clergyman. He is remembered as the author of "The Orphan" and "Venice Preserved," two tragedies of great power and pathos. Otway's life, passed either in excesses or want, closed in 1685, in the straitest indigence. He is said to have choked in hastily swallowing a crust after long fasting.

OUDENARDE, BATTLE OF, July 11th, 1708, between the English and allies under Marlborough and Prince Eugene, and the French who were besieging Oudenarde in Flanders. The latter were routed with great loss.

OUDINOT, CHARLES NICHOLAS, Duke of Reggio, and one of Napoleon's marshals, was the son of a merchant, and born in 1767. He early reached the rank of general, and was on Massena's staff in the expedition to Italy in 1799, distinguishing himself in the defense of Genoa. At Austerlitz he covered himself with glory. After the battle of Wagram, Napoleon made him marshal of the empire and created him Duke of Reggio. On the capitulation of Paris in 1814, Oudinot swore allegiance to the restored dynasty. When Napoleon returned from Elba, he headed the

grenadiers. Finding it impossible to secure their fidelity to Louis XVIII., he retired to his seat at Montmorenci. He held various posts under the Bourbons, in 1830 adhered to the new dynasty, and in 1842 succeeded Marshal Moncey as governor of the Invalides. He died in 1847.

OVID (PUBLIUS OVIDIUS NASO), the love poet of the Romans, was born at Sulmo (now Sulmone), a town in the country of the Peligni, about ninety miles south-east from Rome, March 20th, B.C. 45. His father was of an old equestrian family, and the future poet was the second son. With his elder brother he was educated at Rome under the best masters, and, as was usual, repaired to Athens to complete his studies. Before returning to Rome, he visited the magnificent cities of Asia Minor. He early displayed a high poetical genius, and devoted himself to the cultivation of the muses. Till the end of his fiftieth year his life had been happy and quiet. Falling then, for some unknown cause, under the resentment of Augustus, whose imperial favor he had hitherto enjoyed, he was sent into exile. He died in banishment, in the sixtieth year of his age.

OXENSTIERN, AXEL, a Swedish statesman, was born in 1583. He was the friend and favorite minister of Gustavus Adolphus, after whose death during the minority of Christina, he conducted the affairs of the kingdom with equal ability and integrity. Christina continued him at the head of affairs. He died in 1654, shortly after her abdication.

OXE

P.

PACA, WILLIAM, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, born at Wyke Hill, Md., Oct. 31st, 1740. After graduating at the college of Philadelphia, he studied law, and commenced practice in Annapolis. From 1774 to 1778 he was a member of Congress, and vacated his seat when he was appointed chief-justice of the supreme court of his state, of which he was chosen governor in 1782. In 1788 he was a member of the Maryland convention which ratified the federal constitution. In 1789 he was appointed by Washington judge of the district court of the United States for Maryland, and held that important post until his death, which took place ten years after, in the sixtieth year of his age.

PAGANINI, NICOLÒ, a wonderful violinist, was born at Genoa in 1784. After a wandering life he died at Nice in 1840, leaving great wealth, acquired by his wizardry of fiddling and his avarice.

PAGE, JOHN, governor of the colony of Virginia, an ardent patriot, member of Congress after the adoption of the federal constitution, and governor of the state of Virginia, died in 1808.

PAINE, ROBERT TREAT, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Boston, in 1731. For some time after graduating from Harvard College, he kept a public school. Having studied theology, he became a chaplain in the provincial forces in 1755, but soon studied law, in which he made great proficiency, and settled at Taunton. After having served at the general representative assembly, he was chosen member of the continental congress which met at Philadelphia in 1774. He was several years in Congress, and was an active member of the committee that framed the constitution of Massachusetts. He held the office of attorney-general for several years; after which he was made judge of the supreme court, an office which he held until 1804. He died May 11th, 1814.

His son, of the same name, was a popular lyric poet. His song of "Adams and Lib-

erty" brought him the handsome sum of \$750. He died in 1811, at the age of thirty-eight.

PAINE, THOMAS, a political and deistical writer, was born in 1737 at Thetford in Norfolk, where he was brought up to his father's business of a stay maker. He afterward became an exciseman at Lewes; but being dismissed for keeping a tobacconist's shop at the same time, he went to America in 1774 at the instance of Dr. Franklin, became editor of the *Pennsylvania Gazette*, and aided on the Revolution by a pamphlet called "Common Sense," for which he was rewarded with £500 by the legislature of Pennsylvania. He was also appointed clerk to the committee for foreign affairs. He afterward wrote a series of pamphlets called "The Crisis." In 1780 he was appointed clerk to the assembly of Pennsylvania, and in 1785 received \$3,000 from Congress, and 500 acres of land from the state of New York.

In 1790 he went to London and excited considerable notice by his "Rights of Man," written in answer to Burke's "Reflections on the French Revolution." Advocacy of the rights of man was sedition in the England of that day, and a prosecution being commenced against him, he fled to France. He was chosen a member of the national convention, but incurred the displeasure of the Jacobins for recommending a lenient course toward Louis XVI., and was thrown into prison. Here he narrowly escaped death. The jailor, when he received orders for a batch of prisoners to be carried to execution, was in the habit of marking the doors of their cells with chalk. One day, Paine had left his cell to visit a fellow-prisoner, and the door stood wide open. The drunken jailor, having occasion to single out some victims, chalked the inside of Paine's door, which was afterward closed, and thus he escaped notice when, on the ensuing day, the devoted prisoners were delivered up to the proper authorities. By the publication of his "Age of Reason," a work leveled at revelation, he forfeited the esteem of many Americans who

had been his warm friends. He fell into disrepute when, on his return to America, he gave himself up to intemperate habits. He died June 8th, 1809, the victim of his excesses, and was buried on his own farm, interment on their ground having been refused by the Society of Friends, to whom application was made. Cobbett, who professed an unbounded admiration for Paine, dug up his bones, and carried them to England. While reprobating the latter life of Paine, it should not be forgotten that the vigorous paragraphs of "Common Sense" and "The Crisis" had an important effect in stirring the American people to a determined struggle for independence.

PAINTING. The earliest account we have of the existence of painting is in the reign of Ninus, about 2,000 B.C. Egypt was decidedly the birthplace of the arts and sciences, though but few of its paintings remain, and their date is uncertain. The Greeks were very little advanced in the art of painting at the time of the Trojan war. The first important fact in the history of painting is, that 700 B.C. a king of Lydia purchased a picture of a Greek artist, and paid him its weight in gold. In the year 400, Zeuxis introduced a new style of painting into Greece, and at this period much progress was made in the art. About the year 328 B.C. Apelles commenced a new era in painting, and many distinguished painters were his contemporaries. Before Greece was taken by the Romans, the art of painting had arrived at a high degree of perfection, but at that time the spirit which had animated her arts had departed, and with her liberty her arts perished.

The first name worthy of record in the annals of Italian painting is Cimabue, a native of Florence, who painted in fresco, A.D. 1300. In 1452 Leonardo da Vinci was born at Florence. Many subsequent painters are indebted to this great artist for his improvements in the art. Michael Angelo Buonarroti was born in the year 1475. He erected an academy of painting and sculpture at Florence, and is considered as the founder of the Florentine school. Raphael, born 1483, was the founder of the Roman school. Titian, born 1477, was the founder of the Venetian school. Correggio, born 1494, founded the

Lombard school. The establishment of these four schools embraces the golden age of painting.

Of the German schools there are three distinct ones, the German, Flemish, and Dutch. The Gothic style of painting originated in Germany, and terminated at the beginning of the fifteenth century. Albert Durer, born in 1471, was the prince of German artists, and the Da Vinci of his country. The head of the Flemish school was Sir Peter Paul Rubens, born at Antwerp in 1577. What Rubens did for the Flemish school, Rembrandt did for the Dutch: he gave it a character. He died in 1669.

There seems to have been no regular Spanish school of painting, although many Spanish artists distinguished themselves, particularly Velazquez and Murillo. The Spanish style held an intermediate rank between the Venetian and Flemish.

It is difficult to assign a decided era to the beginning of painting in France. The first name worthy of particular mention, is Jacques Blanchard, who was born in Paris, A.D. 1600. His paintings were very popular, and one of them is still preserved in the church of Notre Dame. Poussin flourished about the same time, and painted many pictures for the gallery of the Louvre. At this period also Claude Lorraine flourished. Louis XIII. founded the first school of France. Of this, the great master was Le Brun, born in 1690. His best performances are five large pictures from the life of Alexander. In the eighteenth century, French painters were numerous, but the art gradually sunk into mediocrity. The name of Vernet, however, deserves to be mentioned. He excelled in marine pieces. The founder of the modern school of painting in France was David, who was born in 1750. He remedied many of the defects of his contemporaries, and produced many fine pictures.

Painting did not begin to flourish in England till the reign of Henry VIII. Before that period, nothing like genius was observable in the rude productions of the artists. During this reign, Hans Holbein, under the patronage of the monarch, settled in England as a portrait painter. During the reign of Charles I. a gallery of pictures by the great masters, was established at Whitehall. Vandyke flourished at this time. In 1697 Hogarth

was born. His style was one in which he acquired lasting celebrity, and was wholly his own. A royal academy was planned in England in 1768, of which Sir Joshua Reynolds was made president. Gainsborough and Wilson laid the foundation of the English school of landscapes. Barry was a historical painter of great eminence. The close of the eighteenth century produced many names worthy of record. Fuseli was made keeper of the Royal Academy. Among other pictures, he painted forty-seven pictures from Milton's works, in the year 1790. Sir Thomas Lawrence was considered the first portrait painter in Europe. He was president of the Royal Academy at the time of his death in 1830. The celebrated artist John Martin, was born in 1789. Most of his pictures were engraved by himself. Turner is another illustrious name in modern British art.

The United States has produced many artists of reputation; among others, Sir Benjamin West, who died in 1820, aged eighty-two; Gilbert C. Stuart, born 1755, who was one of the first portrait painters of his time; Allston, Copley, Malbone, Newton, Leslie, not mentioning living men.

PALESTINE [see Jews] is the name commonly given to the country once occupied by the Israelites. It extends from Cælo-Syria to Arabia Petrea; on the west it has the Mediterranean, and on the east Arabia Deserta. Before the conquest by Joshua it was called Canaan. The country is mountainous, and there is only one principal river, the Jordan, which rising on Mount Hermon, falls into the Lake of Gennesareth, Sea of Tiberias, or Sea of Galilee; after which it loses itself in a more spacious one, the Bituminous Lake, or Dead Sea. On the western side of Jordan were Judea on the south, Samaria in the middle, and Galilee in the north; on the eastern side was Gilead, and the land of the Moabites and Ammonites. The Philistines were mostly on the coast toward Egypt. In the kingdom of Judah stood Hierosolyma, or Jerusalem, built on several hills, the largest of which was Mount Sion; it formed the southern part of the city. On the east of the second, or lower city, was Mount Moriah. Jerusalem, when enlarged and beautified by David, Solomon, &c., became a most renowned city, and as such is mentioned by Herodotus under the name of

Cadytis. [See JERUSALEM. It subsists at present, but in a deplorable condition, inhabited by a motley group of Turks, Jews, and Christians. A mosque has supplanted the temple. North-east of Mount Moriah was the Mount of Olives, beyond the brook and valley of Kedron; on the south was the valley of Hinnom, and on the north Mount Calvary. Six miles to the south-east was Bethlehem. A rugged mountainous country lay between Jerusalem and Jericho, famous for its balm. For this, and for their palm-trees, both Judea and Idumea were celebrated. Hebron, a place of high antiquity, was the sepulchre of Abraham and his family. In the time of the crusades it bore the name of St. Abraham; and the Arabs, who always respect their primitive names, call it Cabr Ibrahim, or the tomb of Abraham. Gaza and Ascalon, on the coast, preserve their names, as also Ekron. Gath is more inland. Azotus was the ancient Ashdod. Lydda, in the interior, has the name of Lud. South of it is Arimathea. Toward the south lay the country of Idumea, or Edom: the natives were subdued by the Macabees, and incorporated with the Jewish nation. In Jerome's time the country was deserted, the few inhabitants having their dwellings in caverns.

PALEY, WILLIAM, an eminent divine of the English church, author of "A View of the Evidences of Christianity," and other excellent works, born at Peterborough in 1743, died May 25th, 1805.

PALMYRA, the ruins of a splendid city of Asia, in the desert of Syria, said to have been destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar. The only brilliant part of its history was under Odenatus and his queen Zenobia. [See ZENOBIA.] It afterward fell under the power of the Mohammedans, but at what period it sank into its present state of desolation is uncertain. By some Palmyra is supposed to be the Tadmor in the wilderness which Solomon built. Its ruins are of white marble.

PALO ALTO, BATTLE OF, May 8th, 1846, between the Americans under Gen. Taylor, and the Mexicans; the former were victorious. This was the first of the battles in the Mexican war.

PAMPAS, vast level plains in South America, extending from the La Plata nearly to the Andes, a thousand miles long, and four hundred and fifty broad. Part of these plains

are covered with grass, part with thistles and clover, and part with open forests. They contain herds of wild horses and cattle and some beasts of prey, and are inhabited by the Guachos, a race of men of Spanish origin who live on horseback and subsist by hunting, and the fierce Indians who lead the life of the Guachos, but are constantly at war with them. Sir Francis Head's "Rough Notes of some rapid journeys across the Pampas, and among the Andes," contain the best and most amusing account we have of them.

The Guachos make use of the lasso in hunting. The lasso, so called from the Spanish *lazo*, or noose, consists of a rope made of twisted strips of untanned hide, varying in length from fifteen to twenty yards, and is about as thick as the little finger. It has a noose or running-knot at one end, the other extremity being fastened by an eye and button to a ring in a strong hide belt or surcingle, bound tightly round the horse. The coil is grasped by the horseman's left hand, while the noose, which is held in the right, trails along the ground except when in use, and then it is whirled round the head with considerable velocity, during which, by a peculiar turn of the wrist, it is made to assume a circular form; so that, when delivered from the hand, the noose preserves itself open until it falls over the object at which it has been aimed.

The unerring precision with which the lasso is thrown, is perfectly astonishing, and to one who sees it for the first time, has a very magical appearance. Even when standing still it is by no means an easy thing to throw the lasso; but the difficulty is vastly increased when it comes to be thrown from horseback and at a gallop, and when, in addition, the rider is obliged to pass over uneven ground, and to leap hedges and ditches in his course. Yet such is the dexterity of the Guachos, that they are not only sure of catching the animal they are in chase of, but can fix the lasso on any particular part they please.

Suppose that a wild bull is to be caught, and that two mounted horsemen, *guassos*, as they are called in Chili, or *guachos* on the Pampas, undertake to kill him. As soon as they discover their prey, they remove the coil of the lasso from behind them, and, grasping it in the left hand, prepare the noose in the right, and dash off, at full gallop, each swing-

ing his lasso round his head. The first who comes within reach aims at the bull's horns, and when he sees, which he does in an instant, that the lasso which he has thrown will take effect, he stops his horse and turns him half round, the bull continuing his course till the whole cord has run out. The horse, meanwhile, knowing by experience what is going to happen, leans over as much as he can in the opposite direction from the bull, and stands trembling in expectation of the violent tug which is to be given him by the bull when brought up by the lasso. So great, indeed, is the jerk which takes place at this moment, that were the horse not to lean over in the manner described, he would certainly be overturned; but standing, as he does, across the road, with his feet planted firmly on the ground, he offers sufficient resistance to stop the bull as instantaneously as if he had been shot, though, the instant before, he was running at full speed.

If the intention be to kill the animal for the sake of the tallow and hide alone, as is often the case, one of the Guachos dismounts, and running in, cuts the bull's hamstring with a long knife which he always wears in his girdle, and instantly dispatches him by a dexterous cut across the back of the neck. The most surprising thing is the manner in which the horse, after being left by his rider, manages to preserve the lasso always tight; this would be less difficult if the bull were to remain always steady, but it sometimes happens that he makes violent struggles to disentangle himself from the lasso, rushing backward and forward in a furious manner. The horse, however, with wonderful sagacity, alters his pace, and prances about, as if conscious of what he is doing, so as to resist every movement of the bull, and never to allow the lasso to be relaxed for a moment.

When a wild horse is to be taken, the lasso is always placed round the two hind legs, and, as the Guacho rides a little on one side, the jerk pulls the entangled feet laterally, so as to throw him on his side, without endangering his knees or his face. Before the horse can recover the shock, the rider dismounts, and snatching the poncho or cloak from his shoulders, wraps it round the prostrate animal's head; he then forces into his mouth one of the powerful bits of the country, straps a sad-

dle on his back, and, bestriding him, removes the poncho; upon which the astonished horse springs on his legs, and endeavors, by a thousand vain efforts, to disencumber himself of his new master, who sits quite composedly on his back, and, by a discipline which never fails, reduces the horse to such complete obedience that he is soon trained to lend his speed and strength in the capture of his wild companions.

The equestrian education of the dwellers on the Pampas commences early. At the age of four the Guacho is mounted on horseback, and assists in driving the cattle to the inclosure. Even then he is adventurous, and can bring back by force those horses that attempt to escape. As his years increase, he becomes more daring and manly, and spends his time in galloping after the ostrich, the gâma, the hare, and the tiger.

The Pampas Indians, a daring and hardy race of men, who have never been conquered, and to whom the great changes of the seasons appear to come with singularly little inconvenience, are always on horseback, whether beneath the burning skies of summer, or the piercing cold of winter; and they are at all seasons wholly without clothing. They are formed into tribes, under the command of caciques, and are a warlike people. Mounted on their fleet and sure-footed horses, with their spears eighteen feet long, which they can manage with great power and dexterity, they are most formidable. On foot they are almost powerless; as their habitual riding deprives them of the faculty of walking. When mounted, however, their fleetness is almost incredible. When they march for an attack, they collect a great troop of horses, and, raising their war-cry, set off at a gallop. If the march be long, they change horses several times, and always reserve their best ones to be mounted fresh when they are in sight of the enemy. The horses only are used for riding, but they drive mares along with them to serve as food. Their onset is destructive, and, until their horses are worn out with fatigue, to resist them is no easy matter.

Riding in the Pampas is rendered dangerous by the numerous holes which the bisacho burrows in the ground like a rabbit. Their holes frequently cause great injury to the feet of the horses, but custom renders the horse

cautious amidst these dangers; and, as for the Guacho, it is impossible to eject him from the saddle, unless the horse shall actually fall. Sir Francis Head tried the rapid mode of traveling practiced by the Guachos, and survived to describe it. At first he found his head a little confused with the constant galloping, and when he dismounted he was so giddy that he could not stand; but he in time got accustomed to it, and found it more pleasant. He found the young men the worst drivers in point of speed. The children had no fear, and therefore always dashed on at the most rapid rate, and the old men made up in skill, while the young men wanted alike the daring forwardness of the children, and the experience of the old men. Sir Francis (then Captain) Head must have traveled at a prodigious rate. From Mendoza he determined to gallop to Buenos Ayres, and, attended by a single Guacho, mounted horse to recross the Pampas. It was now that the captain tried the velocity and felt the pleasure of really independent traveling across the Pampas; and his speed can be compared to nothing upon record—even that of the Guacho who accompanied him, or of Mazeppa as he was bound to the wild horse. Starting from Mendoza before daybreak, he found himself at half past seven in the evening, at the distance of one hundred and fifty-three miles; which, as he had been just fourteen hours and a half on horseback, was nearly at the rate of ten miles an hour. He was fatigued, and could get nothing to eat, and so, taking his saddle into a shed, he laid down his head on it, and was asleep in an instant. The voice of the Guacho roused him an hour before daylight, and he again galloped off at the rate of the preceding day. It is needless to follow the course of this adventurous traveler: enough has been said to show the mode of life and traveling in the Pampas.

PAPAL STATES, are the dominions of which the pope is the temporal sovereign. They occupy a position on the middle of the southwestern coast of Italy, and are only one-fourth as large as before the year 1860, when the Romagna, the Marches and Umbria were transferred to the kingdom of Italy. The temporal dominions of the pope have since occupied only 4,502 square miles, and contain but 590,000 inhabitants. The former area was

15,381 square miles, and the population 3,000,000. [*See POPES, ROME.*]

PAOLI, PASCAL, a native of Corsica, bore a prominent part in the war waged for independence against the arbitrary rule of the Genoese. When Genoa sold the island to France, Paoli headed the gallant though unsuccessful resistance to the new masters. He retired to England, where he died in 1807, at the age of eighty-one.

PARAGUAY, a state of South America south of Brazil, between the rivers Parana and Paraguay. It contains 74,000 square miles, and 1,500,000 inhabitants. It was discovered by Sebastian Cabot in 1526, was settled by the Spaniards at Assuncion in 1535, and in 1776 formed a province of the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres. When South America generally threw off the rule of Spain, Paraguay asserted its independence. In 1814 Dr. Francia was made dictator, and ruled till his death in 1840. He adopted a policy as exclusive as that of Japan. Paraguay has in 1865 made war with Brazil and the Argentine Republic.

PARIS, the capital of France, lies upon both banks and two islands of the Seine, 110 miles south-east of Havre. The population 1,750,000.

It is an archiepiscopal see, the residence of the court, the legislative body, the ministers and ambassadors, one of the largest, most populous, and richest cities in the world, containing some most superb monuments. Including its suburbs, it is eighteen miles in circumference, and is much superior to London in palaces and public edifices. Not only does it enjoy a literary and scientific pre-eminence: it is one of the gayest capitals in Europe. The houses are lofty and built of the stone taken from the quarries that extend beneath the city, thus forming the celebrated catacombs. It was very strong, when, under the name of Lutetia, it resisted a Roman detachment sent against it by Cæsar. The Romans strengthened the fortifications; in the fifth century it was taken by the Franks; and in 508 was constituted the capital of the kingdom. It was improved by Charlemagne, and surrounded with walls at the end of the twelfth century. Under Louis XIV. some improvements were made: but Versailles being then the chief care of the Bourbons, Paris received only slow and partial embellishments. Na-

poleon did much for its improvement and decoration, and the plans which he projected have pointed a path for his successors.

PARK, MUNGO, a native of Scotland, born near Selkirk, Sept. 10th, 1771, fell a victim to the cause of science, being murdered in Africa, while engaged in his second expedition to find the source of the Niger, 1805.

PARMA, a duchy in the north of Italy, with an area of 2,391 square miles, and 503,000 inhabitants. Parma, the capital, has 40,000. It was founded by the ancient Etrurians. In the sixteenth century, Paul III. gave the duchy to his son Luigi Farnese, whose descendants continued to reign as dukes of Parma till the extinction of the male branch. In 1714 Elizabeth Farnese married Philip V. of Spain, and brought him the duchy as a dowry. Her son Don Carlos took possession of it in 1731; but it being settled in 1735, that Don Carlos should be made king of the two Sicilies, the duchies of Parma and Piacenza were ceded to the emperor, and governed by the house of Austria till 1748, when they were given up to Don Philip, son of Philip V. By the peace of Luneville, the Duke of Parma was raised to the throne as King of Etruria, in 1801. In 1805 Parma and Piacenza were united to France, and in 1814 were given to Maria Louisa, the ex-empress; and after her death Parma was given to the Duke of Lucca, being annexed to Tuscany. Parma became a part of the kingdom of Italy by virtue of the peace of Villa Franca, in 1859.

PARR, SAMUEL, a distinguished classical scholar of England, long head-master of Norwich school, born 1747, died in 1825. His celebrated Spital sermon, when printed, presented the singular anomaly of fifty-one pages of text, and two hundred and twelve of notes.

PARR, THOMAS, familiarly called 'Old Parr,' died in 1635, aged one hundred and fifty-two, having lived in ten reigns.

PARRY, Sir WILLIAM EDWARD, the distinguished Arctic explorer, died in 1855.

PARSONS, THEOPHILUS, was the son of a minister of Byfield, Mass., and was born in February, 1750. After completing his legal studies, he opened an office in Newburyport, and assumed a high standing in his profession; in 1806 he succeeded Mr. Dana in the

chief-justiceship of the supreme court of Massachusetts. He died at Boston, Oct. 30th, 1813.

PARTHIA, a celebrated kingdom of antiquity, was situated south-east of the Caspian Sea, and was bounded on the north by Hyrcania, on the south by Aria, on the east by Carmania, and on the west by Media. The ancient Parthians were originally a tribe of Scythians, who, being expelled from the land of their nativity, took up their abode in this part of Asia. They were subject to the Persian empire in the time of Xerxes and Darius. Arsaces, the founder of the Parthian monarchy, assumed the regal dignity B.C. 256. His son, Arsaces II., subdued Media, but was soon dispossessed of this acquisition.

On the death of Arsaces, the government devolved on his son Priapatus, who bequeathed the crown to his elder son, Phraates. This last prince subdued the Mardi, a warlike people of the east. He left the kingdom to his brother Mithridates, who soon reduced Bactria, Persia, Media, Elymais, and several other countries, and carried his victorious arms into India, even beyond the boundaries of Alexander's conquests. He afterward made himself master of Babylonia and Mesopotamia; and his reign is regarded as the epoch of the Parthian grandeur.

We pass over a few unimportant reigns till we come to that of Orodes, who engaged in war with M. Licinius Crassus, which was attended with a vast effusion of blood, and proved extremely disastrous both to the Parthians and the Romans. At length Crassus was overthrown with a great slaughter, and his head sent to Orodes; whilst his vanquished troops tamely surrendered or were put to the sword. Orodes sent an army to besiege the city of Antioch, which, however, the Parthians could not take. To revenge the death of Crassus, the Romans entered Syria, B.C. 50, and, after some partial engagements, succeeded in defeating Pacorus, the son of Orodes, who was killed in the battle. Orodes appointed his son Phraates his successor, B.C. 36.

Phraates no sooner attained to this height of power than he caused all his brothers by the daughter of Antiochus Eusebes to be put to death, and attempted to dispatch Orodes

also, by poison; this proving ineffectual, he ordered him to be stifled in his bed, and exercised the same cruelty upon the prime nobility, his eldest son, and the other branches of the royal family. To elude the vengeance of this barbarian, many of the Parthian nobles emigrated into Syria, and prevailed on Marc Antony to invade their unhappy kingdom. The Romans, however, were so harassed by the enemy, that they were reduced to the most pitiable extremities, and narrowly escaped destruction.

The Parthian monarch continuing to exercise the most wanton cruelties upon his own subjects, the nobles entered into a conspiracy and chased him from the country, conferring the sovereignty on Tiribates, one of their own body. Phraates, however, returned, and, defeating his rival in a pitched battle, recovered his paternal inheritance.

At length this tyrant was poisoned by his wife, that her son Phraatices might ascend the throne. Phraatices had scarcely assumed the diadem, when his subjects, resolving to revenge the crime to which he had been accessory, rose in arms, and placed one Orodes, who was of the Arsacidan family, on the throne. This prince was assassinated.

On the death of Orodes II., the Roman emperor Augustus was requested by the Parthians to send one of the sons of Phraates, who had been educated at Rome, to assume the government. Accordingly, he sent them Vonones, but the Parthians growing weary of him, persuaded Artabanus, king of Media, to chase him from the throne. Artabanus, at length, firmly established himself in the government of Parthia, and died in the thirty-first year of his reign. He was succeeded by his son Bardanes, who made war upon Izates, king of Adiabene, A.D. 47, who had greatly assisted in restoring Artabanus to the throne of Parthia. This ingratitude was so warmly resented by the Parthian nobles, that they caused Bardanes to be assassinated, and bestowed the crown on his brother.

Gotarzes was succeeded by one Venones, governor of Media, A.D. 49. On the demise of this last prince, the government devolved on Vologeses, the son of Gotarzes, who maintained a bloody war against the Romans, on account of the crowns of Armenia and Syria, which he had bestowed on Tiridates and PAR

corus, two of his brothers. Artabanus III. next ascended the throne. He was succeeded by his son Pacorus.

Cosdroes, the son of Pacorus, invaded Armenia in the beginning of his reign, and expelled Exadares, who had been placed on the throne of that country by the Roman emperor Trajan. To revenge this insult, Trajan marched into the East, recovered Armenia, made himself master of Mesopotamia, pursued his route to Babylon and Ctesiphon, and bestowed their crown on Parthaspates, a prince of the Arsacidan family.

On the death of Trajan, however, the Parthians recalled Cosdroes, and pitched Parthaspates from the throne. After a very long reign, Cosdroes was succeeded by his eldest son, Vologeses II., who, after carrying on hostilities against Rome for about four years, with various success, consented to acknowledge the sovereignty of the Roman people.

On the demise of the Parthian king, his nephew, Vologeses III., ascended the vacant throne. Having incensed the Emperor Severus, he was stripped of his treasures, his wives, and his children. Artabanus, the son and successor of Vologeses, had scarcely established himself in the kingdom, when the Emperor Caracalla, desirous of signalizing himself against the Parthians, sent ambassadors to demand his daughter in marriage. This was readily granted; and the king, being informed that the emperor was coming to solemnize the nuptials, went out to meet him, with the chief of the Parthian nobility, all unarmed and habited in splendid dresses. This peaceable train no sooner approached the Roman troops, than they were attacked with the utmost fury, and Artabanus himself was compelled to elude destruction by a precipitate flight.

On account of this exploit, the base Caracalla assumed the surname of Parthicus. Artabanus swore irreconcilable hatred to the perfidious emperor, and inspired the whole nation with the same spirit of vengeance. An engagement was fought between the Parthians and the Romans, which was terminated only by darkness. Caracalla dying, an alliance between the two empires was proposed, and peace was concluded. At this juncture, A.D. 226, a Persian named Artax-

erxes, pretended to be a descendant of the ancient kings of Persia, and called upon the Persians to recover their independence. After a dreadful engagement, he defeated Artabanus at the head of all the Parthian forces. Artaxerxes caused Artabanus to be put to death, and restored the empire to the Persians, after they had been subject to the princes of Parthia for the space of 475 years. The royal family of Arsaces, however, continued to reign in Armenia till the time of the Emperor Justinian. Artaxerxes was the founder of the new Persian empire usually known as that of the Sassanidæ.

PASCAL, BLAISE, born at Clermont, Auvergne, in 1623, died in 1662. He excelled in mathematics and physical philosophy. In the great controversy between the Jansenists and the Jesuits, Pascal battled for the former. His "Provincial Letters," a merciless exposure of the Jesuits, first appeared in 1656.

PATAGONIA, a vast country occupying the southern extremity of South America, discovered by Magellan in 1519. The climate is cold and the natives are wandering savages. Some of the tribes are large-bodied, though not the giants which they have been described.

PATRICK, SAINT, apostle and saint of Ireland, supposed a native of Wales, died in 460 or 493. Others say he was a native of Cornwall, or Scotland, or Brittany. Little is really known of him, save that he preached the gospel to the Irish in the fifth century.

PAUSANIAS, a Spartan general, who greatly signalized himself at the battle of Platæa, against the Persians. He was afterward set at the head of the Spartan armies, and extended his conquests in Asia; but the haughtiness of his behavior created him many enemies, and the Athenians soon obtained a superiority in the affairs of Greece. Pausanias was dissatisfied with his countrymen, and he offered to betray Greece to the Persians, if he received in marriage, as the reward of his perfidy, the daughter of their monarch. His intrigues were discovered by means of a youth, who was intrusted with his letters to Persia, and who refused to go, on the recollection that such as had been employed in that office before had never returned. The letters were given to the Ephori of Sparta, and the perfidy of Pausanias laid open. He fled for safety to a temple

of Minerva, and as the sanctity of the place screened him from the violence of his pursuers, the sacred building was surrounded with heaps of stones, the first of which was carried there by the indignant mother of the unhappy man. He was starved to death in the temple, and died about B.C. 471.

PAVIA, BATTLE OF, in Lombardy, Feb. 24th, 1525, between the French and the forces of the Emperor Charles V. Francis I., the French monarch, after maintaining the contest with great gallantry, was defeated, and obliged to yield himself a prisoner. He sent to his mother, Louisa of Savoy, who was regent in his absence, news of his misfortune in these memorable words, "All is lost, madam, save honor."

PEEL, Sir ROBERT, was the son of an eminent English manufacturer, who bequeathed to him a princely fortune. He was born February, 1788, and was educated at Harrow (where he was a school-fellow of Byron) and at Oxford, taking a high stand as a brilliant student. When just of age he entered parliament, and thenceforth the sphere of his exertions and triumphs was the house of commons. He was no orator, nor was he, properly speaking, a natural and simple debater. His manner was the artificial one of thorough training; but for an artificial one it was a good one. He could state his case clearly and forcibly, but he seldom liked to abandon a subject until he had discussed it at great length. In 1811 he became under-secretary for the colonies in the Perceval cabinet, and in 1812, though only twenty-four years of age, he was made principal secretary for Ireland, then an office of the greatest difficulty and importance. After carrying his celebrated currency measure (establishing it on its present metallic basis) in 1819, he became home secretary in 1822, which he continued till the overthrow of Lord Liverpool in 1827, when he retired, in consequence, as it is alleged, of the elevation of Mr. Canning, who favored the abolition of the Roman Catholic disabilities. Upon the accession of the Duke of Wellington to power in 1828, Mr. Peel returned to the home office, and in conjunction with the premier, conceded Catholic emancipation. This brought a storm of abuse upon him from his party, who

accused him of tergiversation, since he had been so strongly opposed to the measure.

The skirts of the Gallic storm of 1830 that drove the Bourbons from the throne of France, destroyed the Wellington ministry, and the whigs entered office under Earl Grey, with the reform bill as their prominent measure. Meantime the elder Peel had died, and the son had succeeded to the baronetcy and an enormous patrimony. Sir Robert was fiercely assailed with the maledictions of Ireland, the censures of the high tory party,—whom he was alleged to have betrayed,—and the clamors of the advocates for a paper currency. His party imputed to him the rise of the reform bill, as a consequence of his vacillation in reference to the emancipation of the Catholics. Nevertheless he was an active opponent of the new ministry and the reform bill; and nothing dismayed by the angry elements about him, or the new political vista of England and the continent, he displayed all the resources of his statesmanship in concentrating the new conservative party. When a conservative government, through various accidental and personal causes, was established in 1834, he gallantly undertook to conduct it, though conscious that the task was hopeless. He became prime minister in 1841 with better prospects. Though he was at the head of a protectionist government, established to defeat and suppress the free trade party, he opened the ports, and repealed the corn laws forever, to the consternation of the world, and in opposition to all the opinions of his life. This was in 1845. After carrying some other measures in the same spirit, he resigned office to the party to whom his later opinions legitimately belonged, in the summer of 1846. After that his position in parliament was that of a distinguished debater, an accomplished financier, and the expositor of opinions which neither of the great parties heartily espoused. He died July 2d, 1850, of internal injuries caused by a fall from his horse.

His talents were great, his moral integrity of a high order, and his private life most exemplary. It is a singular fact that he spent eleven years in parliamentary opposition to the bullion doctrine he adopted in 1822; that he waged strenuous war for eight-

een years against the repeal of the Roman Catholic disabilities, and at last carried it in spite of his own party; and that for thirty years in the house of commons he maintained that the prosperity of Great Britain depended on the retention of her corn laws, which he abolished in 1845. It would therefore seem that his final measures in reference to these three great departments of his political life, were rather concessions to the force of events, than the voluntary policy of his own mind. His wisdom is shown in the concession. Many of his chief colleagues, in each of these instances, would have blindly rushed upon destruction. Sir Robert's greater sagacity foresaw the gulf and turned away, choosing to show the courage of relinquishing his life's opinions, rather than that of courting the dangers of resistance.

PELOPIDAS, a celebrated general of Thebes, son of Hippocles. No sooner had the interest of Sparta prevailed at Thebes, and the friends of liberty and national independence been banished from the city, than Pelopidas, who was in the number of the exiles, resolved to free his country from foreign slavery. His plan was bold and animated, and his deliberations were wise. Meanwhile, Epaminondas, who had been left by the tyrants at Thebes, as being in appearance a worthless and insignificant philosopher, animated the youths of the city; and at last Pelopidas, with eleven of his associates, entered Thebes, easily massacred the friends of the tyranny, and freed the country from foreign masters. After this successful enterprise, Pelopidas was unanimously placed at the head of the government; and so confident were the Thebans of his abilities as a general and a magistrate, that they successively re-elected him thirteen times to fill the honorable office of governor of Bœotia. Epaminondas shared with him the sovereign power, and it was to their valor and prudence that the Thebans were indebted for a celebrated victory at the battle of Leuctra. In a war which Thebes carried on against Alexander, tyrant of Phœæ, Pelopidas was appointed commander; but his imprudence, in trusting himself unarmed into the enemy's camp, proved fatal to him. He was taken prisoner, but Epaminondas restored him to liberty. The perfidy of Alexander irritated

him, and he was killed bravely fighting in a celebrated battle in which his troops obtained the victory, B.C. 364. Pelopidas is admired for his valor, as he never engaged an enemy without obtaining the advantage. It has been justly observed that with Pelopidas and Epaminondas, the glory and the independence of the Thebans rose and set.

PELOPONNESUS, a celebrated peninsula which comprehends the most southern parts of Greece. It included the states of Laconia (Sparta), Achaia, Elis, Arcadia, Argolis, Corinth, and Messenia. It received its name from Pelops, who settled there as the name indicates (the island of Pelops). It had been called before, Apia, Pelasgia, and Argos. Its present name is the Morea, which seems to be derived from a word signifying a mulberry-tree, which is found there in great abundance. The Peloponnesus was conquered, some time after the Trojan war, by the Heraclidæ, or descendants of Hercules, who had been forcibly expelled from it. The inhabitants of this peninsula rendered themselves illustrious like the rest of the Greeks, by their genius, their fondness for the fine arts, the cultivation of learning, and the profession of arms; but in nothing more than by a celebrated war which they carried on against Athens and her allies for twenty-seven years, and which received the name of the Peloponnesian war. It ended with the taking of Athens by the Lacedæmonians, B.C. 401.

PENDLETON, EDMUND, an eminent lawyer and statesman of Virginia, member of Congress in 1774, died in 1803.

PENN, JOHN, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Caroline county, Virginia, May 17th, 1741. His early education was defective, but a strong mind overcame obstacles. He studied law with Edmund Pendleton, went to North Carolina in 1774, became at once an active politician and a lawyer of note, and was a delegate in Congress, 1775-76 and 1777-79. He retired from public life in 1783, and died in September, 1788.

PENN, WILLIAM, the son of Admiral Penn, was born in London, in 1644. At an early age he joined the society of Friends or Quakers, and was expelled from the university of Oxford as a nonconformist. His unshaken adherence to the principles he had

adopted drew upon him the indignation of his father, which was a source of grief to Penn, although it did not induce him to relinquish the faith which he had chosen. In 1668 he appeared as a preacher, and also assumed his pen to make known and defend his principles, for which he was fined and imprisoned. Afterward, through the influence of his family, he obtained immunity for his belief. In 1781 Charles II. granted him the patent of Pennsylvania in liquidation of an old debt from the crown to his father. He went among the Indians to propitiate them and assure them of his good intentions, and having displayed the plausibility of his

scheme, induced a large number of respectable families to embark for the New World. He remained in America two years, regulating the affairs of Philadelphia, and establishing amicable relations with his neighbors. The treaty which Penn concluded with the Indians was never violated. He was intimate at the court of James II., and procured many privileges for his Quaker brethren. In 1699 he made a second visit to Pennsylvania, but the machinations of his enemies at home induced him to return in 1701. In consequence of his former intimacy with the exiled monarch, Penn was suspected of being a Jacobite. He died in 1718.



PENNSYLVANIA. The Keystone State has an area of 47,000 square miles, on which in 1860 dwelt 2,906,115 people. The broad Alleghanian or Appalachian system of mountains passes through Pennsylvania, and the state is thus naturally divided into three clearly defined regions, the eastern or Atlantic slope, the central mountainous district, and the western table-land. The whole mountain region is interspersed with beautiful and productive valleys. The soil of the eastern coast is in part light and sandy, but the inland plains and valleys are composed of a deep rich loam. The state is well watered: the Delaware, Schuylkill, Susquehanna, Lehigh, Juniata, Alleghany, Monongahela, and Ohio are the large rivers; while there are an abundance of smaller streams, which serve a useful purpose as feeders to

the great system of canals by which the state is threaded. Pennsylvania is affluent in mineral wealth: her mines of iron, and her beds of coal, both anthracite and bituminous, seem inexhaustible in centuries. Wheat is her great agricultural staple, though the other cereal grains are extensively grown, as also flax and hemp. Her manufactures, especially in iron, are also flourishing and of great extent. In foreign commerce she ranks fourth among the states: Philadelphia is her only port.

At an early period Swedes settled within the limits of Pennsylvania. They were subdued by the Dutch, the country was annexed to the colony of New Netherlands, and with that fell into English possession. The country was granted to William Penn by Charles II. in 1681. A number of Friends were the

first colonists, and in 1682 Penn himself came over and laid out his 'city of brotherly love.' Among the articles of government which he drew up for his infant state was the provision, "That all persons in this province, who confess and acknowledge the one almighty and eternal God to be the creator, upholder, and ruler of the world, and that hold themselves obliged in conscience to live peaceably and justly in society, shall in no ways be molested or prejudiced for their religious persuasion, or practice in matters of faith and worship; nor shall they be compelled, at any time, to frequent, or maintain, any religious worship, place, or ministry whatever." Penn entered into a treaty of peace and friendship with the Indians, paying them fair prices for the land needed for his colony. The policy of this honesty was shown in the freedom from Indian wars which Pennsylvania long enjoyed. His descendants held their proprietary rights in the government until the Revolution, when the commonwealth bought their interest for \$580,000. A considerable proportion of the people of Pennsylvania are of German extraction: in some counties the German patois is largely used. Two characteristics are said to mark invariably the farms of these thrifty American Teutons; to wit, huge stone barns, far larger than the substantial dwellings, and gigantic horses immoderately fat, fatter even than the well-fed, comfortable owners.

The first state constitution was adopted in 1776. By the present, there is a general assembly, meeting annually. The senators are chosen for three years, one-third each year. The governor also is chosen for three years, and can not hold the office longer than six years in any term of nine years. The right of suffrage is exercised by every white freeman, twenty-one years of age, who has resided in the state one year. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, in a court of common pleas, &c. The justices of the supreme court are chosen by the people of the state for fifteen years. The judges of the several courts of common pleas are chosen by the people of the judicial district over which they are to preside, for a term of ten years. The school system is improving in efficiency. There is an institution for the deaf and dumb at Philadelphia. In

1799 the seat of government was removed from Philadelphia to Lancaster, and again, in 1812, to Harrisburg, on the east bank of the Susquehanna. Little more than half a century ago, the site of Harrisburg was a wilderness: in 1860 it had 13,405 inhabitants. It was laid out in 1785, and named for the original proprietor, John Harris.

The largest city of Pennsylvania is Philadelphia, about five miles above the junction of the Delaware and Schuylkill Rivers. The population of Philadelphia, in 1860, was 562,529. It is one of the most regular cities in the world, being handsomely built of brick, marble, and granite, on a rectangular plan; it is a place of great trade and opulence, and ranks as the second city in the Union. Philadelphia was laid out by Penn in 1682. When he returned to England two years after, it contained 200 houses and 2,500 inhabitants. In the annals of the Revolution Philadelphia has an illustrious share. The first continental congress assembled here, in Carpenter Hall, Sept. 5th, 1774. The bell of Independence Hall, July 4th, 1776, *did* "proclaim liberty throughout this land, to all the inhabitants thereof," when its glad clangor assembled the people to hearken to the Declaration of Independence, just resolved upon in the adjoining hall. The convention that formed the constitution in 1787 sat here. From 1790 to 1800 Philadelphia was the seat of the federal government.

The great city of western Pennsylvania is Pittsburg, beautifully situated on a plain at the junction of the Alleghany and Monongahela Rivers. It was incorporated a city in 1816. The principal cause which has contributed, aside from its eligible location, to insure the prosperity of Pittsburg, is the exhaustless mass of mineral coal that exists in its neighborhood. The great abundance of this valuable material has converted Pittsburg into a vast workshop, and a warehouse for the immense country below, upon the Ohio and other large rivers of the valley. The city contains, according to the last census, 49,217 inhabitants. Pittsburg occupies the site of the former French post, Fort Du Quesne, so important a spot in the history of the early frontier wars. It was christened in honor of William Pitt, afterward Earl of Chatham.

PEPIN, surnamed the Fat, mayor of the

palace in France, was the son of Anchises, and grandson of St. Arnold, afterward Bishop of Metz. He began to govern in Austrasia, and was vanquished in the year 681, by Ebroin; but in 687, he defeated King Thierry, and acted his part so well that he had all the authority in the two kingdoms, under Clovis III., Childbert, and Dagobert III.; and it must be confessed he was worthy of the empire of the Franks. He gained several battles against Berthairus, in 691; Radbord, Duke of Friesland, in 707; and Wiler, Duke of Suabia, whom he defeated in 709 and 712. He died in 714, near Liege.

PEPIN, surnamed the Short, King of France (grandson of the preceding), the first of the Carolingian dynasty, was the son of Charles Martel, and brother of Carloman. The two brothers divided the power between them after the death of their father, but Carloman retiring afterward into Italy, Pepin remained sole manager, and carried his design farther; in short, seeing that all concurred to set the crown upon his head, and to dethrone the foolish Childeric III., he called a parliament that he might have their consent, which was unanimously granted him, and in the mean time deputed Bouchard, Bishop of Wurtzburg, and Fulrad, Abbot of St. Denys, and chaplain to the prince, to go to Rome, in order to be informed of Pope Zachary, who was the worthiest to be on the throne, he who took no care of the affairs of the kingdom, or he who, by his prudence and valor, governed it wisely, and kept it from the oppressions of the enemy. Zachary, who stood in need of Pepin's forces, declared in his favor. This answer being related in France, the bishops who were assembled at Soissons with Boniface, Archbishop of Mayence, having the suffrage and universal consent of the grantees and people, crowned Pepin on the 1st of May, 752. At the same time Childeric was deposed, and afterward put into a monastery. After the performance of this ceremony, the new king put a stop to the revolt of his brother Grifphon, and took Vannes. Pope Stephen II., who succeeded Zachary, finding himself extremely incommoded by the Lombards, had recourse to Pepin, whom he came into France to see. The king received him at the castle of Poictier near Vitri, and sent him to the abbey of St. Dennis; and some time after,

this pope anointed and crowned him, with his two sons Charles and Carloman, at Ferrieres, July 28th, 754. Next year Pepin went into Italy, and having forced Astulphus, King of the same Lombards, to give up all that he had taken from the church of Rome, he returned into France, and sent back Pope Stephen into Italy; but the Lombards failing to keep their word, Pepin repassed the Alps in 756, and constrained them to give all manner of satisfaction to the pope of Rome. Being come back into France, he spent the rest of his life in making war upon the Saxons, and upon Gaifre, or Waifer, Duke of Aquitain, whom he defeated six or seven times, till the year 768, when this prince being killed by his own subjects, the king remained master of all his dominions. He died of a dropsy, the 24th of September, in the same year, aged fifty-four. The illustrious Charlemagne, his son, succeeded him.

PERCEVAL, SPENCER, second son of John, Earl of Egmont, was born in 1762. He was educated at Harrow school, and next at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he took his master's degree in 1782, and the year following became a student of Lincoln's Inn. He commenced practice as a barrister in the king's bench, from whence he removed to the court of chancery. In 1796 he was made king's counsel, and about the same time attracted the notice of Mr. Pitt, by a pamphlet proving that an impeachment of the house of commons does not abate by a dissolution of parliament. The same year he was returned for Northampton. In 1801 he was made solicitor-general, and the next year attorney-general. On the change of administration, in 1807, he headed the new ministry as chancellor of the exchequer, in which situation he displayed great political talents, particularly in the settlement of the regency. He was shot in the lobby of the house of commons, by an assassin named Bellingham, May 11th, 1812. Mr. Perceval was haughty, ungenial, and intolerant and illiberal in his views.

PERICLES, an Athenian of a noble family, son of Xanthippus and Agariste. When he took a share in the administration of public affairs, he rendered himself popular by opposing Cimon, who was the favorite of the aristocracy; and to remove every obstacle which stood in the way of his ambition, he lessened

the dignity and the power of the court of the Areopagus, which the people had been taught for ages to respect and to venerate. He also attacked Cimon, and caused him to be banished by ostracism, B.C. 468. Thucydides also, who had succeeded Cimon on his banishment, shared the same fate, and Pericles remained for fifteen years the sole minister, and as it may be said, the absolute sovereign, of a republic which always showed itself so jealous of her liberties, and which distrusted so much the honesty of her magistrates. He ruled vigorously and with splendor. He paid especial attention to the maritime superiority of the republic. Architecture, sculpture, the drama, and poetry found in him a munificent patron. The Parthenon, that most perfect example of Grecian art, the magnificent Propylæa, and other edifices that make Athens the admiration of the world, were erected during his administration.

He made war against the Lacedæmonians, obtained a victory over the Sicyonians near Nemæa, and waged a successful war against the inhabitants of Samos. The Peloponnesian war was fomented by his ambitious views, and when he had warmly represented the flourishing state, the opulence, and actual power of his country, the Athenians did not hesitate a moment to undertake a war against the most powerful republics of Greece, a war which continued for twenty-seven years, and which was concluded by the destruction of their empire and the demolition of their walls.

The arms of the Athenians were for some time crowned with success; but an unfortunate expedition raised clamors against Pericles: the enraged populace attributed all their losses to him, and to make atonement for their ill success, they condemned him to pay fifty talents.

This loss of popular favor did not so much affect Pericles as the recent death of all his children; and when the tide of unpopularity was passed by, he condescended to come into the public assembly, and to view with secret pride the contrition of his fellow-citizens, who universally begged his forgiveness for the violence which they had offered to his ministerial character. He was again restored to all his honors; but the dreadful pestilence which had diminished the number of his family, proved fatal to him, and about B.C. 429, in his seventieth year, he fell a sacrifice to that

terrible malady which robbed Athens of so many of her citizens.

Pericles was for forty years at the head of the administration, twenty-five years with others, and fifteen alone; and the flourishing state of affairs during his government, gave occasion to the Athenians publicly to lament his loss and venerate his memory. As he was expiring, and seemingly senseless, his friends that stood around his bed expatiated with warmth on the most glorious actions of his life, and the victories which he had won; when he suddenly interrupted their tearful panegyric, by saying that in mentioning the exploits that he had achieved, and which were common to him with all generals, they had forgot to mention a circumstance which reflected far greater glory upon him as a minister, a general, and above all, as a man. "It is," said he, "that not a citizen in Athens has been obliged to put on mourning on my account."

PERIER, CASIMIR, prime minister of France under Louis Philippe, the son of a rich merchant; born Oct. 12th, 1777, at Grenoble, and died at Paris, of cholera, May 16th, 1832.

PERRY, OLIVER HAZARD, a distinguished captain in the American navy, gained a signal victory over the British naval forces on Lake Erie in 1813. He was born at Newport, R. I., in 1785, and died in 1820.

PERSIA (called IRAN by the natives), a country of western Asia, is an elevated tableland, surrounded by mountain ranges. At a rough estimate it contains 500,000 square miles, and is supposed to have 8,000,000 inhabitants; some say 15,000,000. One-fourth of the people are nomadic tribes. Those who have fixed dwellings consist of Persians, Armenians, Arabs, and a few Parsees, or fire-worshippers. The Persians profess the Mohammedan religion, of the sect of Ali. Persia has excellent fruits, cotton, fine wool, silk, horses, camels, pearls, vines; mines of precious stones and different minerals. Much of the soil is sandy. The Persians are true Asiatics, effeminate and fond of pleasures; they are of small size.

Persia has ever been a country of great interest, and its early history is crowded with events of importance. Chance and change were not unfelt by its inhabitants of former days. The early Persians were hardy, tem-

perate, and well educated. Education received early and strict attention among them, and their magi, or wise men, are famous in the history of learning. The land has been a battle-ground for rival chieftains and contending factions. The khans or chiefs attained their elevation to the throne by a wanton expenditure of blood and life. When Ispahan was the capital of Persia, and famous for its commerce and splendor, it was taken by Tamerlane, and 70,000 persons slain by the cruel Tartars. The modern Persians exhibit a very marked difference from those of the early ages, from whom they are descended. The latter, stern, temperate, and warlike, disregarded both the luxuries and elegancies of life. Inured to toil, living upon the plainest food, and taught to face death and danger without quailing, they became formidable to their neighbors, and acquired for themselves a military reputation, which only their subsequent degeneracy could destroy. At the time of the invasion of Greece by Xerxes, the Persian monarch relied more upon the immense numbers of his army and their splendid equipments, than upon their valor. The event proved the superiority of the Greeks, sternly brave and proudly patriotic. In later times, the Persians have shown themselves capable of luxury, refinement, and the more elegant arts of peace.

Persia abounds with the hallowed remains of antiquity. Among the most celebrated ruins which occur are those of the ancient Persepolis, a city formerly of immense extent, and conspicuous in the history of Alexander of Macedon. It was the royal palace of this city that the Grecian conqueror, inflamed with wine, and urged by the wild persuasion of an abandoned woman, destroyed by fire, aided by his companion. She beheld the flames rolling around the most beautiful edifices, consuming splendid palaces, and hurling to the ground long-venerated columns, with the mad delight which the unprincipled seem to take in the works of destruction.

The Persian empire anciently extended about 2,800 English miles in length, from the Hellespont to the mouth of the Indus, and about 2,000 miles in breadth, from Pontus to the mouth of the Arabian Gulf. The Persians are supposed to have descended from

Elam, the son of Shem; and, in Scripture, they are sometimes denominated Elamites. The first king of Elam mentioned in Scripture is Chederlaomer, who conquered many of the Asiatic provinces, and held the kings of Sodom, Gomorrah, Bela, Admah, and Zeboim, in subjection for twelve years. He was, however, vanquished by the patriarch Abraham, and lost the sovereignty of the Pentapolis. From this period to the reign of Cyrus, the history of Elam or Persia is clouded with fiction. Tradition says that the country received the name of Persia from Perseus, a son of Perseus and Andromeda, who settled here, and probably established a petty sovereignty. Persia was included in the first Assyrian monarchy, and upon its dismemberment by Arbaces, appertained to the kingdom of Media.

Cyrus, styled the Great, on account of his extensive conquests, and his restoration of the captive Jews, was the son of Cambyses, a Persian grandee, and of Mandane, daughter of Astyages, king of the Medes. In the fortieth year of his age, he was called to the assistance of his uncle Cyaxares, who had ascended the throne of Media, and who appointed him generalissimo both of the Medes and Persians. The powerful alliance formed against the Medes, B.C. 557, induced the king of Armenia to withhold his usual tribute. Cyrus, therefore, marched against him, and compelled him to pay his tribute, and to furnish his customary quota of auxiliaries.

The Egyptians, Greeks, Babylonians, Thracians, and other nations of Lesser Asia, having entered into an alliance against Cyaxares, chose Cræsus, king of Lydia, to be their general. The confederates assembled in the vicinage of the river Pactolus, and advanced to Thymbra, whither Cyrus also marched with one hundred and thirty thousand troops, besides three hundred armed chariots, several moving towers, and a considerable number of camels, upon which were mounted Arabian archers. The forces of Cræsus, however, were twice as numerous as those of Cyrus, and amounted to four hundred thousand men. The battle was extremely bloody, and Cyrus himself was some time in imminent danger; but at length the confederates gave way on all sides. After this engagement, Cyrus took Sardis, the capital of Lydia, and Cræsus

prisoner, whom he replaced on the throne. After subduing Syria and Arabia, he marched against Babylon, which he reduced after a siege of two years, and put an end to the Babylonian empire.

About two years after the reduction of Babylon, Cyaxares died, and left the whole government of the empire to Cyrus, B.C. 534, who at this time published the famous decree by which the Jews were permitted to return to their native country, and restored all the vessels which Nebuchadnezzar had brought from Jerusalem.

Cyrus was succeeded by his son Cambyzes, who, soon after his accession to the throne, resolved to undertake an expedition against Egypt, and in that kingdom committed great cruelties and devastations. Cambyzes was returning into Persia, to quell a revolt which had been occasioned by Smerdis, one of the magi, who pretended to be the brother of the king, when he accidentally received a wound from his sword, of which he died. The counterfeit Smerdis was injured by his excessive precautions. Cyrus having formerly caused the ears of the magi to be cut off, this mutilation occasioned a discovery; and a conspiracy of seven of the principal Persian grandees being formed against Smerdis, he was assassinated.

When the public tumults had subsided, the conspirators held a council on the kind of government which should be established, and, after some debate, they determined in favor of monarchy. They agreed, therefore, to meet next morning on horseback, at an appointed place near the city, and to acknowledge him whose horse first neighed, as king. This plan was adopted, and Darius, by a stratagem of his groom, obtained the sovereignty, B.C. 522. Darius had scarcely entered the fifth year of his reign, when he was compelled to lead all his forces against Babylon, which had revolted, and made great preparations for sustaining a regular siege. To prevent the consumption of their provisions, the Babylonians collected all their old men, women, and children, and strangled them without distinction, only reserving one wife for each man, and a female servant.

After Babylon had been besieged a year and eight months, it was taken by the contrivance of Zopyrus, who cut off his own

nose and ears, and pretending that he was thus mangled by the Persian monarch for advising him to relinquish his undertaking, was admitted into the city by the inhabitants, and betrayed it to Darius.

Having settled the affairs of Babylon Darius undertook an expedition against the Scythians, B.C. 514, on pretense of revenging the calamities which that people brought upon Asia, about one hundred and twenty years before. By means of a bridge of boats, he transported his army across the Bosphorus, and subdued Thrace; and having appointed his fleet to join him at the Ister, or Danube, he also passed over that river into Scythia. The Scythians avoided an engagement, and retired before him, laying waste the country, and filling up all the wells and springs, till the Persian troops were quite exhausted with tedious and fatiguing marches. At last, Darius resolved to abandon this wild enterprise, and causing a great number of fires to be lighted, he left the old men and invalids in the camp, and marched with all expedition to regain the pass of the river. The king recrossed the Danube, and returned into Thrace, where he left Megabyzus, one of his generals, to complete the conquest of that country, and, repassing the Bosphorus, took up his quarters at Sardis. Afterward, the Athenians having sent a fleet to the assistance of certain Grecian cities in Asia Minor that had revolted from the Persian rule, Darius resolved upon their chastisement. But the powerful army he sent into Greece was defeated by a handful of Athenians on the plain of Marathon, B.C. 490, and the remnant fled ingloriously back to Asia.

Darius declared his son Xerxes, who was born after his father's exaltation to the throne, successor in the kingdom, setting aside Artabazanes, the eldest son. Xerxes ascended the throne B.C. 485, and at once began to prepare to retrieve the disgrace of Marathon. He entered into an alliance with the Carthaginians, who were to attack the Greek colonies in Sicily and Italy, and who raised an army of three hundred thousand men in Spain, Gaul, Italy, and Africa. To prevent a repetition of a former disaster which befell the Persian fleet, Xerxes commanded a passage for his galleys to be cut through Mount Athos. He also ordered a bridge of boats

to be laid across the Hellespont for the passage of his troops into Europe.

Having made the necessary preparations, the Persian monarch began his march against Greece, *b.c.* 480, with a land army of 1,800,000 men. His fleet consisted of 1,207 large ships, and 3,000 galleys and transports, which contained 517,600 men; so that the whole body of forces amounted to 2,317,600 men. This number was so much increased on the march by such nations as made their submission, that Xerxes arrived at Thermopylae with 2,641,000 men, besides servants, eunuchs, women, &c.

The Grecian fleet was victorious over that of Persia in some partial engagements, and afterward completely at the battle of Salamis, in which the dispersion was so general, and the defeat so decisive, that Xerxes, afraid of not being able to preserve a single vessel to carry him from Europe, made an expeditious retreat, and was conveyed into Asia in a small boat. This success inspired the other Greeks with new courage; and they joined the Athenians and Lacedaemonians in harassing the Persians on all sides. The land army ventured a decisive battle at Platea in Bœotia, *b.c.* 479, where, out of three hundred thousand, only three thousand Persians escaped. The same day the Persian fleet was defeated at Mycale on the coast of Asia Minor.

The dissolute conduct of Xerxes rendered him obnoxious to his subjects; and he was murdered by his chief favorite, Artabanus, who persuaded Artaxerxes, the king's third son, that Darius, his eldest brother, had been guilty of the crime of parricide. Artaxerxes, therefore, killed Darius, and finding that Artabanus entertained a design against him, he put him to a horrible death, *b.c.* 465.

The new monarch having thus removed one formidable competitor, endeavored to secure his crown against the attempts of his brother Hystaspes, who held the government of Bactria. Artaxerxes attacked and defeated the adherents of Artabanus. He then sent an army into Bactria, which had declared in favor of Hystaspes; and though victory was doubtful in the first battle, Artaxerxes was successful in the second, and firmly established himself in the empire. This Artaxerxes, surnamed Longimanus, is supposed to be the Ahasuerus of Scripture.

During his reign peace was restored between Persia and Athens, after a war of fifty-one years. He died in peace, and left the succession to Xerxes, *b.c.* 424, the only son he had by his queen, though by his concubines he had seventeen, among whom were Sogdianus, Ochus, and Arsites. Xerxes II. had assumed the diadem only forty-five days, when, being inebriated at a public entertainment, Sogdianus seized an opportunity to assassinate him. The regicide was scarcely seated on the throne, when Ochus having declared his intention of revenging the murder of Xerxes, Sogdianus was deserted by all his subjects, and finally doomed to expiate his crimes by a cruel death.

Ochus, being now invested with supreme authority, assumed the name of Darius, and is mentioned by historians under the appellation of Darius Nothus, or Darius the bastard. In this reign, the Egyptians shook off the Persian yoke, and the Medes also revolted. Darius, having settled the affairs of the rebellious provinces, bestowed the supreme command of Asia Minor on his youngest son, Cyrus, *b.c.* 407, who was ordered to assist the Lacedaemonians against the Athenians. This order, however, soon exposed the weakness of the king's politics; for the Lacedaemonians, after conquering the Athenians, invaded the Persian provinces in Asia.

Darius died, *b.c.* 404, and left the imperial diadem to his son Arsaces, who assumed the name of Artaxerxes, and received the appellation of Mueumon, on account of his extraordinary memory. Cyrus resolved to exert all his abilities to drive his brother from the throne, and having procured a number of Grecian auxiliaries, marched his troops to the plains of Cunaxa, in the province of Babylon, where he found Artaxerxes, at the head of nine hundred thousand men, ready for battle.

A sanguinary contest immediately commenced; and Cyrus, on seeing his brother, engaged him with such fury as seemed to change the battle into a single combat. The rebellious prince, however, fell by the hands of the king and his guards. The ten thousand Greeks, under the conduct of Xenophon, effected that memorable retreat, which has always been considered as a noble achievement among military operations.

Darius, the eldest son of the king, was executed for a conspiracy: whereupon three of the princes, Ariaspes, Ochus, and Arsames, became competitors for the crown. Ochus practiced so effectually on the credulity of Ariaspes, that he poisoned himself; and Arsames was assassinated by the son of Tiribazus. These acts of cruelty overwhelmed Artaxerxes with such insupportable grief that he died. Ochus concealed the death of the king, and assumed the administration of government in the name of Artaxerxes. He caused himself, in the name of the king, to be declared his successor; and after ten months, he published the death of Artaxerxes. An insurrection in several of the provinces immediately followed; but the leaders of the confederacy disagreeing among themselves, the rebellion terminated without any effusion of blood. Ochus no sooner possessed absolute authority, than he began to fill his capital and the whole empire with carnage and misery. He caused his own sister to be buried alive; he shut up one of his uncles, with a hundred of his sons and grandsons, in a court of the palace, where they were massacred by a body of archers; and he put all the branches of the royal family to death. This insupportable tyranny occasioned another rebellion, which was not quelled without much difficulty. This revolt was scarcely terminated, when the Sidonians and other natives of Phœnicia joined the Cypriots and Egyptians in a confederacy against Persia. Ochus effected the reduction of Sidon, and compelled all the other cities to make submissions. He also reduced the city of Jericho, and having concluded a peace with the kings of Cyprus, he led his victorious troops into Egypt, which he completely subdued. Apis, the sacred bull, was butchered, and the holy beef served up at a royal banquet. Ochus passed his time amidst every species of luxury and voluptuousness. Bagoas, an Egyptian eunuch, prevailed on the king's physician to administer a strong poison, instead of medicine, to his royal benefactor. Having thus accomplished his purpose, he caused the flesh of the king to be cut in pieces and thrown to dogs and cats, and had sword handles made from his bones. He then placed on the throne Arsēs, the youngest prince, and condemned all the rest to death.

But Arsēs, sensible of the slavery in which he was held, concerted measures to free himself from it. Bagoas, therefore, effected his destruction in the second year of his reign, B.C. 336, and bestowed the imperial diadem on Darius Codomanus, who was a descendant of Darius Nothus, and at that time governor of Armenia.

This prince, however, had not long enjoyed the sovereignty, when the ambitious eunuch determined to remove him, and with this design provided a deleterious potion; but Darius, being apprised of his danger, compelled Bagoas to drink the poison, and thus established himself on the throne. In the second year of this reign, Alexander of Macedon crossed the Hellespont at the head of a well-disciplined army, with the design of revenging the injuries which Greece had received from the Persians during three hundred years. On his arrival at the Granicus, he found on the opposite bank a numerous Persian army, amounting to 100,000 foot and 10,000 horse. Though Alexander had not more than 30,000 foot and 5,000 horse, he crossed the Granicus at the head of his cavalry, and attacked with impetuosity the whole Persian force. An obstinate conflict ensued, in which the Persians were defeated with the loss of 20,000 foot and 2,000 horse, and in which Alexander exposed his life to the most imminent danger. The invasion having assumed a serious aspect, Darius led his army into Cilicia, B.C. 333, and advanced to the city of Issus, near which Alexander drew up his troops on an advantageous ground. Victory clung to Macedon, and Darius retreated precipitately to the adjoining mountains, where he mounted a horse, and continued his flight. Alexander was now entire master of the field, and of the Persian camp, in which the mother, wife, and son of Darius were taken prisoners.

In 331 B.C., the Persian monarch, having assembled a numerous army, prepared for battle in a large plain near the city of Arbela, on the confines of Persia. The Persians commenced the attack, but were totally routed, and Darius was again compelled to seek safety in flight. At Ecbatana, in Media, he collected another army, with which he intended to make a last effort, B.C. 330. He was, however, prevented by Bessus, gov-

ernor of Bactria, and Nabarzanes, a Persian nobleman, who entered into a conspiracy against him, and binding him with golden chains, shut him up in a covered cart, and retreated precipitately toward Bactria. They intended, if Alexander pursued them, to deliver up the object of his resentment; or, if they escaped the Macedonian conqueror, to murder Darius, and, usurping the imperial diadem, to renew the war. When Alexander was informed of the base designs of Bessus and Nabarzanes, he advanced with a small body of light-armed cavalry; and, as soon as the Macedonians came within sight of the enemy, they immediately took to flight, and having discharged their darts at the unfortunate Persian monarch, left him weltering in his blood. Thus died Darius, in the fiftieth year of his age, and the sixth of his reign, and with him ended the Persian empire, after it had existed 206 years.

After the dissolution of the Macedonian empire, Persia fell to the Seleucidæ, and next to Parthia. After the Persians had been subject to the Parthians for the space of 475 years, Artaxerxes, a Persian of mean descent and spurious birth, excited a revolt among his countrymen; and, the reigning monarch being dethroned and put to death, a new Persian monarchy was founded. The Roman emperor, Alexander Severus, attacked and defeated Artaxerxes, and wrested from him several of his provinces. Artaxerxes, however, recovered these provinces, and, after swaying the sceptre with great reputation for the space of twelve years, died in peace.

He was succeeded by his son Sapor, A.D. 242, who was equally famous for his personal strength and mental abilities, but was of a fierce, cruel, and untractable disposition. He waged severe wars with the Romans. Sapor left his kingdom to his son Hormisdas, who, refusing to interfere in the affairs of the Romans, died in peace, A.D. 273, after a reign of one year and ten days. His son Vararanes I. enjoyed the regal dignity three years, without being disturbed by the Romans, or attempting to extend the limits of his empire. Vararanes II. meditated an invasion of the Roman provinces, A.D. 277, but on the approach of the Emperor Probus, he abandoned his design, and sued for peace. Vararanes III. was denominated Segansaa, or

king of the Segans, and was succeeded by Narses, A.D. 294, a prince of great abilities and resolution.

Sapor II., A.D. 308, was a zealous assertor of the dignity of the Persian crown, and endeavored to unite all the provinces of the ancient empire under his authority. This restless and ambitious monarch was succeeded by Artaxerxes, A.D. 380, who lived in amity with the Romans, and enjoyed the regal dignity about four years. Vararanes IV. succeeded his father Saporos, and governed his dominions eleven years. Isdigertes was deservedly celebrated for his virtuous disposition, and, at the death of his friend the Emperor Arcadius, A.D. 401, was intrusted with the care of his son Theodosius II. and the Roman empire. He was succeeded by his son Vararanes V., A.D. 421. In this reign, the indiscreet zeal of a Christian, who set fire to a Persian temple, renewed the war with the Romans. The Persian monarch obtained the assistance of the Saracens, and, notwithstanding the defeats which he experienced from the Romans, he rendered even victory disadvantageous to the enemy.

Vararanes VI. was next invested with the diadem, A.D. 442, which he wore for seventeen years and four months. His son and successor, Peroses, being incensed against the Euthalites or White Huns, marched an army into their country; but the Euthalites cutting off his retreat, obliged him to swear that he would never more invade them. Peroses, however, assembled his forces, and marched a second time toward the northern frontiers; but the Euthalites, rushing unexpectedly upon him, slew and took captive most of his army, and put him to death. The nobles bestowed the crown on his brother Valens, who, at the expiration of four years, fell a victim to the oppressive cares of government. He was succeeded by Cavades, the son of Peroses, A.D. 486. On the death of Cavades, his son Chosroes ascended the throne, A.D. 531. The Persian monarch, however, was almost constantly engaged in hostilities with the eastern empire. He raised the empire to great power, and the excellence of his government gained him the name of the Just. The Romans having given him a complete defeat, he was so deeply affected with

his ill success, that he sickened and died. He was succeeded by his son Hormisdas, A.D. 579.

Hormisdas was dethroned by a person of the royal blood, named Bindoes, who had been loaded with chains for a slight offense. The unfortunate monarch being heard in his own defense, recommended his younger son Hormisdas as his successor, in preference to his elder son Chosrodes. The assembly, however, at the instigation of Bindoes, caused his son Hormisdas, and the prince's mother, to be cut in pieces; and ordered the eyes of the deposed monarch to be put out with a hot iron.

Chosroes II. ascended the throne A.D. 592. On the death of the Emperor Mauritius, he took up arms against the Romans, A.D. 605, and such was his success, that, in nine years, he plundered the provinces of Syria, Mesopotamia, Phoenicia, Armenia, Cappadocia, Galatia, Paphlagonia, and all the country as far as Chalcedon. He also ravaged Judea, pillaged the city of Jerusalem, and sold ninety Christians to the Jews, who put them all to death. These conquests induced him to make an expedition into Egypt; he reduced Alexandria and all the country toward Libya, and added the empire of Africa to that of Asia. At last his star waned. He was defeated in several battles, and finally murdered in a dungeon by command of his own son, Siore, who having ascended the throne, A.D. 626, concluded a treaty of perpetual peace with Heraclius; but he was murdered by one of his generals after twelve months' reign. His son, Ardeser, was next invested with the government, but was assassinated in the seventh month of his reign by Sarbas, commander-in-chief of the Persian forces, who seized the diadem for himself. A civil war, however, crushed the ambitious projects of the usurper, and elevated to the throne Isdigertes II., A.D. 630. The reign of this prince was short and unhappy. The Moslems were then commencing their career of conquest. He defended his country with becoming resolution against them, till the spirits of his subjects were entirely broken by repeated defeats. At last he was slain in battle; and in him ended the royal line of Artaxares. With his death terminated the last Persian

empire, which had maintained a splendid existence for upward of four hundred years.

The Persians imbibed the literature and religion of the Arabs, and for two centuries the country was a province of the caliphate. After the power of the caliphs decayed, the land was possessed by various chiefs. The Seljookian Turks, among whom were the distinguished kings Togrel-Beg and Alp-Arslan, ruled from 1028 till 1194. The famous Genghis Khan included Persia in the Mogul empire, which held it till the end of the fourteenth century, when the Tartars under Tamerlane conquered the country, and established a rule which lasted, with few interruptions, till 1502.

The founder of the dynasty of shahs in Persia, was Ismael, surnamed Soofee, who was remotely descended from the Caliph Ali; the son-in-law of Mohammed. He was a Turkoman, but he belonged to the sect of his ancestor, and hence partly the national enmity which has subsisted between the Sheah and Sooni, or Persian and Turkish Mohammedans. In 1500 there was a great number of the sectaries of Ali among the Mohammedans of Asia. Ismael assembled about 700, who were attached to his family; and attacking his father's murderer, slew him in battle, and took possession of his dominions. He was a monster of inhumanity and cruelty, and reigned twenty-three years; during which period began the struggle for power between the Persians and the Turks. Ismael was succeeded by his son Tahmasp, A.D. 1523. He was succeeded by Ismael II. his son, A.D. 1575. Mohammed, the brother and successor of Ismael, had spent his life in privacy, wholly devoted to religious duties; and assumed the sceptre, A.D. 1577. Mohammed left three sons, the two eldest of whom, Hamzeh and Ishmael, merely appeared upon the throne, about 1584, and are scarcely numbered among the shahs.

Shah Abbas the Great began to reign in 1582. By the contrivance of a vizier named Kouli Khan, Shah Abbas prosecuted the war against the Turks, which he conducted in person, with great success and glory; retook Tauris, and defeated his enemies in several engagements. In his dying moments, he sent for four of the chief lords of his council

to his bed-side, and told them that it was his will that his grandson Mirza should succeed him, and assume the name of his father. After assembling all the lords in the neighborhood of Ispahan, they crowned him, A.D. 1628. On his accession to the throne, he assumed the name of Soofee. This prince was a second Nero; bearing in his countenance every mark of clemency and goodness, he cherished in his heart the vicious inclinations of a savage and inexorable tyrant. He reigned thirteen years, and left a son, named Abbas, who succeeded him in 1641, and whom his father had ordered to be deprived of sight; but the compassion of the executioner had spared him.

Under this Abbas II., intoxication, passion, and an uncontrollable love of power rendered life not more secure than under his brutal father. On the death of Abbas, his eldest son Safi was immediately saluted emperor, A.D. 1666, but afterward assumed the name of Solyman. Solyman died a natural death after a reign of twenty-nine years, A.D. 1694, and was succeeded by his son Shah Husseyn, the most merciful and most unfortunate prince of his race. History furnishes few instances of a dissolution so entire as that of the kingdom of Persia, under the feeble and inactive Husseyn.

At length, after a series of disasters, Husseyn was obliged to abdicate the throne to Mahmoud. Before this ceremony took place, the king traveled through the principal streets of Ispahan on foot, deploring the misfortunes of his reign, and consoling the people who surrounded him, by endeavoring to excite in them hopes of better fortune under a new government.

In dispossessing Husseyn, A.D. 1723, Mahmoud avenged himself on all those who, by negligence, ignorance, party spirit, cowardice, or treason, had contributed to the ruin of the state. The conduct of Mahmoud tended to excite the odium of his subjects; and he saw his projects defeated, and himself beginning to be treated with general hatred. In order to avert these misfortunes, which he imputed to the anger of heaven, he imposed on himself a sort of penance, which continued fifteen days, and which had the effect of completely deranging his senses. His captains, seeing him at the point of death, turned their

thoughts on his cousin Ashraf, who refused the crown except the head of Mahmoud should be brought to him. Mahmoud, therefore, who could not have lived many hours longer, was put to death; and the destroyer of the dynasty of the Shahs enjoyed his triumph only two years. Ashraf ordered all the guards, ministers, and confidants of Mahmoud to be executed; and did not spare even those who had placed him on the throne.

About this time, Kouli Khan became distinguished; and having tendered his services to Tahmasp, in three campaigns he made him master of all the possessions of the Afghans. Ashraf offered to abdicate the throne, and to restore the treasures which he had inherited after Mahmoud's death; but Kouli Khan, refusing to listen to any terms of accommodation, pursued his enemy even to death, and with him ended the transitory dynasty of the Afghans. Tahmasp was re-established on the throne by the power of Kouli Khan, A.D. 1730, who in a short time deposed him, and introduced into his place his infant son, by the name of Abbas III. The infant emperor dying within six months, Kouli Khan was elected to the vacant throne; and, on his accession, took the name of Nadir Shah.

The reign of this prince was marked with glory and conquest. His government was despotic and tyrannical; and he formed the design of a general massacre of the principal Persians. He conquered Candahar and Afghanistan, and invading India in 1739 bore from Delhi a booty estimated at \$160,000,000. He conquered Usbec Tartary, but was not so successful against the Daghistan Tartars. He beat the Turks in several engagements, but was unable to take Bagdad. His conduct became so intolerable, that he was assassinated in his tent, in the year 1747.

Many pretenders, upon his death, started up; but the fortunate one was Kerim Khan. His death gave rise to another disputed succession, with civil wars. At length, Aga Mohammed raised himself to the sovereignty. He fixed the capital at Teheran. His cruelty provoked his attendants to his assassination in 1797. His nephew, Futtah Ali, became shah. This reign was marked by two disastrous wars with Russia, who had already seized Georgia, and now obtained fresh slices of territory. Futtah Ali died in 1834, and was

succeeded by his grandson, Shah Mohammed, at whose death in 1848 his son Nasr-ul-Din, or Nausser-ood-deen, became shah.

The Persian possession of Herat in the fall of 1856, brought on a rupture with England. The Persians were defeated at Bushire, Dec. 10th, and at one or two other encounters, and peace was ratified at Teheran, April 14th, 1857.

PERU, like the other South American provinces of Spain, achieved its independence in the early part of this century. The southern part of ancient Peru is now the republic of Bolivia; the remainder, also a republic, retains the old name, having an area of 580,000 square miles, and a population of 2,400,000. The surface of the country is of the boldest and most varied description. The lofty Andes crowd close to the Pacific, leaving but a narrow desert between them and the shore, brightened by the luxuriant verdure of the valleys through which the torrents roll from the mountains to the sea. East of the mountains is a vast region, inhabited by independent Indian tribes, with all the luxuriant vegetation and animal life that belong to the tropics. Peru is considered the native land of the potato: here it bears pure white blossoms free from the purple hue so common in cultivated varieties. This is not an agricultural country: its mines of gold, silver, and mercury, have been the source of its wealth. They are seated in the inmost depths of the Andes, approached only by deep and perilous passes, and in mountains which tower into the regions of perpetual snow. They are by no means exhausted, though of late years, wars and political convulsions caused a diminution of their products. Guano has become an important export of late.

The population of Peru is made up of Spaniards or Creoles, Indians, mixed races, and negroes. Much of the commerce at Callao and Lima is carried on by English and American merchants. The Spanish ladies of Peru are famed for their love of intrigue and coquetry, which is greatly aided by a dress originally intended to secure reserve and seclusion: the *saya*, a light gown fitted close to the frame, being covered with the *manto*, a large loose cloak of black silk gauze, which is wrapped round even the face.

Under this disguise they sally forth, and amuse themselves by addressing their friends without being known, mixing with the crowd to see whatever attracts their curiosity, and too liable to trip in more culpable indiscretions.

The Indians, or native Peruvians, are the most numerous class. They have small features, little feet, well-turned limbs, sleek, coarse, black hair, and scarcely any beard. Conquest and oppression plunged them in apathy, ignorance, and degradation. An enlightened government could easily raise them to a higher civilization, for many of them have courage, patience, industry, and ingenuity. The monks largely converted them to something which was called Christianity. They celebrated the festivals of the Romish church by drinking enormous potations of *chica* (a liquor made from corn, the Indian women helping on the fermentation by first chewing the kernels), dancing through the streets to the sound of the pipe, with bells fastened to their legs, and cudgels for thrashing any who stood in their way: in which devout exercises a whole week was sometimes consumed. During the war of independence the missions were mostly broken up. It is said that amid their gloomy debasement, the natives yet retain a mournful recollection of the estate of their ancestors, and in the more remote districts, the death of the last inca is annually observed by a sort of rude tragedy, accompanied by plaintive strains of their wild music.

Lima, next to Mexico the most splendid city of Spanish America, is the capital of Peru; population 60,000. Lima was founded in 1534 by Pizarro, and has been visited by severe earthquakes. It stands six miles from the coast. Callao, its port, is itself a considerable town, having 20,000 inhabitants. The most interesting town in Peru is Cuzco, the metropolis of the ancient empire, situated in the interior upon a table-land of the Andes, surrounded by valleys, and even extended plains, rich in pasturage and the grains of temperate climates. In its fallen state, it is still noble. The cathedral is a stately pile. On the site of the ancient temple of the sun and from its materials, the Dominican monks reared a church; their altar took the place of the image of the Peruvian deity. On an

eminence north of the town stand the dismantled walls of the great fortress of the incas. They were raised to a great height, and built of truly astonishing masses of stone, placed upon one another without cement, but fitted with such nicety as not to admit the insertion of a blade between them. Cuzco has some 40,000 inhabitants.

The ancient Peruvians enjoyed a degree of civilization far above the savage state, equalled on the continent only by that of Mexico, and with that contrasting remarkably. Instead of the fierce and lofty spirit, the bloody wars, the uncouth deities, and the ferocious rites of that singular nation, the Peruvians were united in tranquil subjection to a mild superstition, which represented to them their inca as one to whom their unreserved submission was due. They venerated the memory of Manco Capac, and Mama Ocello his wife, children of the sun, who came among them in the tenth or eleventh century, to teach the women how to spin and the men how to till the ground, and established peace, order, and religion. The truth hidden in this tradition, is hidden from us forever. The unknown history of the world is greater than that which is written. We may repeat the question of quaint Sir Thomas Browne: "Who knows whether the best of men be known? or whether there be not more remarkable persons forgot than any that stand remembered in the known account of time?"

The incas were the posterity of Manco Capac, and thus sacred as descendants of the sun. Their government was a theocracy, despotic though not cruel. They were at once temporal and spiritual sovereigns. "The empire of the incas," Humboldt says, "was like a great monastic establishment: there prevailed a state of general ease with little individual happiness; a resignation to the decrees of the sovereign, rather than a love of country; a passive obedience without the courage for great undertakings; a spirit of order, which directed with great minuteness the most indifferent acts of life, but no expansion of mind, no elevation of character." The religion was a worship of the sun and other heavenly bodies, rarely stained by human sacrifices. The empire attained dominion over a territory more than two thousand miles in length. The land was carefully

cultivated. As moisture was the chief want, all the rivers were diverted into canals for irrigation; mountains were formed into terraces to receive them; walls were built to prevent the waters from escaping; and thus large tracts were made to blossom and smile, which under Spanish indolence have relapsed into deserts. From Cuzco to Quito, a distance of 1,500 miles, a road was constructed, which though only eighteen feet broad, and not fitted for carriages,—which indeed were not known to the Peruvians,—was yet a wonderful work, from the natural obstacles which had been overcome, and the flying bridges that gave a passage over the deep ravines. The country is subject to earthquakes, and to this the structure of the edifices was adapted. The walls were formed of huge blocks of stone, and seldom rose to more than twelve feet in height. But they inclosed immense spaces of ground, and were divided into many apartments. The people were decently clad. They had manufactures of earthenware, and woolen and cotton cloth. They had tools made of copper. To the Mexican paintings and hieroglyphics, the Peruvians had nothing analogous. Their *quipos*, or strings, on which the colors represented objects, and the knots their number, were apparently first used for purposes of calculation, and afterward employed as a rude record of events. Avid the mildness of their rites and habits, there remained one decided relic of barbarism. On the death of an inca, or even of any great chief, a number of his vassals, often very considerable, were buried with his corpse. A portion of his wealth was also deposited, and many precious and useful articles, destined for his use in the world to which he had gone. In later days the opening of these *huacas*, or tombs, often proved a great prize to European adventurers, and in one instance there was found a treasure in gold amounting to \$750,000.

Rumors of a region that vied with the Indies in wealth reached the Spaniards. In 1531 Pizarro led his band into the quiet realm, whose unsuspecting people received them with hospitality and venerated them as superior beings. The inca Huayna Capac had violated the ancient usage forbidding him to wed beyond the lineage of Manco Capac. His second wife was the daughter of the

vanquished king of Quito, and the son whom she had borne him, named Atahualpa, he made his successor in that kingdom, while Huascar, his eldest son by a princess of the sacred race, reigned over the other dominions. The contest between the half-brothers smoothed the way for Spanish ambition. The conquest was soon made. Atahualpa, the last of the incas, was held a captive. The Spaniards promised to ransom him on the payment of an immense sum of money; when the loyalty of the people had produced the treasure, Pizarro accepted it, but refused to release his prisoner, who was murdered in his palace at Caxamarca. In that town still dwells an Indian family who boast a descent from the incas, and inhabit the remains of the ancient palace. The room in which Atahualpa was confined is shown, and especially the mark on the wall, to which the room was to be filled with silver as his ransom. The Peruvians were degraded into a cruel bondage, and their country became the centre of the wealth and power of Spain in South America. It was the last of the viceroyalties to throw off the Spanish rule. The battle of Ayacucho, Dec. 9th, 1824, overthrew the last army of Spain. Peru has since shared the unhappy lot of all the South American republics.

PESTALOZZI, HENRY, the celebrated instructor, born at Zurich, Jan. 12th, 1745, died in 1827.

PETER the Hermit, a French enthusiast of the eleventh century, who made a pilgrimage to Palestine, and, on his return to Europe, preached up a crusade for the recovery of the holy city from the infidels. His success was such as might have been expected in an ignorant age. He passed through Hungary with an immense crowd of followers, thousands of whom perished miserably by the way. Peter, however, entered Syria, and displayed great bravery at the taking of Jerusalem. He then returned to France, where he died, in the abbey of Noirmoutier, of which he was the founder.

PETERS, RICHARD, was born near Philadelphia, Aug. 22d, 1744, and was graduated at the University of Pennsylvania. He studied law, and, having served a short time as captain in the revolutionary army, he was transferred to the board of war, where his

services were of high worth to the patriot cause. For thirty-six years he held the station of judge of the district court of Pennsylvania. He made many agricultural experiments, most of which were highly successful. He was particularly distinguished for a fertile fancy and wit.

PETRARCA, FRANCESCO, or, as he is generally termed by English writers, **PETRARCH**, was an Italian poet and scholar who adorned the fourteenth century. He was born at Arezzo in Tuscany, July 4th, 1304. He studied law and theology, entering into the ecclesiastical state in 1326. His platonic affection for the beautiful Laura led him to write amatory sonnets in his native tongue, which tributes of affection were continued after the death of the virtuous lady who inspired them. Petrarch died at Arquà, near Padua, July 18th, 1374.

PETRONIUS, ARBITER, a licentious Roman author, bled to death by order of Nero, A.D. 65.

PHARSALIA, BATTLE OF, fought May 12th, B.C. 48, in which Cæsar defeated Pompey, who fled into Egypt, and was there slain.

PHIDIAS, the greatest of Grecian sculptors, was born at Athens about B.C. 490. Under the patronage of Pericles, he executed his greatest works. He superintended the building of the Parthenon, whose sculptures, known in the British Museum as the Elgin marbles, eloquently extol his genius. Phidias died 432 B.C.

PHILIP I. of France, born in 1053, the son of Henry I., was crowned at Rheims, 1059. His jealousy against William the Conqueror laid the foundations of the wars between England and France. He died at Milan, July 29th, 1108.

PHILIP II. of France, surnamed **AUGUSTUS**, son of Louis VII. and of Alix, daughter of the Count of Champagne, was born August 22d, 1165. He began to reign in 1180. He made war with the English; but some time after, he joined Richard I. in the crusade in 1190. He returned about Christmas, 1191, and invaded Normandy during Richard's captivity. Afterward he seized all King John's possessions in France. In 1214 the Emperor Otho IV., a Count of Flanders, and several confederate princes raised an army of 150,000 men against him, when the king engaged them at Bovines, and gained the victory. The king

fought with great intrepidity at Bovines, and had his horse killed under him. He died at Mante upon the Seine, July 14th, 1223, after a reign of forty-two years.

PHILIP III. of France, surnamed the Hardy, the son of St. Louis and Margaret of Provence, was born in 1245. After his father's death before Tunis, he brought the army home to France, where he was crowned in 1271. He engaged in war with Peter of Aragon, went in person against the Aragonese, took Girone, and on his return died of a malignant fever at Perpignan in the sixteenth year of his reign, aged forty-one.

PHILIP IV. of France, surnamed the Fair, as also *le Grand*, born at Fontainebleau in 1268, was the son of the preceding by Isabella of Aragon, and succeeded his father in 1285. The ill conduct of James of Castillon, Earl of St. Paul, caused a sedition at Bruges. The king sent an army to reduce it, under the command of Robert, Earl of Artois; but they were defeated at the battle of Courtray in 1302. Philip recovered himself in some measure again, especially on the 18th of August, 1304, in the memorable battle at Mons in Flanders, where above 25,000 Flemings were slain. At length peace was made, in 1305. Philip also waged war with England, and quarreled with the pope, by whom he was excommunicated. Philip died at Fontainebleau, in 1314.

PHILIP V. of France, surnamed the Long, youngest son to Philip the Fair, succeeded to the crown in 1317, but died after a reign of five years. He renewed his alliance with the Scots in 1318, and cruelly expelled the Jews from his dominions. He died at Long-Champ, 1322, aged twenty-eight years.

PHILIP VI. of France succeeded in 1328. He was the son of Charles of Valois, a son of Philip III. Edward III. of England claiming the crown, war broke out in 1338. Next year Cambrai was besieged by the English. The king had taken the part of Charles de Blois, his nephew, and had received homage for Brittany, which John de Montfort pretended to; but the latter was supported by Edward, who made a descent into Normandy, took Caen, and gained a great victory at Cressy. The English, flushed with this victory, took Calais. Philip died at Nogent le Potrou, 1350, aged fifty-seven.

PHILIP II. of Spain, born at Valladolid in 1527, was son of the Emperor Charles V. and Isabel of Portugal. He was married first to the Princess Mary of Portugal, and in 1554 to Queen Mary of England. He was dissatisfied with this last match; he soon returned to the continent, and by his father's abdication received the crown of Spain and the Indies. He made a league with the English, and sent 40,000 men into Picardy, who gained a victory over 18,000 French at St. Quintin in 1557. Peace was made at Chateau Cambresis in 1559. In 1580 Philip made himself master of the kingdom of Portugal; and his troops contributed to the defeat of the Turks at the battle of Lepanto. He also reduced the Moors who revolted against him in 1561. His bigotry caused the revolt of the Netherlands. Queen Elizabeth gave them succor, and Philip sent out a fleet of above fourscore ships, which was called the Invincible Armada, against England. They sailed from Lisbon, May 29th, 1588, and were destroyed partly by storms and partly by the valor of the English. Philip received the news without the least discomposure. He calmly thanked God that he was able to rig out such another. Philip died at the Escorial, Sept. 13th, 1598.

PHILIP III. of Spain, born at Madrid, 1578, succeeded his father Philip II. in 1598, reformed the courts of judicature, expelled the Moors out of Spain, and made a peace in the Low Countries, and afterward lived in repose. He died on the 31st of March, 1621.

PHILIP of Macedon, the second king of that name, was the fourth son of Amyntas. He was sent to Thebes as an hostage by his father, where he learned the art of war under Epaminondas, and studied with the greatest care the manners and the pursuits of the Greeks. He was recalled to Macedonia, and ascended the throne, B.C. 360. The neighboring nations, ridiculing the youth and inexperience of the new king of Macedonia, appeared in arms; but Philip soon convinced them of their error. Unable to meet them as yet in the field of battle, he suspended their fury by presents, and soon turned his arms against Amphipolis, a colony tributary to the Athenians.

Amphipolis was conquered, and added to the kingdom of Macedonia; and Philip medi-

tated no less than the destruction of the republic which had rendered itself so formidable to the rest of Greece, and had even claimed submission from the princes of Macedonia. He made himself master of a Thracian colony, to which he gave the name of Philippi.

In the midst of his political prosperity, Philip did not neglect the honor of his family. Everything seemed now to conspire to his aggrandizement; and historians have observed, that Philip received in one day the intelligence of three things which could gratify the most unbounded ambition, and flatter the hopes of the most aspiring monarch,—the birth of a son, an honorable crown at the Olympic games, and a victory over the barbarians of Illyricum.

But all these increased rather than satiated his ambition; he declared his inimical sentiments against the power of Athens, and the independence of all Greece, by laying siege to Olynthus, a place which, on account of its situation and consequence, was most advantageous to the intrigues of every Macedonian prince.

The Athenians sent seventeen vessels and 2,000 men to the assistance of Olynthus, but the money of Philip prevailed over all their efforts. The greatest part of the citizens suffered themselves to be bribed by the Macedonian gold, and Olynthus surrendered to the enemy, and was instantly reduced to ruins. In his attempts to make himself master of Eubœa, Philip was unsuccessful; and Phocion, who despised his gold, obliged him to evacuate an island whose inhabitants were as insensible to the charms of money, as they were unmoved at the horrors of war and the bold efforts of a vigilant enemy. From Eubœa he turned his arms against the Scythians, but the advantages which he obtained over this indigent nation were inconsiderable.

He next advanced far into Bœotia, and a general engagement was fought at Chæronea. The fight was long and bloody, but Philip obtained the victory. At the battle of Chæronea the independence of Greece was extinguished; and Philip, unable to find new enemies in Europe, formed new enterprises and meditated new conquests.

He was appointed general of the Greeks against the Persians, and was called upon to revenge those injuries which Greece had suf-

fered from the invasions of Darius and of Xerxes. But he was stopped in the midst of his warlike preparations, being stabbed by Pausanias at the instance of his repudiated spouse Olympias (the mother of Alexander the Great), as he entered the theatre, at the celebration of the nuptials of his daughter Cleopatra. He was murdered in the forty-seventh year of his age, and the twenty-fourth of his reign, 336 years before the Christian era.

PHILIP, sachem of Pokanoket, was the youngest son of Massasoit. In 1675 he commenced a war with the colonists of New England, who suffered severely from his enmity. He was killed Aug. 12th, 1676.

PHILIPPI, BATTLES OF, both fought in October, B.C. 42, between the forces of Octavius Cæsar and Mark Antony, and those of Brutus and Cassius. In the first battle the illness of Cæsar confined him to the camp. Antony defeated the troops of Cassius, but Brutus with the other wing routed Cæsar's forces. Cassius, thinking all was lost, withdrew into a lonely hut and made his freedman strike off his head. In the second battle both sides fought with desperation, but victory finally declared for Cæsar and Antony. Brutus sought refuge in a glen with a few of his friends. Looking up at the sky, which the night had gemmed with the silent stars, he repeated two Greek verses, one from the "Medea" of Euripides:—

"Zeus! may the cause of all these ills escape thee not."

He passed the night in enumerating and mourning over those who had fallen. Toward morning he fell upon his sword, and expired.

PHILIPPINES, a group of islands in the Pacific Ocean. They were discovered by Magellan in 1521, who here lost his life, and the first settlements were made by the Spaniards in 1570. The population is composed of Chinese, Spaniards, mestizoes, and Malays, and amounts to about three and a half millions. These islands are fruitful and productive, but subject to ravages from hurricanes, earthquakes, and volcanic eruptions. Luzon, the largest, is very mountainous. Manila on Luzon, the capital of the Spanish possessions, is a great mart of commerce. Three thousand persons perished here by an earthquake in 1645, and the town was nearly

destroyed by a shock, Sept. 22d, 1852. Population 150,000.

PHOCION, an Athenian, celebrated for his virtues, private as well as public. He often checked the violent and inconsiderate measures of Demosthenes, and when the Athenians seemed eager to make war against Philip of Macedon, Phocion observed that war should never be undertaken without the strongest and most certain expectations of success and victory.

He was forty-five times appointed governor of Athens, and no greater encomium can be passed upon his talents as a minister and statesman, than that he never solicited that high though dangerous position. It was through him that Greece was saved from an impending war, and he advised Alexander rather to turn his arms against Persia, than to shed the blood of the Greeks, who were either his allies or his subjects. But not totally to despise the favors of the monarch, he begged Alexander to restore to their liberty four slaves that were confined in the citadel of Sardis.

When the Piræus was taken, Phocion was accused of treason, and therefore, to avoid the public indignation, he fled for safety to Polyperchon. Polyperchon sent him back to Athens, where he was immediately condemned to drink the fatal poison. He received the indignities of the people with uncommon composure; and when one of his friends lamented his fate, Phocion exclaimed, "This is no more than what I expected; this treatment the most illustrious citizens of Athens have received before me." He died about 318 B.C.

It has been observed of Phocion, that he never appeared elated in prosperity, or dejected in adversity; he never betrayed pusillanimity by a tear, nor joy by a smile. His countenance was stern and unpleasant, but he never behaved with severity, his expressions were mild, and his rebukes gentle. At the age of eighty he appeared at the head of the Athenian armies like the most active officer, and to his prudence and cool valor in every period of life his fellow-citizens confessed themselves much indebted. His merits were not buried in oblivion; the Athenians repented of their ingratitude, and honored his

memory by raising him statues, and putting to a cruel death his guilty accusers.

PHOCIS, an ancient country of Greece, bounded north by Thessaly, east by Locris and Bœotia, south by the Gulf of Corinth, and west by Doris and the country of the Ozolian Locrians. Phocis was rendered famous by a war which it maintained against some of the Grecian republics, and which has received the name of the Phocian war. When Philip, of Macedon, had fomented divisions in Greece, and disturbed the peace of every republic, the Greeks universally became discontented in their situation, and jealous of the prosperity of the neighboring states. The Amphictyons, who were the supreme rulers of Greece, and who at that time were subservient to the views of the Thebans, the inveterate enemies of the Phocians, showed the same spirit, and like the rest of their countrymen, were actuated by the same jealousy and ambition. As the supporters of religion, they accused the Phocians of impiety for ploughing a small portion of land which belonged to the god of Delphi. They immediately commanded that the sacred field should be laid waste, and that the Phocians, to expiate their crime, should pay a heavy fine to the community.

The inability of the Phocians to pay the fine, and that of the Amphictyons to enforce their commands by violence, gave rise to new events. The people of Phocis resolved to oppose the Amphictyonic council by force of arms. During two years hostilities were carried on between the Phocians and their enemies, the Thebans and the people of Locris, but no decisive battles were fought.

Philip of Macedon, who had assisted the Thebans, was obliged to retire from the field with dishonor, but a more successful battle was fought near Magnesia, and the monarch, by crowning the head of his soldiers with laurel, and telling them that they fought in the cause of Delphi and heaven, obtained a complete victory. This fatal defeat, however, did not ruin the Phocians: Phallus took the command of their armies, and doubling the pay of his soldiers, he increased his forces by the addition of 9,000 men from Athens, Lacedæmon, and Achaia.

But all this numerous force at last proved

ineffectual; the treasures of the temple of Delphi, which had long defrayed the expenses of the war, began to fail, dissensions arose among the ringleaders of Phocis, and when Philip had crossed the Straits of Thermopylæ, the Phocians, relying on his generosity, claimed his protection, and implored him to plead their cause before the Amphictyonic council. His feeble intercession was not attended with success, and the Thebans, the Locrians, and the Thessalians, who then composed the Amphictyonic council, unanimously decreed that the Phocians should be deprived of the privilege of sending members among the Amphictyons.

The Phocians, ten years after they had undertaken the sacred war, saw their country laid desolate, their walls demolished, and their cities in ruins, by the wanton jealousy of their enemies, and the inflexible cruelty of the Macedonian soldiers, *B.C.* 348. They were not, however, long under this disgraceful sentence: their well known valor and courage recommended them to favor, and they gradually regained their influence and consequence by the protection of the Athenians, and the favors of Philip.

PHENICE, or PHENICIA, a small country of Asia, at the east of the Mediterranean, whose boundaries varied in different ages. According to Ptolemy, it extended on the north as far as the Eleutherus, a small river which falls into the Mediterranean a little below the island of Araddus, and it had Pelusium, or the territories of Egypt, as its more southern boundary, and Syria on the east. Sidon and Tyre were the chief towns. The inhabitants planted colonies on the shores of the Mediterranean, particularly Carthage, Marseilles, and Utica; and their manufactures acquired such superiority over those of other nations, that among the ancients, whatever was elegant, great, or pleasing, either in apparel or domestic utensils, received the epithet of Sidonian. The Phœnicians were originally governed by kings. They were subdued by the Persians, and afterward by Alexander, and remained tributary to his successors and to the Romans. The Phœnicians surpassed all the other nations of antiquity in commercial adventure. Their vessels are supposed to have sought Cornwall for tin.

PICHEGRU, CHARLES, a French general, was born at Arbois, in 1761, in Franche Comte. His parentage was mean, but he received a good education under the monks in his native town, and at Brienne; after which he entered into the army, and became a sergeant. In the revolution he was elevated to the rank of a general. In 1793 he gained a victory over the allies at Hagenau, in consequence of which he succeeded to the command of the army of the north. His most celebrated exploit was the subjugation of Holland, after which he was elected a member of the national assembly. At length he fell under suspicion of being a royalist, and was banished to Cayenne, whence he escaped to England. He engaged in a conspiracy against Napoleon, and in the spring of 1804 he went secretly to Paris, but was soon seized, and thrown into a dungeon of the Temple, where he probably strangled himself on the 6th of April of the same year.

PICKENS, ANDREW, a celebrated Revolutionary officer, born of Irish parents, in Bucks county, Pennsylvania, Sept. 13th, 1739. While he was still young, his father removed to South Carolina. He had fought against the French and the Cherokees before the breaking out of the Revolution. He was one of the most active of the patriot partisans of the South, and acted a gallant part at the battle of Cowpens, as well as at that of Eutaw Springs. At the conclusion of the war, he served his country in various civil offices, and died, full of years and honors, Oct. 11th, 1817.

PICKERING, TIMOTHY, was born at Salem, Mass., July 17th, 1745; and was educated at Harvard College. He served with distinction as adjutant-general during the Revolutionary war, toward the close of which he succeeded General Greene as quarter-master-general, and contributed greatly to the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown. In 1794 he was made postmaster-general, in 1794 secretary of war, and at the end of the year he succeeded Edmund Randolph as secretary of state, in which department he remained till nearly the close of Washington's administration. In 1803 he was chosen senator to Congress from Massachusetts, and in 1811, when his term of office had expired, he was made member of the executive council.

During the ensuing war with Great Britain he was a member of the board of war for the defense of the state. From 1814 to 1817 he was in the lower house of Congress. Having retired to private life, he died Jan. 29th, 1829.

PIKE, ZEBULON, brigadier general of the United States army, killed at York, in Upper Canada, 1813. Gen. Pike was a native of New Jersey.

PILES, ROGER DE, an eminent French painter, born 1635, died in 1709.

PINCKNEY, CHARLES COTESWORTH, was born in South Carolina, Feb. 25th, 1746, and educated in England, where he studied law. He returned to his native state in 1769. He held a colonel's commission during the Revolutionary war, and aided in the defense of Charleston. At its fall he was taken prisoner, and not released till 1782. After the conclusion of the war he was appointed minister plenipotentiary to France, where his treatment by the French directory was insulting. He was ordered to leave the French territories. In 1797 he was appointed the second major-general in the army under Washington. He died Aug. 16th, 1825.

PINCKNEY, THOMAS, a major-general in the army of the United States, brother of the preceding, was born in Charleston, South Carolina, Oct. 23d, 1750. He studied law in England. During the Revolution, he served with distinction, and at the conclusion of the war he was elected second governor of South Carolina. At the expiration of his term of office, he was appointed minister plenipotentiary to the court of St. James. After a few years he was appointed minister to the court of Spain. He returned to America in 1796, and was soon elected to Congress. In the war of 1812 he received the commission of major-general. He died Nov. 2d, 1828.

PINDAR, the great lyric poet, died 442 B. C., aged eighty. He was a native of Bœotia, and when Alexander the Great took Thebes, he ordered the house of Pindar to be spared.

PINKNEY, WILLIAM, a distinguished lawyer and statesman, born at Annapolis, in Maryland, March 17th, 1765. He was twice ambassador to England between 1806 and 1815; and to Russia from 1815 to 1818. He commanded a volunteer company during the

war of 1812, receiving a severe wound in the battle of Bladensburg. He died Feb. 25th, 1822.

PIRON, ALEXIS, French poet and satirist, died in 1773, aged eighty-four.

PISISTRATUS, an Athenian, son of Hippocrates, early distinguished himself by his valor in the field and by his address and eloquence at home. After he had rendered himself the favorite of the populace by his liberality, and by the intrepidity with which he had fought their battles, particularly near Salamis, he resolved to make himself master of his country. Pisistratus was not disheartened by the measures of his kinsman Solon, but he had recourse to artifice. The people too late perceived their credulity; yet, though the tyrant was popular, two of the citizens, Megacles and Lycurgus, conspired together against him, and by their means he was forcibly ejected from the city.

The private dissensions of the friends of liberty proved favorable to the expelled tyrant, and Megacles, who was jealous of Lycurgus, secretly promised to restore Pisistratus to all his rights and privileges in Athens, if he would marry his daughter. Pisistratus consented, and by the assistance of his father-in-law, he was soon enabled to expel Lycurgus, and to re-establish himself. In the midst of his triumph, however, Pisistratus felt himself unsupported, and some time after, when he repudiated the daughter of Megacles, he found that not only the citizens, but even his very troops, were alienated from him by the influence, the intrigues, and the bribery of his father-in-law.

He fled from Athens, where he could no longer maintain his power, and retired to Eubœa. Eleven years after, he was drawn from his obscure retreat by means of his son Hippias, and he was a third time received by the people of Athens as their master and sovereign. He died about B. C. 527, after he had enjoyed the sovereign power at Athens for thirty-three years, including the time of his banishment. He ruled beneficently, and to him we owe the collection and preservation of the poems of Homer. He also founded the first public library of which we have any certain account in history.

PITCAIRN'S ISLAND, in the South Pacific Ocean, is six miles long and three broad,

PIT

and remarkably fertile, possessing a fine climate. It was discovered by Carteret in 1767, but was then uninhabited. In 1789, however, it was settled by some of the mutineers of the English ship *Bounty*. The *Bounty* was an armed vessel sent to Otaheite by the British government for bread-fruit plants. An account of the mutiny may not be uninteresting. It is best described by the narrative of Captain Bligh.

"We discovered the island of Otaheite on the 25th, and, before casting anchor next morning in Matavai Bay, such numbers of canoes had come off, that after the natives ascertained we were friends, they came on board, and crowded the deck so much that in ten minutes I could scarce find my own people. The whole distance which the ship had run, in direct and contrary courses, from the time of leaving England until reaching Otaheite, was twenty-seven thousand and eighty-six miles, which, on an average, was one hundred and eight miles each twenty-four hours.

"On Monday, the 5th of January, the small cutter was missed, of which I was immediately apprised. The ship's company being mustered, we found three men absent, who had carried it off. They had taken with them eight stand of arms and ammunition; but with regard to their plan, every one on board seemed to be quite ignorant. I therefore went on shore, and engaged all the chiefs to assist in recovering both the boats and the deserters. Accordingly, the former were brought back in the course of the day, by five of the natives; but the men were not taken until nearly three weeks afterward. Learning the place where they were, in a different quarter of the island of Otaheite, I went thither in the cutter, thinking there would be no great difficulty in securing them with the assistance of the natives. However, they heard of my arrival; and when I was near a house in which they were, they came out wanting their fire-arms, and delivered themselves up. Some of the chiefs had formerly seized and bound these deserters, but had been prevailed on, by fair promises of returning peaceably to the ship, to release them. But finding an opportunity again to get possession of their arms, they set the natives at defiance. * * *

"The object of the voyage being now completed, all the bread-fruit plants, to the number of one thousand and fifteen, were got on board on Tuesday the 31st of March. Besides these, we had collected many other plants, some of them bearing the finest fruits in the world; and valuable, from affording brilliant dyes, and for various properties besides. At sunset of the 4th of April, we made sail from Otaheite, bidding farewell to an island where for twenty-three weeks we had been treated with the utmost affection and regard, and which seemed to increase in proportion to our stay. That we were not insensible to their kindness, the succeeding circumstances sufficiently proved; for to the friendly and endearing behavior of these people may be ascribed the motives inciting an event that effected the ruin of our expedition, which there was every reason to believe would have been attended with the most favorable issue.

"Next morning we got sight of the island Huaheine; and a double canoe soon coming alongside, containing ten natives, I saw among them a young man who recollected me, and called me by my name. I had been here in the year 1780, with Captain Cook, in the *Resolution*. A few days after sailing from this island, the weather became squally, and a thick body of black clouds collected in the east. A water-spout was in a short time seen at no great distance from us, which appeared to great advantage from the darkness of the clouds behind it. As nearly as I could judge, the upper part was about two feet in diameter, and the lower about eight inches. Scarcely had I made these remarks, when I observed that it was rapidly advancing toward the ship. We immediately altered our course, and took in all the sails except the foresail; soon after which it passed within ten yards of the stern, with a rustling noise, but without our feeling the least effect from its being so near. It seemed to be traveling at the rate of about ten miles an hour, in the direction of the wind, and it dispersed in a quarter of an hour after passing us. It is impossible to say what injury we should have received, had it passed directly over us. Masts, I imagine, might have been carried away, but I do not apprehend that it would have endangered the loss of the ship.

"Passing several islands on the way, we anchored at Anamooka, on the 23d of April; and an old lame man called Tapa, whom I had known here in 1777, and immediately recollected, came on board, along with the others from different islands in the vicinity. They were desirous to see the ship, and on being taken below, where the bread-fruit plants were arranged, they testified great surprise. A few of these being decayed, we went on shore so procure some in their place.

"The natives exhibited numerous marks of the peculiar mourning which they express on losing their relatives; such as bloody temples, their heads being deprived of most of the hair, and what was worse, almost the whole of them had lost some of their fingers. Several fine boys, not above six years old, had lost both their little fingers; and several of the men, besides these, had parted with the middle finger of the right hand.

"The chiefs went off with me to dinner, and we carried on a brisk trade for yams; we also got plantains and bread-fruit. But the yams were in great abundance, and very fine and large. One of them weighed above forty-five pounds. Sailing canoes came, some of which contained not less than ninety passengers. Such a number of them gradually arrived from different islands, that it was impossible to get anything done, the multitude became so great, and there was no chief of sufficient authority to command the whole. I therefore ordered a watering party, then employed, to come on board, and sailed on Sunday the 26th of April.

"We kept near the island of Kotoo all the afternoon of Monday, in hopes that some canoes would come off to the ship, but in this we were disappointed. The wind being northerly, we steered to the westward in the evening, to pass south of Tofoa; and I gave directions for this course to be continued during the night. The master had the first watch, the gunner the middle watch, and Mr. Christian the morning watch. This was the turn of duty for the night.

"Hitherto the voyage had advanced in a course of uninterrupted prosperity, and had been attended with circumstances equally pleasing and satisfactory. But a very different scene was now to be disclosed; a conspiracy had been formed, which was to ren-

der all our past labor productive only of misery and distress; and it had been concerted with so much secrecy and circumspection, that no one circumstance escaped to betray the impending calamity.

"On the night of Monday, the watch was set as I have described. Just before sunrise, on Tuesday morning, while I was yet asleep, Mr. Christian (the third mate), with the master-at-arms, gunner's mate, and Thomas Burkitt, seaman, came into my cabin, and seizing me, tied my hands with a cord behind my back; threatening me with instant death if I spoke or made the least noise. I nevertheless called out as loud as I could, in hopes of assistance; but the officers not of their party were already secured by sentinels at their doors. At my own cabin door were three men, besides the four within; all except Christian had muskets and bayonets; he had only a cutlass. I was dragged out of bed, and forced on deck in my shirt, suffering great pain in the mean time from the tightness with which my hands were tied. On demanding the reason of such violence, the only answer was abuse for not holding my tongue. The master, the gunner, surgeon, master's mate, and Nelson the gardener, were kept confined below, and the fore hatchway was guarded by sentinels. The boatswain and carpenter, and also the clerk, were allowed to come on deck, where they saw me standing abaft the mizzen-mast, with my hands tied behind my back, under a guard, with Christian at their head. The boatswain was then ordered to hoist out the launch, accompanied by a threat, if he did not do it instantly, *to take care of himself*.

"The boat being hoisted out, Mr. Hayward and Mr. Hallet, two of the midshipmen, and Mr. Samuel, the clerk, were ordered into it. I demanded the intention of giving this order, and endeavored to persuade the people near me not to persist in such acts of violence; but it was to no effect; for the constant answer was, 'Hold your tongue, sir, or you are dead this moment.'

"The master had by this time sent, requesting that he might come on deck, which was permitted; but he was soon ordered back again to his cabin. My exertions to turn the tide of affairs were continued; when Christian, changing the cutlass he held for a bay-

onet, and holding me by the cord about my hands with a strong gripe, threatened me with immediate death if I would not be quiet; and the villains around me had their pieces cocked and bayonets fixed.

"Certain individuals were called on to get into the boat, and were hurried over the ship's side; whence I concluded that along with them I was to be set adrift. Another effort to bring about a change produced nothing but menaces of having my brains blown out. The boatswain and those seamen who were to be put into the boat, were allowed to collect twine, canvas, lines, sails, cordage, and a twenty-eight gallon cask of water; and Mr. Samuel got one hundred and fifty pounds of bread, with a small quantity of rum and wine, also a quadrant and compass; but he was prohibited on pain of death, to touch any map or astronomical book, and any instrument, or any of my surveys and drawings.

"The mutineers having thus forced those of the seamen whom they wished to get rid of into the boat, Christian directed a dram to be served to each of his crew. I then unhappily saw that nothing could be done to recover the ship. The officers were next called on deck, and forced over the ship's side into the boat, while I was kept apart from every one abaft the mizzen-mast. Christian, armed with a bayonet, held the cord fastening my hands, and the guard around me stood with their pieces cocked; but on my daring the ungrateful wretches to fire, they uncocked them. Isaac Martin, one of them, I saw had an inclination to assist me; and as he fed me with shaddock, my lips being quite parched, we explained each other's sentiments by looks. But this was observed, and he was removed. He then got into the boat, attempting to leave the ship; however, he was compelled to return. Some others were also kept contrary to their inclination.

"It appeared to me that Christian was some time in doubt whether he should keep the carpenter or his mate. At length he determined on the latter, and the carpenter was ordered into the boat. He was permitted, though not without opposition, to take his tool chest.

"Mr. Samuel secured my journals and commission, with some important ship pa-

pers; this he did with great resolution, though strictly watched. He attempted to save the time-keeper, and a box with my surveys, drawings, and remarks, for fifteen years past, which were very numerous, when he was hurried away with 'Damn your eyes, you are well off to get what you have.'

"Much altercation took place among the mutinous crew during the transaction of this whole affair. Some swore, 'I'll be damned if he does not find his way home, if he gets anything with him,' meaning me; and when the carpenter's chest was carrying away, 'Damn my eyes, he will have a vessel built in a month;' while others ridiculed the helpless situation of the boat, which was very deep in the water, and had so little room for those who were in her. As for Christian, he seemed as if meditating destruction on himself and every one else.

"I asked for arms, but the mutineers laughed at me, and said I was well acquainted with the people among whom I was going; four cutlasses, however, were thrown into the boat, after we were veered astern.

"The officers and men being in the boat, they only waited for me, of which the master-at-arms informed Christian, who then said, 'Come, Captain Bligh, your officers and men are now in the boat, and you must go with them; if you attempt to make the least resistance, you will instantly be put to death;' and without further ceremony, I was forced over the side by a tribe of armed ruffians, where they untied my hands. Being in the boat, we were veered astern by a rope. A few pieces of pork were thrown to us, also the four cutlasses. The armorer and carpenter then called out to me to remember that they had no hand in the transaction. After having been kept some time to make sport for these unfeeling wretches, and having undergone much ridicule, we were at length cast adrift in the open ocean.

"Eighteen persons were with me in the boat,—the master, acting surgeon, botanist, gunner, boatswain, carpenter, master, and quartermaster's mate, two quartermasters, the sailmaker, two cooks, my clerk, the butcher, and a boy. There remained on board, Fletcher Christian, the master's mate, Peter Haywood, Edward Young, George Stewart, midshipmen, the master-at-arms,

gunner's mate, boatswain's mate, gardener, armorer, carpenter's mate, carpenter's crew, and fourteen seamen, being altogether the most able men of the ship's company.

"Having little or no wind, we rowed pretty fast toward the island of Tofoa, which bore north-east about ten leagues distant. The ship while in sight steered west-north-west, but this I considered only as a feint, for when we were sent away, 'Huzza for Otaheite!' was frequently heard among the mutineers.

"Christian, the chief of them, was of a respectable family in the north of England. This was the third voyage he had made with me. Notwithstanding the roughness with which I was treated, the remembrance of past kindnesses produced some remorse in him. While they were forcing me out of the ship, I asked him whether this was a proper return for the many instances he had experienced of my friendship? He appeared disturbed at the question, and answered with much emotion, 'That—Captain Bligh—that is the thing—I am in hell—I am in hell.' His abilities to take charge of the third watch, as I had so divided the ship's company, were fully equal to the task.

"Haywood was also of a respectable family in the north of England, and a young man of abilities, as well as Christian. These two had been objects of my particular regard and attention, and I had taken great pains to instruct them, having entertained hopes that, as professional men, they would have become a credit to their country. Young was well recommended; and Stewart of creditable parents in the Orkneys, at which place, on the return of the *Resolution* from the South Seas in 1780, we received so many civilities, that in consideration of these alone I should gladly have taken him with me. But he had always borne a good character.

"When I had time to reflect, an inward satisfaction prevented the depression of my spirits. Yet, a few hours before, my situation had been peculiarly flattering; I had a ship in the most perfect order, stored with every necessary, both for health and service; the object of the voyage was attained, and two-thirds of it now completed. The remaining part had every prospect of success.

"It will naturally be asked, what could be

the cause of such a revolt? In answer, I can only conjecture that the mutineers had flattered themselves with the hope of a happier life among the Otaheitans, than they could possibly enjoy in England; which joined to some female connections, most probably occasioned the whole transaction.

"The women of Otaheite are handsome, mild, and cheerful in manners and conversation; possessed of great sensibility, and have sufficient delicacy to make them be admired and beloved. The chiefs were so much attached to our people, that they rather encouraged their stay among them than otherwise, and even made them promises of large possessions. Under these, and many other concomitant circumstances, it ought hardly to be the subject of surprise that a set of sailors, most of them void of connections, should be led away, where they had the power of fixing themselves in the midst of plenty, in one of the finest islands in the world, where there was no necessity to labor, and where the allurements of dissipation are beyond any conception that can be formed of it. The utmost, however, that a commander could have expected, was desertions, such as have already happened more or less in the South Seas, and not an act of open mutiny.

"But the secrecy of this mutiny surpasses belief. Thirteen of the party who were now with me had always lived forward among the seamen; yet neither they, nor the messmates of Christian, Stewart, Haywood, and Young, had ever observed any circumstance to excite suspicion of what was plotting; and it is not wonderful if I fell a sacrifice to it, my mind being entirely free from suspicion. Perhaps, had marines been on board, a sentinel at my cabin-door might have prevented it; for I constantly slept with the door open, that the officer of the watch might have access to me on all occasions. If the mutiny had been occasioned by any grievances, either real or imaginary, I must have discovered symptoms of discontent, which would have put me on my guard; but it was far otherwise. With Christian, in particular, I was on the most friendly terms; that very day he was engaged to have dined with me; and the preceding night he excused himself from supping with

me on pretense of indisposition, for which I felt concerned, having no suspicions of his honor or integrity."

Captain Bligh and his fellow-sufferers reached the island of Timor, south of the Moluccas, in June, after a perilous voyage of nearly four thousand miles, during which their preservation was next to miraculous. A part of the mutineers were tried Sept. 15th, 1792, six condemned, and three executed. Ten others settled upon solitary Pitcairn's Island. They remained unknown until accidentally discovered in 1814, when an English ship nearing the island was hailed by a swarthy youth in the English language. It appeared that the mutineers had obtained themselves dusky wives, and finally under the guidance of John Adams, one of their number, had become an orderly and pious community. Adams was the last survivor of the mutineers. As the population increased, the island proved incapable for its support. In 1856, by permission of the English government, the colony removed to Norfolk Island, which had been given to them (the convict establishment being withdrawn) and stocked with sheep, cattle, and horses for their use. They numbered 96 men and 102 women.

PITT, WILLIAM, the second son of the Earl of Chatham, was born May 28th, 1759. In 1780, he obtained a seat in parliament, where he exerted the power of his eloquence against Lord North. On the removal of that minister, Mr. Pitt did not obtain a place: but when the Earl of Shelburne succeeded the Marquis of Rockingham, he became chancellor of the exchequer. This ministry, however, was soon displaced by the coalition of Lord North and Mr. Fox, in 1782; but the famous India bill of the latter producing another change, at the end of 1783, Mr. Pitt became first lord of the treasury, as well as chancellor of exchequer. Though in this situation he had to encounter an extraordinary combination of talents and influence, he overcame all obstacles, and carried many important measures, particularly his own India bill, a commercial treaty with France, the acts against smuggling, and the establishment of a sinking fund. The illness of the king, in 1788, threatened an end of his ministry. The recovery of his majesty, however, fixed him more firmly in his seat. The

next great event in his life was that of being called to oppose the power of revolutionary France. He was the mainspring of the continuous coalitions against Napoleon. At length he acceded to the wish that an experiment for peace should be tried in 1801, and yielded the ministry to Mr. Addington; but in 1804 Mr. Pitt was recalled to power. His health was now in a very precarious state, and he died at Putney, Jan. 23d, 1806. His remains were deposited in Westminster Abbey. Very honorable eulogiums were pronounced on his memory by all parties, and his debts were paid at the public expense, according to a vote of parliament.

PIUS VI. (or GIOVANNI ANGELO BRASCHI) was born at Cesena in 1717. He succeeded Pope Clement XIV. in 1775. When the Emperor Joseph II. decreed that all the religious orders in his dominions were free from papal jurisdiction, Pius, apprehensive of the consequences of such a measure, went in person to Vienna in 1782; but though he was honorably received, his remonstrances were ineffectual. The French revolution, however, was of more serious consequence to the papal see. The pope having favored the allies, Bonaparte entered the ecclesiastical territory, and compelled him to purchase a peace. Basseville was then sent from the republic to Rome, where the people assassinated him in 1793. This furnished the pretext for another visitation, and accordingly Bonaparte again entered Italy, made the pope prisoner in his capital, and hurried him over the Alps to Valence, where he died, Aug. 29th, 1799.

PIUS VII. (GREGORIO LUIGI BARNABA CHIRAMONTI) was also a native of Cesena, and born in 1740. He succeeded Pius VI. in the papacy. He went to Paris to crown Napoleon emperor, and was under his power till the restoration of the Bourbons. He died Aug. 20th, 1823.

PIZARRO, FRANCISCO, the conqueror of Peru, was the illegitimate son of a Spanish colonel, and was born at Truxillo, 1471. He embarked for America as a soldier, and served in many perilous adventures. In 1524, he associated at Panama with Diego de Almagro, and Hernandez Lucque, a priest, in an enterprise to make discoveries. In this voyage they fell in with the coast of Peru, but being too few to make any attempt at a settlement, Pizarro

returned to Spain, where all that he gained was a power from the court to prosecute his object. However, having raised some money, he was enabled again, in 1531, to visit Peru, where a civil war was then raging between the Inca Huasca, the legitimate monarch, and his half-brother Atahualpa. The invading force did not exceed 110 foot soldiers, 67 horsemen, and two small pieces of artillery. Pizarro, by pretending to take the part of the latter, was permitted to march into the interior, where he made the unsuspecting chief his prisoner, and exacted an immense ransom. Soon after, Pizarro murdered the unfortunate Atahualpa, by burning him at a stake. In 1535 the conqueror laid the foundation of Lima. In 1537 a contest arose between him and Almagro, who was defeated and executed. The son and friends of Almagro, however avenged his death, and June 26th, 1541, Pizarro was assassinated in his palace.

PLAGUE. In early times dreadful pestilences often prevailed, which are known in history by the general name of plague.

The first recorded general plague in all parts of the world occurred 767 B.C. At Carthage a plague was so terrible that people sacrificed their children to appease the gods, 534 B.C. At Rome prevailed a desolating plague, carrying off a hundred thousand persons in and round the city, 461 B.C. At Athens, whence it spread into Egypt and Ethiopia, and caused an awful devastation, 430 B.C. Another, which raged in the Greek islands, Egypt, and Syria, and destroyed 2,000 persons every day, 188 B.C.

At Rome, a most awful plague; 10,000 persons perish daily, A.D. 78.

The same fatal disease again ravaged the Roman empire, A.D. 167.

In Britain a plague raged so formidably, and swept away such multitudes, that the living were scarcely sufficient to bury the dead, A.D. 430.

A dreadful one began in Europe in 558, extended all over Asia and Africa, and it is said did not cease for many years.

At Constantinople, when 200,000 of its inhabitants perished, A.D. 746. This plague raged for three years, and was equally fatal in Calabria, Sicily, and Greece.

At Chichester in England, an epidemical disease carried off 34,000 persons, A.D. 772.

In Scotland, 40,000 persons perished of a pestilence, A.D. 954.

In London, a great mortality, A.D. 1094; and in Ireland, 1095.

Again in London: it extended to cattle, fowls, and other domestic animals, 1111.

In Ireland: after Christmas this year, Henry II. was forced to quit the country, 1172.

Again in Ireland, when a prodigious number perished, 1204.

A general plague raged throughout Europe, causing a most extensive mortality. Britain and Ireland suffered grievously. In London alone, 200 persons were buried daily in the Charter-house-yard.

In Paris and London a dreadful mortality prevailed in 1362 and 1367; and in Ireland in 1370.

A great pestilence in Ireland, called the *Fourth*, destroyed a great number of the people, 1383. 30,000 persons perished of a dreadful pestilence in London, 1407.

Again in Ireland, superinduced by a famine; great numbers died 1466; and Dublin was wasted by a plague, 1470.

An awful pestilence at Oxford, 1471; and throughout England a plague which destroyed more people than the continual wars for the fifteen preceding years, 1478.

The awful *Sudor Anglicus*, or sweating sickness, very fatal at London, 1485.

The plague at London, so dreadful that Henry VII. and his court removed to Calais, 1500.

Again, the sweating sickness (mortal in three hours). In most of the capital towns in England half the inhabitants died, and Oxford was depopulated, 9 Hen. VIII., 1517.

Limerick was visited by a plague, when many thousands perished, 1522.

A pestilence throughout Ireland, 1525; and the English sweat, 1528; and a pestilence in Dublin, 1575.

30,578 persons perished of the plague in London alone, 1603-1604. It was also fatal in Ireland. 200,000 perished of a pestilence at Constantinople, in 1611.

In London, a great mortality prevailed, and 35,417 persons perished, 1625.

In France, a general mortality; at Lyons 60,000 persons died, 1632.

The plague, brought from Sardinia to Naples (being introduced by a transport with soldiers on board), raged with such violence as to carry off 400,000 of the inhabitants in six months, 1656.

Memorable plague, which carried off 68,596 persons in London, 1665. [See below.] Fires were kept up night and day to purify the air for three days; and it is thought the infection was not totally destroyed till the great conflagration of 1666.

60,000 persons perished of the plague at Marseilles and neighbourhood, brought in a ship from the Levant, 1720.

One of the most awful plagues that ever raged, prevailed in Syria, 1760.

In Persia, a fatal pestilence, which carried off 80,000 of the inhabitants of Bassora, 1773.

In Egypt, more than 800,000 persons died of plague, 1792.

In Barbary, 3,000 died daily; and at Fez 247,000 perished, 1799.

In Spain and at Gibraltar, immense numbers were carried off by a pestilential disease in 1804 and 1805.

Again, at Gibraltar, an epidemic fever, much resembling the plague, caused great mortality, 1828.

The Asiatic cholera made its first appearance in England, at Sunderland, Oct. 26th, 1831; in Scotland, at Haddington, Dec. 23d, same year; and in Ireland, at Belfast, March 14th, 1832. The cholera again visited England, 1848 and 1849.

The awful and memorable scourge called the Great Plague in London, commenced in December, 1664. In the months of May, June, and July, it had continued with great severity; but in August and September it quickened into dreadful activity, sweeping away 8,000 persons in a week. Then it was that the whole British nation wept for the sufferings of the metropolis. In some houses carcasses lay waiting for burial; and in others, persons were seen doubled up in their last agonies. In one room were heard dying groans; and in the next, the ravings of delirium mingled with the wailings of relatives and friends, and the apprehensive shrieks of children. Infants passed at once from the womb to the grave. The yet healthy child hung upon the putrid breast of a dead mother; and the nuptial bed was changed into a sepulchre. Some of the infected ran about staggering like drunken men, and fell and expired in the streets; while others calmly laid themselves down, never to rise but at the call of the last trumpet. At length, in the middle of September, more than 12,000 perished in one week; in one night 4,000 died; and in the whole, not 68,000, as has been stated, but 100,000, perished of this plague.

The hearses were but dead-carts which continually traversed the streets, while the appalling cry, "*Bring out your dead,*" thrilled through every soul. Then it was that parents, husbands, wives, and children saw all those that were dear to them thrown with a pitchfork into a cart, like the offal of the slaughterhouse, to be conveyed without the walls, and flung into one promiscuous heap, without the rites of sepulture, without a coffin, and without a shroud! Some graves were dug so large as to hold a thousand bodies each; and into these huge holes, the living, wrapt in blankets and rags, threw themselves among the dead, in their agonies and delirium. They were often found in this state hugging the

flesh of their kindred that had not quite perished. People, in the intolerable torment of their swellings, ran wild and mad, laying violent hands upon themselves; and even mothers in their lunacy murdered their own children. When the carts were insufficient for their office, the houses and streets were rendered tenfold more pestilential by the unburied dead.—*Defoe*.

PLANETS. The planet Jupiter was known as a planet to the Chinese and the Chaldeans; to the former, it is said, 3000 B.C.; and correctly inserted in a chart of the heavens, made about 600 B.C. and in which 1,460 stars are accurately described; this chart is said to be in the imperial library at Paris. The satellites of Jupiter were discovered by Galileo, A.D. 1610; but Janssen, it is affirmed, claimed some acquaintance with them about twenty years before. We have now eleven primary planets, viz.: Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, the Georgium Sidus, Ceres, Pallas, Juno, and Vesta; and more than thirty secondary planets, or small planets belonging to our solar system. The following is a list of the late discoveries:—

Georgium Sidus, called also *Herschel* and *Uranus*; discovered by Herschel, March 13th, 1781.

Neptune, discovered (in consequence of the calculations of Le Verrier and Adams) Sept. 23d, 1846, by Dr. Galle at Berlin.

MINOR PLANETS.

Ceres, discovered by Piazzi, Jan. 1st, 1801. This planet is visible to the naked eye.

Pallas, discovered at Bremen, by Olbers, March 29th, 1802.

Juno, discovered by Harding, Sept., 1st, 1804.

Vesta, discovered by Olbers (his second discovery), March 29th, 1807.

Astræa, Dec. 8th, 1845, by K. C. Hencke.

Hebe, July 1st, 1847, by K. C. Hencke.

Iris, Aug. 13th, 1847, by J. R. Hind.

Flora, Oct. 18th, 1847, by J. R. Hind.

Metis, Apr. 26th, 1848, by A. Graham.

Hygeia, Apr. 12th, 1849, by A. de Gasparis.

Parthenope, May 11th, 1850, by A. de Gasparis.

Victoria, Sept. 13th, 1850, by J. R. Hind.

Egeria, Nov. 2d, 1850, by A. de Gasparis.

Irene, May 19th, 1851, by J. R. Hind.

Eunomia, July 29th, 1851, by A. de Gasparis.

Psyche, March 17th, 1852, by A. de Gasparis.

Thetis, Apr. 17th, 1852, by R. Luther.

Melpomene, June 24th, 1852, by J. R. Hind.

Fortuna, Aug. 23d, 1852, by J. R. Hind.

Massilia, Sept. 19th, 1852, by A. de Gasparis.

Lutetia, Nov. 15th, 1852, by H. Goldschmidt.

Calliope, Nov. 16th, 1852, by J. R. Hind.

Thalia, Dec. 15th, 1852, by J. R. Hind.

Themis, Apr. 6th, 1853, by A. de Gasparis.
Phoece, Apr. 6th, 1853, by M. Chacornac.
Proserpine, May 5th, 1853, by R. Luther.
Euterpe, Nov. 8th, 1853, by J. R. Hind.
Bellona, March 1st, 1854, by R. Luther.
Amphitrite, March 1st, 1854, by Mr. Marth.
Urania, July 22d, 1854, by J. R. Hind.
Euphrosyne, Sept. 1st, 1854, by Mr. Ferguson.
Pomona, Oct. 26th, 1854, by H. Goldschmidt.
Polyhymnia, Oct. 28th, 1854, by M. Chacornac.
Circe, Apr. 6th, 1855, by M. Chacornac.
Leucothea, Apr. 19th, 1855, by R. Luther.
Fides, Oct. 5th, 1855, by R. Luther.
Atalanta, Oct. 5th, 1855, by H. Goldschmidt.
Leda, Jan. 12th, 1856, by M. Chacornac.
Letitia, Feb. 8th, 1856, by M. Chacornac.
Harmonia, March 31st, 1856, by H. Goldschmidt.
Daphne, May 22d, 1856, by H. Goldschmidt.
Isis, May 23d, 1856, by Norman Pogson.
Ariadne, Apr. 15th, 1857, by Norman Pogson.
 ———, May 27th, 1857, by H. Goldschmidt.
Eugenia, June 28th, 1857, by H. Goldschmidt.
Hesta, Aug. 16th, 1857, by Norman Pogson.
 ———, Sept. 15th, 1857, by Dr. Luther.
Pales, Sept. 19th, 1857, by H. Goldschmidt.
Doris, Sept. 19th, 1857, by H. Goldschmidt.
Virginia, Oct. 5th, 1857, by Mr. Ferguson.
 ———, January, 1858, at Nismes.
 ———, Feb. 4th, 1858, by H. Goldschmidt.

PLANTAGENET, HOUSE OF, a race of fourteen English kings, from Henry II. to Richard III. The first called *Plantagenet* was Fulke Martel, Earl of Anjou, in the tenth century. That noble having contrived the death of his nephew, the Earl of Brittany, in order to succeed to that earldom, his confessor sent him, in atonement for the murder, to Jerusalem, attended by only two servants, one of whom was to lead him by a halter to the holy sepulchre, the other to strip and whip him there, like a common malefactor. Broom (in French *genet*, in Latin *genista*) being the only tough pliant shrub in Palestine, the knightly criminal was smartly scourged with it, and from this instrument of his chastisement, he (and his descendants after him) was called *Planta-genista*, or *Plantagenet*.

HENRY II., born in 1133, was the son of Matilda, daughter of Henry I., and Geoffrey Plantagenet, Earl of Anjou. The only son of the English monarch having perished at sea, Matilda was the heir to the crown, and her infant son was invested with the rights of both his parents. Upon the death of the usurper Stephen in 1154, he ascended the throne. He had previously married Eleanor, the repudiated queen of Louis VII. of France, the heiress of Guienne, Aquitaine, and Poitou

in her own right. These acquisitions to his hereditary domain made him master of the larger portion of France, and his possessions were far more extensive than those of the French king, to whom he owed feudal allegiance. In 1170 he had his son Henry crowned King of England. In 1172 he reduced Ireland to subjection. During his reign great improvement was made in the administration of the laws, and England was divided into three judicial circuits. The king attempted so to limit the ecclesiastical jurisdiction, that the clergy should be amenable to the royal tribunals in temporal matters, without any appeal to the pope. This met strong opposition from Thomas à Becket, the Archbishop of Canterbury. The anathemas of the obstinate ecclesiastic exasperated Henry into exclaiming, "What an unhappy prince am I, who have not about me one man of spirit enough to rid me of this insolent prelate." Four barons who heard departed at once for Canterbury, where they murdered the archbishop before the altar. The superstitious horror aroused by this bloody sacrilege, and the fear of excommunication, forced Henry into unconditional submission to the pope, and for the intemperate speech which had instigated the assassination, he atoned by a vow to serve three years against the infidels in Palestine, should the pope demand it. Afterward, when his sons were armed against him, he trudged barefoot to the tomb of Becket, fasted and prayed all day, watched all night, and bared his shoulders that the monks might scourge him. A great victory obtained by his army over the Scots that day was considered a sure token that Heaven and the murdered Becket accepted his penitence. The jealousy of Queen Eleanor against Henry's famous mistress the Fair Rosamond, and the unnatural rebellions of his sons, troubled the last years of Henry's reign, and embittered his closing days. He died at the castle of Chinon in Normandy, July 6th, 1189, in the thirty-fifth year of a reign wherein he had displayed great wisdom and bravery. Two of his sons (Henry and Geoffrey) had died during his lifetime; the other two successively held the sceptre.

RICHARD I., born at Oxford in 1157, succeeded the father whom his haughty, rebel-

lious conduct had helped to lay in the grave. Martial enthusiasm led him to join the crusade against Saladin. Pledges were interchanged between him and Philip Augustus of France, that neither should invade the other's kingdom while the holy expedition lasted. The French and English forces rendezvoused before Messina, in the latter part of the year, and took that city from the Saracens. Then took place the romantic episode of Richard's expedition against Cyprus, and his marriage with Berengera, daughter of the King of Navarre. At last, in the summer of 1191, Richard arrived before St. Jean d'Acre, whose walls the crusaders had now beleaguered for two weary years. Frederick Barbarossa, the Emperor of Germany, had been drowned in the previous year, and the vacant leadership was assumed by the English monarch. The vigor with which he entered into the siege effected the downfall of the Saracenic stronghold and aroused the envy of the French sovereign, who soon after set out for home, maddened by the exploits of his rival. The prowess of Richard gained him the surname of *Cœur de Lion* (the lion-hearted). Gaining the great battle of Ascalon over Saladin, he burned to press forward to the capture of Jerusalem. Bickerings among the Christian leaders prevented this glorious consummation of his successes, and news of the perfidy of his brother John and Philip of France, induced him to conclude a truce with Saladin and voyage home in the autumn of 1192. Shipwrecked on the coast of Italy, he disguised himself as a pilgrim, and set out for England by land. Near Vienna the itinerant king was discovered and imprisoned by Leopold, Duke of Austria, in revenge both for Richard's capture of the King of Cyprus, Leopold's brother-in-law, and for the contempt Richard had shown for the Austrian banner at Acre. The place of Richard's captivity was carefully concealed, and his fate was long in doubt. The story of his release is romantic. Blondel, a minstrel, who had been his servant and friend, wandered through Palestine and Germany in search of his royal master. Placing himself beneath a grated window of the castle of Lowestein, and singing one of the lays which he had formerly taught the king, he but just completed the first stanza, when, to his great

delight, he heard the voice of Richard, replying in the same strain. He received the name of the faithful Blondel. Richard was ransomed by his subjects for a hundred thousand marks (about \$2,000,000), having lain two years in bondage. John, who had assumed the crown in his absence, was advised of his return by Philip Augustus, with the pithy warning to "take care of himself, for the devil had broke loose." Richard's revenge, however, was bestowed upon Philip, and for the remainder of his life war subsisted between France and England. In the battle of Gisors, in 1198, Richard gave *Dieu et mon droit* ("God and my right") to his army as the parole of the day, and so signal was his success in the contest that he made the watchword the motto of the royal arms of England, in which it has ever since been retained. A truce with France the next year, Richard occupied in quarreling with his vassal Vidomar, Count of Limoges, who having found a treasure, sent only a part to the king as his feudal superior, whereas the king claimed all. Cœur de Lion invested the count's castle of Chaluz, and haughtily refusing all overtures, threatened to hang the whole garrison. While reconnoitering the fortress, he was shot in the shoulder with an arrow by a crossbowman, named Bertrand de Gourdon. The wound proved mortal, and Richard expired in the tenth year of his reign, April 16th, 1199. Before he died the castle was taken, and he magnanimously ordered that Gourdon should go unharmed. On the contrary the hapless man was flayed alive, and then hung. Richard, in his love for war, had paid but little heed to the welfare or concerns of England. His violence and cruelty were mantled by his intrepid courage and the deeds in arms whose renown spread through Asia as well as Europe. Arabian chroniclers recorded with unwilling admiration the fall of Acre, the defense of Joppa, and the victorious march to Ascalon; and Arabian mothers long awed their infants to silence with the name of the lion-hearted Plantagenet.

Cœur de Lion dying without issue, his brother JOHN ascended the throne he had before usurped. The new king was then in the thirty-fourth year of life. Although he had been his father's favorite son, he had

none of the qualities which had rendered the royal Plantagenets illustrious. In the place of his father's wisdom, John was cursed with weakness. While he was as cruel and violent as his brother, the daring which had gained Richard the name of the lion-hearted was contrasted in John by a cowardice and an irresolution that brought him misfortune and the name of Lackland. Arthur of Brittany, son of John's deceased brother Geoffrey, laid claim to the crown. The youthful aspirant was captured and murdered, but the revolt ended in the loss of Normandy to England. John having resisted the pope's nomination of Stephen Langton to the see of Canterbury, sentence of excommunication was pronounced against him; the kingdom was placed under an interdict, and given by the offended pope to Philip of France. John advanced to Dover with sixty thousand men, to meet the French king, who was preparing an army to take possession of England. In this posture of affairs, the pope, whose high authority in temporal as well spiritual concerns was considered to be then almost omnipotent, intimated to John, by his legate, that there was but one way to secure himself from the threatened danger; which was to put himself entirely under the papal protection, and to perform whatever the pope should command. John, accordingly, resigned his crown and dominions to Innocent III., getting in return absolution for the murder of his nephew Arthur; and having, in a full assembly of clergy and nobles, submitted to the humiliation of receiving them again from the papal legate, he paid homage for them, and took an oath upon his knees, with his hands raised between those of the legate, to hold them as the pope's vassal, under a yearly tribute of a thousand marks. By this scandalous concession, John once more averted the threatened blow; but he had now incurred the detestation of his subjects. The barons and bishops, incensed at such indignity and roused by his exactions, confederated against him, rose in arms, and on the field of Runnymede, June 19th, 1215, forced him to sign that famous bulwark of English liberty, the *Magna Charta*. John, however, refused to be governed by this charter. This produced a second civil war, in which the barons had recourse to the

King of France for assistance. John directed his route toward Lincolnshire with an army, but being obliged to keep close to the sea-shore, and not being apprised of the influx of the tide at a particular place, he lost all his carriages, treasure, and baggage. Grief for the loss he had sustained, threw him into a fever, of which he died at Newark, in the fifty-first year of his age, and the eighteenth of his detested reign, Oct. 18th, 1216.

It is noticeable that the use of the plural pronoun *we*, now the style royal of all monarchs as well as editors, was begun by John. Before his time sovereigns had used the singular person in all their edicts.

HENRY III. was a lad of ten years at the decease of his father; he was crowned at Gloucester, Oct. 28th, 1216, and married Eleanor, daughter of the Count of Provence, Jan. 14th, 1236. His long reign was favorable to the growth of liberty, although the kingdom was in a disturbed condition. His extravagant profuseness to favorites, and the exactions of the priesthood, drove the people to rebel and seize upon the person of the king. He was rescued by the bravery of Prince Edward, regained his power, and died at Westminster, Nov. 16th, 1272.

His chivalrous son, EDWARD I., had won great warlike reputation, both in the civil contests at home and in Palestine, and to this he added during his reign. He subjugated the hitherto independent principality of Wales, in 1282. He promised the conquered Welsh a countryman of their own to rule over them. His queen was brought to bed at Caernarvon, and the wily king presented the son to whom she gave birth, to the subjugated chieftains as their future prince. This prince, by the death of his elder brother, afterward became king of England; and since that time the heir apparent to the English throne has borne the title of Prince of Wales. When the quarrel for the Scottish crown broke out between Robert Bruce and John Baliol, Edward, being chosen umpire, decided in favor of the latter, who was ready to do him homage as a vassal. The Scots, proud of their independence, were aroused by the Norman tyranny; they bared the sword, and led by heroic champions like Wallace, fought many a battle now of renown in song and legend. Blood drenched the border; Wallace was

taken prisoner and hanged at London; the stone on which for ages the Scottish kings had been crowned at Scone was brought to Westminster Abbey, where it still remains; Edward's victorious host marched through the Lowlands of Scotland; and yet the Scots held out. Robert Bruce, the grandson of Baliol's competitor, obtained the crown after many vicissitudes. Edward I. died July 7th, 1307, in the sixty-ninth year of his age. He was about to invade Scotland anew, and his last words to his son were that the war might be earnestly waged.

EDWARD II., however, could neither win conquests abroad nor keep order at home. The barons repeatedly rose in arms against him, killing his obnoxious favorites, Piers Gaveston and Hugh Spencer. Edward had wedded in 1308, Isabella, daughter of the King of France. The queen deserted her husband, invaded his realm with a foreign force, and aided by her paramour, Roger Mortimer, Earl of March, thrust him from the throne in 1327. After several months of close imprisonment at Kenilworth, he was inhumanly murdered in Berkeley Castle the September following. This atrocity was avenged by his energetic son, Edward III., who was at once proclaimed king, being in his fourteenth year. Mortimer was gibbeted, and the queen immured for life.

The reign of the third Edward was glorious in vigor and renown. He withstood the encroachments of the pope, profiting by the advice of an Oxford professor, John Wickliffe. The wars which he and his great son, the Black Prince, waged with France, crowned the English arms with success. Calais was reduced, and the memorable fields of Cressy and Poitiers were won. The king renewed the war of his grandfather with Scotland, raising Edward Baliol to a tributary throne, and imprisoning David Bruce. Two kings were at one time captives at the English court, David of Scotland and John of France. The Black Prince did not survive to reach the throne which his stout arm and heroic heart had defended and magnified. He died in 1376; his father followed him the next year.

The eldest son of the Black Prince reigned as RICHARD II. During his minority of eleven years, his uncles the Dukes of Lan-

caster and Gloucester ruled as regents. The line of the Plantagenets thus far is curiously chequered; first an able king, then a weak one. The reign of the feeble and irresolute Richard was harassed by domestic troubles, and ended with his dethronement in 1399, by his cousin Henry, son of John of Gaunt, the Duke of Lancaster. The fallen monarch perished in Pomfret Castle. HENRY IV. was the first king of the Lancaster branch, and his unlawful seizure of the crown entailed upon England in after years the wars of the roses. Various rebellions against his power he quelled; among others that of Northumberland and Hotspur. To gain for himself and family the good will of the Romish priesthood, he persecuted the disciples of Wickliffe, called Lollards, and his reign is blackened by the first martyrdom in England for religion. At his death in 1413, he left the house of Lancaster firmly seated on the throne, and its power was still increased by his valiant son, HENRY V., the Prince Hal of Shakspeare. His victory over the French at Agincourt revived the ancient glories of Cressy and Poitiers. He pushed his conquests in France, till he wedded the Princess Catherine, was made regent of the kingdom, and was declared the heir of the insane Charles VI. Just as he had reached this summit of power, death leveled him to the dust. In the same year died the crazy Charles, and the infant HENRY VI. was proclaimed king of both England and France, his uncle the Duke of Bedford, acting as regent. But this sixth Henry was more unfortunate than his father had been successful. Inspired by Joan of Arc, the French wrested from him all his possessions in France except Calais, and the English crown was snatched from him by the house of York. This was the commencement of the intestine wars by which England was so long wasted. The partisans of the faction of Lancaster chose the *red rose* as their symbol; those of York, the *white rose*; and the contest thus came to be known as the war of the Roses. Henry VI. was the great-grandson of John of Gaunt, the *third* son of Edward III. Richard, Duke of York, grandson of Lionel, the *second* son of Edward III., asserted his better claim to the crown. Margaret of Anjou, Henry's queen, a woman of great strength of char-

acter, compensated for her spouse's inefficiency. The sun of success shone now upon the red rose, and now upon the white. Richard was captured by the forces of Margaret, who mocked his gory head with a paper crown, and set it on the battlements of York.

EDWARD IV., his son, was proclaimed king in 1460, after winning the bloody field of Towton. The stout Earl of Warwick, who had aided to raise him to the throne, hurled him down in 1470, and Henry VI. was restored. Edward finally established himself on the throne, after Henry, who had four times exchanged the throne for a dungeon, had ended his miserable existence in the Tower, Margaret had fled, and their boy met a cruel death. Edward IV., died April 9th, 1483, leaving two infant princes, the oldest of whom was proclaimed as EDWARD V., his uncle Richard, the Duke of Gloucester, being made protector. This protectorate ended with the assumption of royalty by Gloucester in the following year, his young nephews having been smothered in the Tower. Historians are divided concerning the character of RICHARD III. Some make him out nothing but an ambitious, unscrupulous, and bloodthirsty monster; and others contend, that although he was cruel and vicious, he was no more so than Edward IV. or Henry VII., while the bravery, policy, and statesmanship of his short reign augured well for what he would have done had he gained the day at Bosworth. But Richmond was victorious there; the crown of Richard was found in a hawthorn bush on the plain where the fight was waged; and so impatient was the victor to be crowned, that he had the ceremony performed on the spot with that very crown. Thus, on the 22d of August, 1485, the throne was forever lost to the Plantagenet race. Thus, too, were ended the civil wars, in which many of the most ancient families in the land had been extinguished, and in which no less than a hundred thousand human beings had lost their lives. Plantagenets had sat on the throne for more than three hundred years: there had been fourteen kings of the dynasty; seven of them were deposed, and five lost their lives as well as their crowns.

PLASSEY, BATTLE OF, June 23d, 1757,

fought between Lord Clive with little more than 3,000 British, and Surajah Dowlah with 70,000 Hindoos. The victory laid the cornerstone of the British empire in India.

PLATÆA, a town of Bœotia, near Mount Cithæron, on the confines of Megaris and Attica, celebrated for a battle fought there, between Mardonius, the commander of the army of Xerxes, King of Persia, and Pausanias the Lacedæmonian and the Athenians. The Persian army consisted of 300,000 men, 3,000 of whom scarce escaped with their lives by flight. The Grecian army, which was about 110,000, lost but few men; and among these, ninety-one Spartans, fifty-two Athenians, and sixteen Tegeans, were the only soldiers found in the number of the slain. The plunder which the Greeks obtained in the Persian camp was immense. Pausanias received the tenth of all the spoils, on account of his uncommon valor during the engagement, and the rest were rewarded each according to their respective merit. This battle was fought on the 22d of September, the same day as the battle of Mycale, B.C. 479, and by it Greece was delivered from the continual alarms to which she was exposed on account of the Persian invasions, for from that time none of the princes of Persia dared to appear with a hostile force beyond the Hellespont. Platea was taken by the Lacedæmonians, after a famous siege, in the beginning of the Peloponnesian war, and afterward destroyed by the Thebans, B.C. 427. Alexander rebuilt it, and paid great encomiums to the inhabitants, on account of their ancestors, who had so bravely fought against the Persians at the battle of Marathon, and under Pausanias.

PLATO was a disciple of Socrates. After the death of his master he traveled and studied in Egypt. Upon his return to Athens he set up his school in a grove called the Academy. He visited Sicily several times. The elder Dionysius, offended at his freedom, sold him as a slave. The philosopher was ransomed by his friends. His teachings were revered by the most illustrious of the ancients. He died at Athens in his seventy-ninth year, B.C. 438.

PLATTSBURG, BATTLE OF. On the 11th of September, 1814, Plattsburg, N. Y., was the scene of an important conflict between

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the Americans and British forces, both on the land and on the water, in which the Americans were victorious. The land forces of the enemy, consisting of about 14,000 men, were led on to the attack by Sir George Prevost, and were successfully repulsed by about 3,000 men, under the command of General Macomb. The engagement on the lake was between Commodore McDonough, of the American navy, and Commodore Downie, of the British. The fleet under McDonough carried 86 guns and 820 men, and the British fleet 95 guns and 1050 men. The action lasted, without any cessation, on a smooth sea, at close quarters, two hours and twenty minutes, in full view of both the armies fighting on land. The fortune of the day was in a great measure decided by the issue on the lake. When the British army saw their fleet completely conquered, they were at once dispirited, and commenced their retreat. Their loss in the mean time had been more than six times as great as that of the Americans. Among the slain in the naval engagement was the British commandant, Commodore Downie, who was a brave and skillful officer. The fact is stated as showing the frame of mind in which the brave McDonough entered the battle, and in whom he put his trust for success, that, "after the enemy's fleet hove in sight, the men of his ship were assembled on the quarter deck, when he kneeled down, and, in humble and fervent prayer, commended himself, his men, and the cause in which they were engaged, to the God of battles."

PLAYFAIR, JOHN, born in Scotland, 1749, professor of mathematics and natural philosophy at Edinburgh, died in 1819.

PLINY, the Elder, after Aristotle the most learned of ancient writers in natural philosophy and history, was born at the modern Como, A.D. 23. His love of science cost him his life in the year 79. During the great eruption of Vesuvius by which Pompeii and Herculaneum were overwhelmed, his desire to save the poor people threatened by the burning torrents, and also to witness the awful spectacle, led him to sail too near the coast, and he was suffocated by the smoke and ashes.

PLINY, the Younger, a nephew and adopted son of the foregoing, and distin-

guished as a Roman orator, historian, and statesman, was born A.D. 62, and died in 116. He was a pro-consul in Bithynia in the reign of Trajan.

PLUTARCH, the philosopher and historian, born in Bœotia, died A.D. 120, aged seventy.

POCAHONTAS, an Indian princess, celebrated in the annals of Virginia, married Mr. Rolfe, and from them descended families in Virginia: she died in England in 1616.

POET LAUREATE. The origin of this appointment is not known. It is said to be peculiar to England. In the reign of Henry III. there was a 'king's versifier,' to whom was paid an annual stipend of one hundred shillings. It is said that the first mention of a Poet Laureate occurs in the reign of Edward IV., when John Kay was laureate. Andrew Bernard was laureate in the time of Henry VII., and John Skelton in the succeeding reign. The following poets and versifiers have since held the post. Edmund Spenser, died 1598; Samuel Daniel, died 1619; Ben Jonson, died Aug. 6th, 1637; Sir William Davenant, died Apr. 7th, 1668; John Dryden, dismissed as a papist, 1688; Thomas Shadwell, died December, 1692; Nahum Tate, died Aug. 12th, 1715; Nicholas Rowe, died Dec. 6th, 1718; Rev. Lawrence Eusden, died 1730; Colley Cibber, died 1757; William Whitehead (appointed on the refusal of Gray), died Apr. 14th, 1785; Rev. Thomas Warton, D. D., died May 21st, 1790; Henry James Pye, died 1813; Robert Southey, died Mar. 21st, 1843; William Wordsworth, died Apr. 23d, 1850; Alfred Tennyson.

James I. granted the Laureate a yearly pension of a hundred marks. Charles I. increased the stipend to £100, and added a tierce of Spanish wine. Southey commuted the tierce for £27 a year.

James II., when he came to the throne, ordered, with characteristic parsimony, that the annual butt of sack originally granted to Jonson, and continued to Rare Ben's successors, should be omitted. But when Dryden, then the laureate, became a Catholic, James granted him a pension of a hundred pounds a year.

POITIERS, anciently *Pictavi*, a town of France, now capital of the department of the Vienne, containing 26,000 inhabitants. It is

memorable for a battle between the English under Edward the Black Prince, and the French under John II., fought here Sept. 19th, 1356. The van of the English army (which consisted altogether of only 8,000 men) was commanded by the Earl of Warwick; the rear by the Earls of Salisbury and Suffolk; the main body by the Black Prince himself. The first division of John's army (which was 50,000 strong) was commanded by the Duke of Orleans, the king's brother; the second by the dauphin; the third by the king himself. A French detachment which advanced first to the charge was discomfited and overthrown; one of the marshals was slain, the other taken prisoner; and the remainder of the detachment fell back, and put everything into disorder. In that critical moment, the Captal de Buch unexpectedly appeared and attacked the dauphin's line, which fell into confusion. Landas, Bodenai, and St. Venant now set the example of flight, which was followed by that of the whole division. The Duke of Orleans, seized with a panic, thought no longer of fighting, but carried off his division by a retreat which soon after turned into a flight. The division under King John was still, however, more numerous than the whole English army; and the only resistance made that day was by his line of battle. The Black Prince fell with impetuosity on some German cavalry placed in the front; a fierce battle ensued: but the German generals falling in the engagement, that body of cavalry gave way, and left the king himself exposed to the whole fury of the enemy. The king, spent with fatigue, and overwhelmed by numbers, might easily have been slain, but every English gentleman, ambitious of taking alive the royal prisoner, spared him in the action, exhorted him to surrender, and offered him quarter. Several who attempted to seize him suffered for their temerity. In this dilemma he cried out, "Where is my cousin, the Prince of Wales?" and seemed unwilling to become prisoner to any person of inferior rank; but being told that the prince was at a distance, he threw down his gauntlet, and yielded himself, together with his son, to Dennis de Morbec, a fugitive knight of Arras. The moderation which Edward displayed on this occasion, has forever stamped his character. At a repast which was prepared in his tent for his

royal prisoner, he served behind his chair, as if he had been one of his retinue. He refused to seat himself at table with his majesty: and John received, when a captive, those honors which had been denied him when on a throne.

POLAND, in Polish *Polska*, a country in the northern part of Europe, was formerly of vast extent; although now dismembered, a part of it retains the ancient name, as an integral part of the Russian empire. It is a vice-royalty with an area of 49,000 square miles, and 4,852,000 inhabitants. [*See WARSAW.*] Poland was formerly called the granary of Europe; but this was when its boundaries extended from the Baltic to the Black Sea; and when the Ukraine and Lithuania were included. At present its limits are so circumscribed and its arable surface so indifferently cultivated, or naturally so infertile, that the kingdom of Poland, strictly speaking, furnishes little more corn than supplies its own population. The immense supplies of wheat sent to Dantzic are chiefly from the detached provinces of Galicia, united to Austria, and from Volhynia and Podolia, now belonging to Russia.

The climate of Poland, though severe, is much less precarious than that of the south of Germany or of France. A winter of from five to seven months, during the greater part of which the ground is covered with snow, is succeeded by a rapid spring and warm summer; and these are followed by a short, cold, wet autumn. The surface of Poland is remarkably even; to the traveler passing through the country it appears an interminable forest. Wheat is raised only in the hilly southern region; elsewhere rye, oats, buckwheat, and some barley are cultivated. Horses and cattle are of inferior size, but rather numerous; and cattle, as well as hides and tallow, are articles of export. Hogs also are numerous, and bacon to a considerable amount is exported. Sheep and goats are less abundant; the wool is coarse. As much of the country is still covered with forests, chiefly of pine and fir, timber is an important export. Wild animals are numerous, especially wolves.

The early history of Poland is obscure. In the year 842 Piastus, a peasant, was chosen duke. Under his descendants Poland became

a kingdom, and Christianity was introduced in the latter years of the tenth century. The dynasty ended with Casimir the Great in 1370. He was succeeded by his nephew Louis, King of Hungary, who neglected his new acquisition, only visiting Poland twice during his reign. After his death, 1382, his youngest daughter, the beautiful and gracious Hedvige, was crowned Queen of Poland. She wedded Jagellon, Grand Duke of Lithuania, who thereupon renounced his paganism for the Christian faith.

On the death of Sigismund, the last of the Jagellon family, in 1572, Henry Duke of Anjou, and brother to Charles IX. of France, was elected to the Polish throne; but the death of Charles giving him the French crown, he quitted Poland, and was succeeded by Stephen Bathori. This prince subdued the barbarian Cossacks.

Poland was often engaged in war, with the Swedes or the Muscovites or the Turks. In 1668 Michael Wiesnowski was chosen to succeed John Casimir as king. The Turks invaded Poland in great force, but were stoutly withstood by brave John Sobieski. On the death of Michael in 1673, Sobieski was chosen his successor. [See SOBIESKI.]

After a glorious reign, Sobieski died; when Frederic Augustus, Elector of Saxony, was chosen king, in opposition to the Prince of Conti. Augustus was dethroned by Charles XII. of Sweden, who placed on the throne Stanislaus; but Augustus was afterward re-established by the Czar of Russia. On his death, Stanislaus was chosen king a second time; but through the influence of Germany and Russia, his election was annulled; and the son of the late king was invested with the sovereignty, by the name of Augustus III. At his death, through the intervention of Russia, Count Poniatowski was elected king, and proclaimed by the title of Stanislaus Augustus; but his reign was one continued scene of confusion and distress.

The weak kingdom was elbowed by powerful neighbors. The first partition of Poland, in 1772, was planned by Frederick II. of Prussia. Russia, Prussia, and Austria, in a most unprincipled manner, divided among themselves the greater part of this unfortunate country. The brave Kosciusko and Poniatowski struggled vainly against the

armies of the imperial thieves. In 1795 the trio completed this great political crime, by seizing on the remaining part, and expunging Poland from among independent nations. At the congress held at Vienna in 1815, part of Poland was united to the Russian empire, with the preservation of its own constitution; and, on this event, Alexander, Emperor of Russia, assumed the title of King of Poland. The rule of Russia became less and less liberal; her determination to crush out the nationality of the Poles was more and more evident. Smouldering dissatisfaction broke at last into the flame of revolt.

The unhappy struggle for independence, with the most powerful empire of Europe, aroused the world's attention. The revolution commenced with an insurrection at Warsaw, Nov. 29th, 1830. The Polish diet, on the 24th of January, 1831, declared the independence of their country. The spirit of resistance was not quelled without a long struggle and a horrible effusion of blood on both sides. Nicholas severely punished the insurgents and their country. Siberia was filled with exiled Poles; others, little more fortunate, wandered in penury through Europe, or to the shores of America. The universities of Wilna and Warsaw, whose students had been conspicuous in patriotism, were abolished; public libraries and museums were carried to St. Petersburg; the Polish language was prohibited; the Catholic religion, long the national faith, was assailed and burdened with restrictions; the last vestige of national independence was swept off, and Poland was declared an integral part of the great Russian empire. There was one more attempt for independence at Cracow in 1846, soon put down by Austria and Russia.

What a melancholy task is his who seeks for the records of Poland on the historical tablet for the last fifty years! The nation which once carried its conquests as far as Dacia, made the divan tremble, and chased the flying Spahi beyond the Danube; the king who once paternally planned his country's weal; the nobles who once appeared at the signal of foreign invasion, clad in brass and steel; the peasant who once bared his brawny breast and stood in the last rampart of his country,—where are their names recorded? Can we avoid recurring to the past,

to that moment which promised to be so propitious, when the hopes of the country were, after a long interval of death-like sleep, awakened, but awakened to slumber again, perhaps in eternal sleep? The giant warrior of Corsica spread before the Poles a golden vision. He mocked Poland with the name of liberty! At the head of his myriad men of war he said to the Polish mother, "That son, which is in thy cradle, shall be free! Poland shall be free!" Six months passed, and the dome which had echoed these words was filled with the lances of the Cossacks.

POLE, REGINALD, was a younger son of Lord Montacute, cousin of Henry VII. He was born at Stourton Castle in Staffordshire, 1500, and educated at Oxford and in Italy. Pole could not stoop to abet the plans and deeds of Henry VIII.,—not to gain the mitre of York. Therefore it was safer that he should dwell in Italy, where he rose to be cardinal. Higher honors seemed within his reach. It was said, that whereas Cardinal Wolsey would have been pope if he could, Cardinal Pole could have been pope if he would. He returned to England, upon the accession of Mary, and succeeded the martyred Cranmer as Archbishop of Canterbury. For the cruel fires that bigotry fed during Mary's time, Pole is not responsible. His humanity and his inclination toward the Protestant doctrines led him to advocate lenient and moderate measures. He died the day after Mary, Nov. 17th, 1558.

POLIGNAC, JULES, Prince de, was born in 1783. He passed through various vicissitudes and dangers during the French revolution and the empire of Bonaparte, for which he tasted his reward after the restoration of the Bourbons. In 1829 he became premier. His policy brought on his overthrow and the deposition of Charles X. The remainder of his life was chiefly spent in exile. He died in 1847.

POLIGNAC, MELCHIOR DE, a cardinal, was born in 1661, at Puy, in Languedoc. He studied at Paris, after which he was employed in diplomatic concerns, in which he gave such satisfaction as to be rewarded with the purple. During the regency he was banished to his abbey of Anchin; but afterward he was recalled, and appointed agent for French affairs at Rome. In 1726 he was made Archbishop of Auch. He died in 1741.

POLK, JAMES KNOX, the eleventh president of the United States, was born Nov. 2d, 1795, in Mecklenburg county, North Carolina. The name was originally Pollock, and his ancestors came from the north of Ireland, early in the eighteenth century. James was the oldest of ten children. His father, a modest farmer, removed in 1806 to Tennessee, where he was one of the pioneers of the fertile valley of Duck River, a branch of the Cumberland; then a wilderness, but now among the most populous parts of the state. Two obstacles lay in James's way to knowledge—scanty means of instruction, and an organic affection from which he did not find relief till after years of suffering. Nevertheless he fitted for college, and entered the university of North Carolina, where he graduated in 1818, surpassing his fellows both in the mathematics and the classics. With the same closeness of application which had won his collegiate honors he devoted himself to the study of law, under Felix Grundy (a leading lawyer and citizen of Tennessee), and commenced practice in Maury county in 1820. He was highly successful in his profession. After a couple of terms in the state legislature, he was picked by the Democratic party to represent his district in congress. He took his seat in December, 1825, being then thirty years of age. He was prominent among the most decided Democratic members, and in 1835 was made speaker, the arduous duties of which station he discharged with eminent ability till his retirement from congress in March, 1839. The autumn of that year he was elected governor of Tennessee. Being nominated for the office of president by the Democratic party in 1844, he was elected over his competitor, Mr. Clay, and administered the national affairs for four years from the 4th of March, 1845. The distinguishing measures of his administration were the annexation of Texas, the ensuing war with Mexico, and the treaty of peace with that republic by which California and New Mexico were added to our domain. Having declined a renomination to the presidency, he retired to Nashville, Tennessee. The earthly rest which he sought after the severe fatigues of his high office, was suddenly cut short. Seized by a chronic diarrhea, he suffered a few days, and died June 15th, 1849, in the fifty-fourth year of his age. Public honors

were paid to his memory throughout the Union. His wife survived him, but they had no offspring.

Mr. Polk was of middle stature, with a full, angular brow, and a quick, penetrating eye. His countenance was grave, though often relieved by a pleasant smile, betokening the amenity of his disposition; and at the close of his official career, he was worn with care. He was an intimate personal and political friend of Gen. Jackson.

POLLIO, CAIUS ASINIUS, a Roman consul under the reign of Augustus, who distinguished himself as much by his eloquence and writings, as by his exploits in the field. He was with Cæsar when he crossed the Rubicon. He defeated the Dalmatians, and favored the cause of Antony against Augustus. He was greatly esteemed by Augustus, when he had become one of his adherents, after the ruin of Antony. He died in the eightieth year of his age, A.D. 4.

POLO, MARCO, was a Venetian merchant of the thirteenth century. Commercial enterprise led his father and uncle to the court of

Kublai Khan, the great Mongol emperor, and Marco accompanied them. He dwelt at the Mongol court in China from 1275 to 1292. As he enjoyed the eminent favor of the great monarch, and was often sent on missions to remote princes, he had great advantages for becoming acquainted with eastern Asia, then an unknown land to Europeans. Kublai Khan reluctantly allowed the Poli to return. Marco published an account of those distant realms, which modern discovery has shown to be wonderfully accurate. It materially influenced the views of Columbus, and inspired Vasco de Gama to seek his path to India.

POMPADOUR, JEANNE ANTOINETTE POISSON, Marchioness of Pompadour, the mistress of Louis XV., was the daughter of a financier, and the wife of M. d'Etioles when she attracted the notice of the king, who made her a marchioness in 1745. She liberally encouraged the arts, and collected a valuable cabinet of curiosities. She died in 1764, aged forty-four.



TEMPLE OF ISIS AT POMPEII.

POMPEII. This ancient city of Campania was partly demolished by an earthquake in A.D. 63. It was afterward rebuilt, but was swallowed up, like Herculaneum, by an awful eruption of Vesuvius, accompanied by an

earthquake, on the night of the 24th of August, A.D. 79. Many of the principal citizens happened at the time to be assembled at a theatre where public spectacles were exhibited. The ashes buried the whole city, and covered

the surrounding country. After a lapse of fifteen centuries, a countryman, as he was turning up the ground, accidentally found a bronze figure; and this discovery attracting the attention of the learned, further search brought numerous productions to light, and at length the city was once more shone on by the sun. Different monarchs have contributed their aid in uncovering the buried city; the part first cleared, A.D. 1750, was supposed to be the main street.

POMPEY, CNEIUS, surnamed the Great, from the greatness of his exploits, was the son of Cneius Pompeius Strabo and Lucilia, and was born B.C. 106. He early distinguished himself in the field of battle, and fought with success and bravery under his father, whose courage and military prudence he imitated. In the disturbances which agitated Rome, by the ambition and avarice of Marius and Sylla, Pompey followed the interest of the latter, and by levying three legions for his service gained his friendship and his protection. In the twenty-sixth year of his age, he conquered Sicily, which was in the power of Marius, and his adherents, and in forty days he regained all the territories of Africa which had forsaken the interest of Sylla.

After the death of Sylla, Pompey supported himself against the remains of the Marian faction, which were headed by Lepidus, and afterward by Sertorius in Spain. He was soon made consul, and in that office he restored the tribunitial power to its original dignity; and in forty days he removed the pirates from the Mediterranean, where they had reigned for many years, and by their continual plunder and audacity almost destroyed the whole naval power of Rome.

While he extirpated these maritime robbers, Pompey was called to greater undertakings, and empowered to finish the war against Mithridates, king of Pontus, and Tigranes, king of Armenia. His operations against the king of Pontus were bold and vigorous; and in a general engagement the Romans so totally defeated the enemy, that the Asiatic monarch escaped with difficulty from the field of battle. Pompey did not lose sight of the advantages which dispatch would insure: he entered Armenia, and received the submission of Tigranes.

Part of Arabia was subdued; Judea became a Roman province; and when he had now nothing to fear from Mithridates, who had voluntarily destroyed himself, Pompey returned to Italy with all the pomp and majesty of an eastern conqueror. The Romans dreaded his approach; they knew his power, and his influence among his troops, and they feared the return of another tyrannical Sylla. Pompey, however, banished their fears; he disbanded his army, and the conqueror of Asia entered Rome like a private citizen.

Pompey soon after united his interest with that of Cæsar and Crassus, and formed the first triumvirate, all solemnly swearing that their attachment should be mutual, and their union permanent. But this powerful confederacy was soon after broken; the sudden death of Julia, the wife of Pompey, and daughter of Cæsar, and the total defeat and death of Crassus in Syria by the Parthians, shattered the political bands which held the jarring interests of Cæsar and Pompey united.

Pompey dreaded his father-in-law, and yet he affected to despise him; and, by suffering anarchy to prevail in Rome, he convinced his fellow-citizens of the necessity of investing him with dictatorial power. The enemies of Cæsar unjustly demanded that he should resign the command in Gaul. His friends claimed, either that the consulship should be given to him, or that he should be continued in the government of Gaul. This would perhaps have been granted, but Cato opposed it. The breach became more wide, and a civil war was inevitable.

Cæsar was privately preparing to meet his enemies, while Pompey remained indolent, and gratified his pride in seeing all Italy celebrate his recovery from an indisposition by universal rejoicings. But he was soon roused from his inactivity; and it was now time to find his friends, if anything could be obtained from the caprice and the fickleness of a people which he had once delighted and amused by the exhibition of games and spectacles in a theatre which could contain twenty thousand spectators.

Cæsar was near Rome; he had crossed the Rubicon, upon hearing of the hostile measures with which the senate threatened him. Pompey, who had once boasted that he could

raise legions to his assistance by stamping with his foot, fled from the city with precipitation, and retired to Brundisium with the consuls and part of the senators. Cæsar was master of Rome; in sixty days all Italy acknowledged his power, and the conqueror hastened to Spain, there to defeat the interest of Pompey, and alienate the hearts of his soldiers. He was too successful; and when he had gained to his cause the western parts of the Roman empire, he crossed Italy, and arrived in Greece, whither Pompey had retired, supported by all the power of the east, the wishes of the conservative Romans, and a numerous and well-disciplined army.

Pompey at first met with success; and he might have decided the war if he had continued to pursue the enemy while their confusion was great, and their escape almost impossible. Want of provisions obliged Cæsar to advance toward Thessaly; Pompey pursued him, and in the plains of Pharsalia the two armies engaged. The cavalry of Pompey soon gave way, and the general retired to his camp overwhelmed with grief and shame. But here there was no safety; the conqueror pushed on every side, and Pompey disguised himself and fled to the sea-coast, whence he passed to Egypt, where he hoped to find a safe asylum, till better and more favorable moments returned, in the court of Ptolemy, a prince whom he had once protected and insured on his throne. When Ptolemy was told that Pompey claimed his protection, he consulted his ministers, and had the baseness to betray and deceive him. A boat was sent to fetch him on shore; the Roman general left his galley after an affectionate and tender parting with his wife Cornelia. The Egyptian sailors sat in sullen silence in the boat; and when Pompey disembarked, Achilles and Septimius assassinated him. His wife, who had followed him with her eyes to the shore, was a spectator of the bloody scene; and she hastened away from the bay of Alexandria, not to share his miserable fate. He died B.C. 48, in the fifty-eighth year of his age, the day after his birth-day.

PONDICHERY, a city on the sea-coast of the Carnatic in India, since 1672 a French colony. Ineffectually besieged by the British, under Admiral Boscawen, in 1748. In

1761 it was taken, after a tedious siege and blockade, by the English under Colonel Coote, when 2,000 Europeans were made prisoners, and 5,000 pieces of cannon and 100 mortars taken. In 1763 it was restored to the French. Subsequently it has been several times taken by the British, but in 1814 it was finally restored to France. Pondicherry is the principal seat of the French power in the East Indies. The population of the town and district is 80,000.

PONIATOWSKI, JOSEPH, a nephew of Stanislaus Augustus, the last king of Poland, was born at Warsaw in 1763. He stood by the side of Kosciusko in the resistance to the dismemberment of his native land. Prince Poniatowski commanded the Polish forces which joined the army of Napoleon, and participated in the varied campaign of 1812 in Russia. After the battle of Leipsic, during which Napoleon made him a marshal of the empire, he was ordered to cover the retreat. The enemy were already in possession of the suburbs, and had thrown light troops over the Elster, when Prince Poniatowski arrived with a few followers at the river. The bridge had already been blown up by the French. The brave Pole, wounded as he was, spurred his steed into the rapid current, and was drowned, Oct. 19th, 1814. His body was found on the 24th, and having been embalmed, was buried at Warsaw, with all the honors of his rank, by order of the Emperor Alexander.

PONTUS, an ancient kingdom of Asia Minor. This country came into subjection to Cræsus, king of Lydia, about 560 B.C., and underwent the revolutions of the Lydian and Persian empires till about 300 B.C., when it became independent of the Macedonians under Mithridates II. It grew very considerable under Mithridates VI., who extended his empire over all Asia Minor, but could not retain his conquests against the Romans, being defeated successively by Sylla, Lucullus, and Pompey. The Roman conquest was complete on his death in 63 B.C. Upon the taking of Constantinople by the Latins in 1204, Alexius Comnenus established at Trebizond, in this country, a new empire of the Greeks, which continued till Mohammed II. put an end to it in 1459.

POPES. The title of pope was origin-

POP

ally given to all bishops. It was first adopted by Hyginus, Bishop of Rome, A.D. 138. Boniface III. induced Phocas, Emperor of the East, to confine it to the prelates of Rome, and by the connivance of Phocas, also, the Romish bishop's supremacy over the Christian church was established. The custom of kissing the pope's toe was introduced in 708. The first sovereign act of the popes of Rome was by Adrian I., who caused money to be coined with his name, 780. Sergius II. was the first pope who changed his name on his election, in 844. Some contend that it was Sergius I., and others John XII. or XIII. John XVIII., a layman, was made pope, 1024. The first pope who kept an army was Leo IX., 1054. The pope's authority was firmly fixed in England, 1079. Appeals from English tribunals to the pope were introduced 19 Stephen, 1154. The pope collected the tenths of the whole kingdom of England, 1226. The papal seat was removed to Avignon, in France, in 1308, for seventy years. The holy see's demands on England were refused by parliament, 1363. Appeals to Rome from England were abolished, 1533. The words "Lord Pope" were struck out of all English books, 1541. The papal authority declined about 1600. Kissing the pope's toe, and other ceremonies, were abolished by Clement XIV., 1773. The pope became destitute of all political influence in Europe, 1787. Pius VI. was burned in effigy at Paris, 1791. He made submission to the French republic, 1796; was expelled from Rome, and deposed, Feb. 22d, 1798, and died at Valence, Aug. 19th, 1799. Pius VII. was elected in exile, March 13th, 1800; was dethroned, May 13th, 1809; remained a prisoner at Fontainebleau till Napoleon's overthrow; and was restored May 24th, 1814.

752. Stephen II.; the first who was carried to the Lateran on men's shoulders.

757. Paul I.

768. Stephen III.

772. Adrian I.; sanctioned images; caused money to be coined with his name, 780.

795. Leo III.

816. Stephen IV.

817. Pascal I.

824. Eugenius II.

827. Valentine.

828. Gregory IV.

844. Sergius II.; the first that changed his name on his election.

847. Leo IV.; defeated the Saracens.

855. Benedict III. opposed by an anti-pope called Anastasius.

858. Nicholas I., styled the Great.

867. Adrian II.

872. John VIII.

882. Martin II.

884. Adrian III.

885. Stephen V.

891. Formosus; died detested; his corpse thrown into the Tiber.

896. Boniface VI.; deposed.

897. Romanus, anti-pope.

897. Stephen VI.; strangled in prison.

898. John IX.

900. Benedict IV.

903. Leo V.; deposed in a few months, and died in prison.

904. Sergius III.; disgraced by his vices.

911. Anastasius III.

913. Landonius, or Lando.

914. John X.; resigned, and was stifled by Guy, Duke of Tuscany.

928. Leo VI.

929. Stephen VII.

931. John XI.; imprisoned in the castle of St. Angelo, where he died.

936. Leo VII.; great in zeal and piety.

939. Stephen VIII.; of ferocious character.

942. Martin III.

946. Agapetus II.; of holy life.

956. John XII., the Infamous; deposed for adultery and cruelty, and finally murdered. By some he is said to be the first that changed his name upon coming to the papal chair.

963. Benedict V. chosen, but opposed by Leo VIII., who was successfully supported by the Emperor Otho.

965. John XIII.; elected by the imperial authority.

972. Benedict VI.; murdered in prison.

974. Boniface VII.

974. Donnus II.

975. Benedict VII.

983. John XIV.

984. John XV.

985. John XVI.

996. Gregory V.

999. Sylvester II.

1003. John XVII.; died same year.

1003. John XVIII.; abdicated.

1009. Sergius IV.

1012. Benedict VIII.

1024. John XIX.; a layman, made pope by dint of money.

1033. Benedict IX.; became pope, by purchase, at twelve years of age; expelled.

1044. Gregory VI.; abdicated.

1046. Clement II.; died next year.

1047. Benedict IX. again; again deposed.

1048. Damasus II.; died soon after.

1048. Leo IX.; canonized; the first pope that kept an army.

1054. [The throne vacant one year.]

1055. Victor II.

1057. Stephen IX.

1058. Benedict X.; anti-pope, who was expelled

1058. Nicholas II.

- * 1061. Alexander II.; the papal power greatly increased.
- 1073. Gregory VII., the celebrated Hildebrand. Now began the pretensions to the power of excommunicating and deposing sovereigns. Gregory VII. obliged Henry IV., Emperor of Germany, to stand three days in the depth of winter, barefooted, at his castle-gate, to implore his pardon, 1077.
- 1085. [Throne vacant one year.]
- 1086. Victor III.
- 1088. Urban II.; in whose pontificate commenced the great crusade.
- 1099. Pascal II.
- 1118. Gelasius II.; retired to a monastery.
- 1119. Calixtus II.
- 1124. Honorius II.*
- 1130. Innocent II.
- 1143. Celestine II.; ruled five months.
- 1144. Lucius II.; killed by accident in a popular commotion.
- 1145. Eugenius III.; canonized.
- 1153. Anastasius IV.
- 1154. Adrian IV.; Nicholas Brakespeare, the only Englishman that ever obtained the tiara. He arrogantly obliged Frederick I. to prostrate himself before him, kiss his foot, hold his stirrup, and lead the white palfrey on which he rode.
- 1159. Alexander III.; avenger of the murder of Thomas à Becket; Henry II. of England held the stirrup for him to mount, in token of repentance.
- 1181. Lucius III.
- 1185. Urban III.
- 1187. Gregory VIII.; ruled only two months.
- 1187. Clement III.
- 1191. Celestine III.; kicked the Emperor Henry VI.'s crown off his head, while kneeling, to show his prerogative of making and unmaking kings.
- 1198. Innocent III. (Lothario Conti); excommunicated King John of England.
- 1216. Honorius III.; demanded an annual sum for every cathedral and monastery in Christendom, but was refused, 1226; collected the tenths of the whole kingdom of England, 1226.
- 1227. Gregory IX.; caused a new crusade to be undertaken.
- 1241. Celestine IV.; died in eighteen days after his election.
- 1241. [The throne vacant one year and seven months.]
- 1243. Innocent IV.; first bestowed the red hat upon cardinals, and made them princes of the church.
- 1254. Alexander IV.
- 1261. Urban IV.
- 1265. Clement IV.; an enlightened Frenchman, previously cardinal and legate to England; discouraged the crusades.
- 1268. [Throne vacant two years and nine months.]
- 1271. Gregory X.; elected while he was with Edward I. of England in Palestine.
- 1276. Innocent V.; died soon.
- 1276. Adrian V.; legate to England in 1254; died soon.
- 1276. Vicedominus; died the next day.
- 1277. John XX. or XXI.; died in eight months.
- 1277. Nicholas III.; died in 1280.
- 1281. Martin IV.
- 1285. Honorius IV.; promoted the crusades.
- 1288. Nicholas IV.; endeavored in vain to stir up a new crusade.
- 1292. [Throne vacant two years, three months.]
- 1294. Celestine V.; resigned from fear.
- 1294. Boniface VIII.; proclaimed that "God had set him over kings and kingdoms," imprisoned his predecessor, and laid France and Denmark under interdict.
- 1303. Benedict XI.; a pious and liberal pontiff, poisoned by ambitious cardinals shortly after his election.
- 1304. [Throne vacant eleven months.]
- 1305. Clement V.; Bertrand the Goth; he removed the papal court from Rome to Avignon.
- 1314. [Throne vacant two years and four months.]
- 1316. John XXII.
- 1334. Benedict XII. [Nicholas V. anti-pope at Rome.]
- 1342. Clement VI.; eulogized by Petrarch as a learned prelate, a generous prince, and an amiable man.
- 1352. Innocent VI.
- 1362. Urban V.; illustrious as a patron of learning.
- 1370. Gregory XI.; also an eminent protector of learning; he restored the papal chair to Rome.
- 1378. Urban IV.; so severe and cruel that the cardinals chose Robert of Geneva, under the name of Clement VII., which led to great violence.
- 1389. Boniface IX.
- 1394. Benedict (called XIII.), anti-pope at Avignon.
- 1404. Innocent VII.; died in 1406.
- 1406. Gregory XII.; elected during the schism in the east, Benedict XIII. being the other pope. Both were deposed.
- 1409. Alexander V.; supposed to have been poisoned.
- 1410. John XXIII.; elected during the great schism; deposed.
- 1417. Martin V. (Otto Colonna).
- 1431. Eugenius IV. (Gabriel Condolmera); deposed by the council of Basle, and Amadeus of Savoy chosen as Felix V. in 1439.
- 1447. Nicholas V.
- 1455. Calixtus III.
- 1458. Pius II. (Æneas Silvius Piccolomini).
- 1464. Paul II., a noble Venetian.
- 1471. Sixtus IV.
- 1484. Innocent VIII., a noble Genoese.
- 1492. Alexander VI.; the infamous Roderic Borgia, poisoned at a feast by quaffing a bowl he had prepared for another.
- 1503. Pius III. (Francis Todeschini); died in twenty-one days.
- 1503. Julius II. (Julian de la Ruvere).
- 1513. Leo X. (John de Medici); he was made cardinal while a lad of fourteen: his

- grant of indulgences for crime hurried on the Reformation.
1522. Adrian VI.
1523. Clement VII. (Julius de Medici); refused to divorce Catharine of Aragon from Henry VIII. of England, and denounced the marriage with Anne Boleyn; he brought pluralities to their consummation, making his nephew Hippolito, Cardinal de Medici, commendatory universal, granting to him all the vacant benefices in the world, for six months, and appointing him usufructuary from the first day of his possession. Rome sacked, and Clement imprisoned, 1527; moved his residence to Avignon, 1531.
1534. Paul III. (Alexander Farnese).
1550. Julius III.
1555. Marcellus II.; died soon after election.
1555. Paul IV. (John Peter Caraffa). When Elizabeth of England sent him an ambassador to announce her accession, he answered, "that to the holy see, and not to her, belonged the throne, to which she had no right, as being a bastard;" by which impolitic arrogance the queen was confirmed in her father's opposition to papal supremacy.
1559. Pius IV. (Cardinal de Medici).
1566. Pius V.
1572. Gregory XIII.; the greatest civilian and canonist of his time, under whom the calendar was reformed.
1585. Sixtus V.; an extraordinary man.
1590. Urban VII.; died twelve days after election.
1590. Gregory XIV. (Nicolas Sfondrate).
1591. Innocent IX.; died in two months.
1592. Clement VIII.; learned and just.
1605. Leo XI.; died same month.
1605. Paul V. (Camille Borghese).
1621. Gregory XV. (Alexander Ludovisio).
1623. Urban VIII.; gave the title of 'eminence' to cardinals.
1644. Innocent X. (John Baptist Pamphilus).
1655. Alexander VII. (Fabio Chigi).
1667. Clement IX.
1670. Clement X. (John Baptiste Emile Altieri).
1676. Innocent XI.
1689. Alexander VIII.
1691. Innocent XII. (Antonio Pignatelli).
1700. Clement XI. (John Francis Albani).
1721. Innocent XIII. (Michael Angelo Conti); the eighth pontiff of his family.
1724. Benedict XIII.
1730. Clement XII.
1740. Benedict XIV.; the amiable Lambertini.
1758. Clement XIII. (Charles Rezzonico).
1769. Clement XIV.; the illustrious Ganganelli; he abolished kissing the toe, and some other ridiculous ceremonies, in 1773, and suppressed the Jesuits.
1775. Pius VI. (Angelo Braschi); dethroned by Napoleon.
1800. Pius VII. (Cardinal Chiaramonte); deposed by Napoleon in 1809; restored in 1814.
1823. Leo XII. (Annibal della Ganga), Sept. 28th.
1829. Pius VIII. (Francis Xavier Castiglioni), March 31st.
1831. Gregory XVI. (Mauro Capellari), Feb. 2d; died June 1st, 1846.
1846. Pius IX. (Mastai Feretti), elected June 16th. Pius IX. fled in disguise to Gaeta from an insurrection at Rome, Nov. 24th, 1848. The provisional government declared him divested of all temporal power, Feb. 8th, 1849. French bayonets put down the republic, and the pope returned April 12th, 1850.

POPE, ALEXANDER, a celebrated English poet, born in London, May 22d, 1688. His application and talent for versification were manifested at an early age; his "Pastorals" being written at the age of sixteen. His translation of Homer's Iliad, his "Epistle from Eloisa to Abelard," the "Essay on Man," and "The Dunciad," are well known to every English scholar. He died at Twickenham, May 30th, 1744. His temper was soured by his bodily infirmities, for he was sickly and deformed from youth. Yet there is nothing finer in literary biography than his undeviating affection and reverence for his venerable parents.

PORSENNA, a powerful Etrurian prince, who declared war against the Romans because they refused to restore Tarquin to his throne, and to his royal privileges. He was at first successful, the Romans were defeated, and Porsenna would have entered the gates of Rome, had not Cocles stood at the head of a bridge over the Tiber, and supported the fury of the whole Etrurian army, while his companions behind were cutting off the communication with the opposite shore. This act of bravery astonished Porsenna; but when he had seen Mutius Scævola enter his camp with an intention to murder him, and when he had seen him burn his hand without emotion, to convince him of his fortitude and intrepidity, he no longer dared to make head against a people so brave and so generous. He made a peace with the Romans, and never after supported the claims of Tarquin. The generosity of Porsenna's behavior to the captives was admired by the Romans, and to reward his humanity they raised a brazen statue to his honor.

PORSON, RICHARD, professor of the Greek language, in the university of Cambridge, had the reputation of being the best Greek

scholar in England, yet his learning scarcely produced him a living; born in 1759, and died in 1808. Porson had wit as well as scholarship. He once said that he could pun on any subject; he was defied to do so upon the Latin gerunds, which, however, he immediately did in this admirable couplet:—

"When Dido found Æneas would not come,
She mourned in silence, and was DI-DO-DUM."

PORTA, JOHN BAPTIST, a philosopher and mathematician of Naples, invented the camera obscura, born in 1540, died in 1616.

PORTER, DAVID, a brave commodore in our navy, was born in Boston, February, 1780. During the war of 1812 with Great Britain, he commanded the frigate *Essex*, and made a brilliant cruise in the Pacific, ending in his capture off Valparaiso by a British frigate and two sloops of war. He afterward served a while under the Mexican flag, and was our minister at Constantinople from 1831 till his death in 1843.

PORTUGAL, a kingdom of Europe, having an area of 35,189 square miles, and a population of 3,500,000. The separation of Brazil deprived Portugal of its most important colonial possession. It still retains the Azores, Madeira, and the Cape Verde Isles, Macao in China, Goa, &c., in India, and various establishments on the coast of Africa in Guinea, Angola, Benguela, and Mozambique.

Portugal is a mountainous country, several bold ranges crossing it from east to west. The principal rivers have the same direction, entering from Spain and flowing to the Atlantic; the Douro, the Tagus, and the Guadiana are the chief. The warm clime of the valleys, and the generally fertile soil, are abused by a slovenly husbandry. The cultivation of the vine is the most important branch of industry. Salt is made in large quantities by evaporation in the marshes on the coast. Wine is the great export: fruits and cork rank next.

The religion of the state is Roman Catholic, but other creeds are tolerated. The government is a constitutional monarchy, the parliament consisting of a chamber of peers and a chamber of deputies. Education is at a low ebb. The peasantry in the northern and mountainous districts are active and spirited; in the lower districts they are indolent and dejected, dirty in their persons and dwellings, and ill fed with coarse bread, dried fish, goat-

milk cheese, chestnuts, garlic, and oil. The educated classes are polished and courteous. The provincial nobility are very numerous, but mostly poor.

Lisbon (Lisboa), the capital, near the mouth of the Tagus, whose broad estuary gives it a safe and spacious harbor, has 280,000 inhabitants. The city rises from the river on a succession of hills, like an amphitheatre, massive buildings that were convents in former time crowning the summits. The streets are steep, irregular, and crooked, shadowed by high, old-fashioned houses. Exception must be made for the section rebuilt since the great earthquake, which is regular and handsome. Of that terrible throes of the earth we have already spoken. [See EARTHQUAKES, 1755.] The Moors are said to have called the city Lisboa. It became the capital of the kingdom in 1506. Oporto (O Porto, 'the port'), the second city of Portugal, lies on both sides of the Douro, about 175 miles north of Lisbon. It contains 80,000 inhabitants. It was in the possession of the French in 1808 and 1809; and its commerce suffered much from the tyrannical regulations of Don Miguel. Its principal trade is in wines, the red wine of the adjacent districts taking from Oporto the name of 'port.' Abrantes, in the province of Estremadura, on the right bank of the Tagus, has a population of 5,000. The abruptness of the hills, the strength of the castle, and the state of the river, render it a place of great importance in a military point of view. In 1762 the Portuguese defended it against the Spaniards; and in 1808 it was garrisoned by Junot, one of Napoleon's generals, who, from the perseverance with which he marched to this place, in spite of many obstacles, and the gallantry with which he made himself master of Lisbon with 1,500 grenadiers, was named Duke of Abrantes. When the place was surrendered to the English, they strengthened it to such a degree that it was believed to be almost impregnable.

The Romans knew Portugal by the name of Lusitania. After their day it was successively subject to the Suevi, the Goths, and the Moors. About the beginning of the twelfth century, it regained its liberty by the valor of Henry of Lorraine (grandson of Robert, King of France), who possessed it with the title of count. His son, Alphonso Henriquez, having

obtained a decisive victory at Ourique over five Moorish kings, was proclaimed king by the soldiers. On the death of Ferdinand, in 1383, the states gave the crown to his natural brother John, surnamed the Bastard, who was equally politic and enterprising, and in whose reign the Portuguese first projected discoveries in the western ocean. In the reign of his great-grandson, John II., who was a prince of profound sagacity and extensive views, the Portuguese made conquests in the interior of Africa, and discovered the Cape of Good Hope. Emmanuel adopted the plan of his predecessors, and sent out a fleet under Vasco de Gama, which, ranging through unknown seas, arrived at the city of Calicut on the coast of Malabar. Others of his vessels discovered Brazil, in 1501.

These princes had the merit of exciting that spirit of discovery which begot many subsequent improvements of navigation and commerce. Their discoveries on the coast of Africa led to the voyage of Columbus and the discovery of America. They also established valuable colonies in Africa and America, and an extensive empire in India. John III., the son of Emmanuel, extended the Indian discoveries and commerce still further. But the introduction of the Inquisition, in 1536, and the admission of the Jesuits, were fatal errors, and aided on the commencing decadence of the realm, already evinced by the maladministration of the colonies. To the Jesuits was intrusted the education of John's grandson Sebastian, the heir to the throne; and thus he imbibed the fanaticism which buried him in an early grave. He led an army against the Moors in Africa, where he perished in battle.

Sebastian, leaving no issue, was succeeded by his uncle, Cardinal Henry, who also dying without children, Philip of Spain obtained the crown, A.D. 1580. In 1604 Portugal rendered itself independent of Spain; and John, Duke of Braganza, a descendant of the old royal line, ascended the throne, by the title of John IV. His son, Alphonso VI., was deposed on account of his cruelties; and the sceptre was transferred to his brother. Peter II. reigned peaceably thirty years; and under the mild government of his son, John V., the arts began to flourish. In the reign of Joseph I., in 1755, the city of Lisbon was laid in ruins

by an earthquake, in which ten thousand persons lost their lives. In this reign, too, the Jesuits were banished. He was succeeded by his daughter, Mary Frances Isabella; who for many years was so infirm in body and mind that the affairs of the kingdom were managed by a regency. In 1807, when in consequence of the Portuguese alliance with England, the French mastered the country, the prince regent retired with the queen, his mother, and the rest of the royal family, to the Brazils, in South America. Rio de Janeiro then became the seat of the Portuguese government. Portugal was, however, wrested by the English out of the hands of the French in 1808.

John VI. returned to Portugal in 1821. The people succeeded in substituting a constitutional government for the old absolutism. Brazil became an independent empire, John retaining only the imperial title. John died in March, 1826. His son Pedro, after granting a new constitution, very soon abdicated the Portuguese throne in favor of his daughter Dona Maria da Gloria (he remaining king during her minority), on condition of her marrying her uncle Dom Miguel. But a faction secretly favored by Spain, aimed at the overthrow of the constitution. At its head was Dom Miguel, who during the life of his father John VI., had clutched at supreme power. He assumed the royal title, claiming that Pedro had forfeited all right to the crown, as well as to the appointment of a successor, by becoming a Brazilian citizen, and not residing in Portugal. The civil war ended in 1834 with the expulsion of Miguel.

KINGS OF PORTUGAL.

- 1093. Henry, Count or Earl of Portugal.
- 1111. Alfonso, his son, and Theresa.
- 1128. Alfonso, Count of Portugal, alone.
- 1139. Alfonso declared king, having obtained a signal victory over a prodigious army of Moors on the plains of Ourique.
- 1185. Sancho I., son of Alfonso.
- 1212. Alfonso II., surnamed Crassus, or the Fat.
- 1223. Sancho II., or the Idle: deposed.
- 1248. Alfonso III.
- 1279. Denis or Dionysius, styled the Father of his country.
- 1325. Alfonso IV.
- 1357. Peter the Severe: succeeded by his son.
- 1367. Ferdinand I.: succeeded by his natural brother.
- 1384. John I., the Bastard, and the Great: married Philippa, daughter of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster.

1433. Edward.
 1438. Alfonso V., the African.
 1481. John II., whose actions procured him the titles of the Great, and the Perfect: succeeded by his cousin.
 1495. Emmanuel, the Fortunate.
 1521. John III., son of Emmanuel; he admitted into his kingdom the religious institution of the Inquisition.
 1557. Sebastian; slain in the great battle of Alcazar, in Africa, Aug. 4th, 1578; when the crown reverted to his great-uncle.
 1578. Henry, the Cardinal, son of Emmanuel.
 1580. Anthony, Prior of Crato, son of Emmanuel: deposed by Philip II. of Spain, who united Portugal to his other dominions, till 1640.
 1640. John IV., Duke of Braganza: dispossessed the Spaniards in a bloodless revolution, and was proclaimed king, Dec. 1st.
 1656. Alfonso VI.: deposed in 1668, and his brother and successor Peter made regent; the latter ascended the throne in 1683. Peter II.: succeeded by his son.
 1706. John V.: succeeded by his son.
 1750. Joseph. The daughter and successor of this prince married his brother, by dispensation from the pope, and they ascended the throne as
 1777. Maria (Frances Isabella) and Peter III., jointly.
 1786. Maria, alone: this princess afterward falls into a state of melancholy and derangement.
 1792. Regency. John, son of the queen, and afterward king, declared regent of the kingdom.
 1816. John VI., previously regent. He had withdrawn in 1807, owing to the French invasion of Portugal, to his Brazilian dominions; but the discontent of his subjects obliged him to return in 1821; died in 1826.
 1826. Peter IV. (Dom Pedro), son of John VI.: making his election of the empire of Brazil, abdicated the throne of Portugal in favor of his daughter.
 1826. Maria II. (da Gloria), who became queen at seven years of age.
 1828. Dom Miguel, brother to Peter IV., usurped the crown, which he retained, amid civil contentions, until 1833.
 1833. Maria II. restored: declared in September, 1834 (being then fifteen), to be of age, and assumed the royal power accordingly; died Nov. 15th, 1853: succeeded by her son.
 1853. Peter V. (Dom Pedro), born Sept. 16th, 1837.

POTEMKIN, GREGORY ALEXANDROVITSCH, a Russian prince and field-marshal. He succeeded Orloff as the favorite of Catharine II., and died in 1791, aged fifty-five.

POTTER, PAUL, a celebrated Dutch pain-

ter of cattle and landscapes, born in 1625, died in 1654.

POUSSIN, NICHOLAS, was born at Andely in Normandy. He studied painting at Paris and Rome, and after various vicissitudes gained great fame and fortune by his art. He excelled in landscapes as well as figures, and an antique simplicity marks his works. He died at Rome, Nov. 19th, 1665. His brother-in-law and pupil, Gaspard Duchet (1613-1675), commonly called Poussin, was also an eminent painter of sombre landscapes.

POWHATAN, a powerful Indian chief in Virginia, hostile to the English; he was the father of Pocahontas, and on her marriage became reconciled to the whites; he died in 1618.

PRAGA, a town of Poland, taken by storm by Suwarrow, Oct. 10th, 1794, when it was plundered, set on fire, and the inhabitants and the troops of the Polish insurgents who had taken refuge there, together amounting to 30,000, were barbarously massacred.

PRAGUE, the ancient capital of Bohemia; population, 143,000. In size and beauty it is the third city in Germany, and at a distance its commanding site, its many and lofty steeples, and its fine palaces and public edifices, produce a striking effect. It has been a memorable spot in warfare. The great battle of Prague was fought May 6th, 1757, when the Austrians were defeated by Prince Henry of Prussia, their whole camp taken, their illustrious commander General Browne mortally wounded, and the brave Prussian marshal Schwerin killed. After this victory the Prussian king besieged Prague, but was soon compelled to raise the siege.

PREBLE, EDWARD, a celebrated American naval officer, was born in Falmouth (now Portland), Maine, Aug. 15th, 1761. In 1779 he obtained a midshipman's warrant on board the Protector, a state ship of twenty-six guns, which was captured by the English. Preble, however, was released at New York, and returned home. When first lieutenant of the Winthrop sloop of war, he displayed great gallantry, in cutting out a hostile brig of war in Penobscot harbor. After performing various services, in 1803, he was invested with the command of the Constitution, and being stationed in the Mediterranean, he not only prevented a war

between Morocco and the United States, but bombarded Tripoli, and brought the bashaw to terms. For this service he received the thanks of Congress, and an emblematical medal. He died Aug. 25th, 1807, in the forty-seventh year of his age.

PRESCOTT, WILLIAM, one of the heroes of the American Revolution, was born at Groton, Mass., in 1726. He was a lieutenant in the provincial forces at the taking of Cape Breton in 1758, and greatly distinguished himself on that occasion. He commanded in the redoubt at the battle of Bunker Hill, and was the last to leave the intrenchments. He resigned his colonel's commission in 1777, but was present at the capture of Burgoyne, as a volunteer under Gates. He died Oct. 13th, 1795.

William H. Prescott, the eminent historian, is his grandson.

PRESTON-PANS, a Scotch village ten miles east of Edinburgh, memorable for the defeat of the royalists under Sir John Cope, by the troops of the Pretender, Sept. 21st, 1745.

PRETENDER. The person known in English history by this name, or as the Chevalier de St. George, was the son of James II., born in 1688, and acknowledged by Louis XIV. as James III. of England in 1701. He was proclaimed, and his standard set up, at Braemar and Castletown, in Scotland, Sept. 6th, 1715; and he landed at Peterhead, in Aberdeenshire, from France, to encourage the rebellion that the Earl of Mar and his other adherents had promoted, Dec. 26th the same year. This rebellion was soon suppressed. The Pretender died at Rome, Dec. 30th, 1765.

His son, Prince Charles Edward, the Young Pretender, was born in 1720. He landed in Scotland, and proclaimed his father king, in June, 1745. His arms were victorious at Preston Pans and Falkirk, but after the disastrous defeat of Culloden, April 16th, 1746, he sought safety in flight, and finally escaped to the continent. He died March 3d, 1788. His natural daughter assumed the title of Duchess of Albany; she died in 1789. His brother, the Cardinal York, calling himself Henry IX. of England, born March, 1725, died at Rome in August, 1807.

PRICE, RICHARD, an eminent dissenting

divine in England, born in Wales, died in 1791, aged sixty-eight.

PRIESTLY, JOSEPH, a very celebrated dissenting clergyman, philosopher, and chemist. His religious and political views forced him to leave his native England, and he died in 1804 in Pennsylvania, aged seventy-one. He was the discoverer of oxygen, among many important services he rendered for science.

PRINCETON, BATTLE OF. Gen. Washington, withdrawing at night from his camp at Trenton, where he was threatened with an attack by Cornwallis, fell suddenly upon a corps of the British at Princeton, Jan. 3d, 1777. In the brief but brilliant action the British were routed. Gen. Mercer was among the slain of the Americans.

PRINTING. The honor of the invention of this, the greatest of all the arts, has been claimed by Mentz, Strasburg, Haerlem, Venice, Rome, Basle, and Augsburg; but only the three first are entitled to attention. Laurens John Koster, of Haerlem, is said to have printed, with blocks, a book of images and letters, *Speculum Humanæ Salvationis*, and compounded an ink more viscous and tenacious than common ink (which blotted), about 1438. The leaves of this book, being printed on one side only, were afterward pasted together. John Faust printed the *Tractatus Petri Hispani* at Mentz in 1442. John Guttenberg invented *cut* metal types, and used them in printing the earliest edition of the Bible, which was commenced in 1444, and finished in 1460. Peter Schæffer cast the first metal types in matrices, and was therefore the inventor of complete printing, 1452. [See Books.]

Book of Psalms, printed A.D. 1457. The *Durandi Rationale*, first work printed with *cast* metal types, 1459. The types were uniformly Gothic, or old German (whence our old English, or Black Letter), until 1465. Greek characters (quotations only) first used in the same year. *Cicero de Officiis* printed, 1466. Roman characters, first used, at Rome, 1468.

William Caxton, a mercer at London, set up the first press at Westminster, 1471. He printed "Willyam Caxton's Recuyel of the Hystories of Troy, by Raoul le Feure," 1471. His first pieces were, "A Treatise on the Game of Chess" and "Tully's Offices,"



FAUST TAKING FIRST PROOF FROM MOVEABLE TYPES.

1474. "Æsop's Fables," printed by Caxton, is supposed to be the first book with its leaves numbered.

Aldus cast the Greek alphabet, and a Greek book was printed, 1476. He introduced the Italic. The Pentateuch, in Hebrew, 1482. Homer, in folio, beautifully done at Florence, eclipsing all former printing, by Demetrius, 1488.

Printing used in Scotland, 1509. The first edition of the *whole* Bible was, strictly speaking, the Complutensian Polyglot of Cardinal Ximenes, 1517. The Liturgy, the first book printed in Ireland, by Humphrey Powell, 1550. Printing in Irish characters intro-

duced by Nicholas Walsh, Chancellor of St. Patrick's, 1571. The first newspaper printed in England, 1588. First patent granted for printing, 1591. First printing-press improved by William Blaeu, at Amsterdam, 1601. First printing in America, in New England, when the Freeman's Oath and an Almanac were printed, 1639. First Bible printed in Ireland was at Belfast, 1704. First types cast in England by Caslon, 1720. Stereotype printing suggested by William Ged, of Edinburgh, 1735. The present mode of stereotype invented by Mr. Tilloch, about 1779. By others the invention is ascribed to Francis Ambrose Didot, of Paris, about the

same year; and still others say that stereotype printing was in use in Holland, in the last century. The invention is also claimed for Cadwallader Colden, of New York, who sent the details of his plan in 1779 to Dr. Franklin, then in Paris. Franklin communicated the plan to Didot, the famous printer, and Herbau, a German, who had been an assistant to Didot, took it up in opposition to him.

In the oldest mode of printing, the writing is carved on wooden tables; they are then covered with ink, the paper is put upon them, and an impression is taken. This ancient method of printing, is still in use in China, Japan, and Thibet. The Chinese, even in the reign of the Emperor Wu-Wang, who lived about 1100 B.C., are said to have been well acquainted with this way of printing; but the Japanese assume the merit of the invention. In Thibet, also, according to the accounts of various travelers, this art has been exercised from time immemorial. Although it had been the custom, for thousands of years, to make impressions with seals on wax, which might have easily led to the invention of the art of printing, Guttenberg first made this discovery about three centuries and a half ago; for it may justly be questioned whether the Europeans had then any knowledge of the art of printing among the Chinese: although it is not to be denied, that before the time of Guttenberg, and even in 1423, the art of cutting images on wood with a few lines of text, was well known.

Caxton and Wynkyn de Worde were the earliest English printers. The titles of some of their books may not be uninteresting.

The Game and Playe of the Chesse. Translated out of the Frenche and emprinted by me William Caxton Fynysshid the last day of Marche the yer of our Lord God a thousand foure hondred and lxxiiij.

TULLY.

The Boke of Tulle of Olde age Emprinted by me simple persone William Caxton in to Englyshe as the playsir solace and reverence of men growyng in to old age the xij day of August the yere of our lord M.cccc.lxxj.

THE POLYCRONYCON.

The Polycronyeon conteynng the Berynges and Dedes of many Tynes in eyght Bokcs. Imprinted by William Caxton after having somewhat chaunged the rude and olde Englysshe, that is to wete [to wit] certayn Words which in these

Dayes be neither vsyd ne understanden. Ended the second day of Juyl at Westmestre the xxij yere of the Regne of Kyng Edward the fourth, and of the Incarnacion of oure Lord a Thousand four Hondred four Score and tweyne [1482].

THE CHRONICLES.

The Cronicles of Englonde Emprinted by me Wyllyam Caxton thabbe of Westmynstre by london the v day of Juyn the yere of thincarnacion of our lord god M.cccc.lxxx.

POLYCRONYCON.

Polycronyeon. Ended the thyrtyenth daye of Apryll the tenth yere of the reyne of kinge Harry the seventh And of the Incarnacyon of our lord mcccc.lxxxv Emprinted by Wynkyn Theworde at Westmestre.

HILL OF PERFECTION.

The Hylle of Perfection emprinted at the instance of the reverend relyggyous fader Tho. Prior of the hous of St. Ann, the order of the charterouse Accomplyshe[d] and fynyshe[d] att Westmynster the viii day of janeuer the yere of our lord Thousande cccc.lxxxvii. And in the xii yere of kyng Henry the vii by me wynkyn de worde.

ENGLAND.

The Descripceyon of Englonde Walys Scotland and Irland speaking of the Noblesse and Worthynesse of the same Fynysshed and enprinted in Flete stretre in the syne of the Sonne by me Wynkyn de Worde the yere of our lord a m.ccccc and ij. mensis Mayiis [mense Maii].

THE FESTIVAL.

The Festypvall or Sermons on sondays and holidais taken out of the golden legend enprinted at london in Fletestrete at ye syne of ye Sonne by wynkyn de worde. In the yere of our lord M.ccccc. viii. And ended the xi daye of Maye

THE LORD'S PRAYER.

[As printed by Caxton in 1483.]

Father our that art in heavens, hallowed be thy name: thy kingdome come to us; thy will be done in earth as is in heaven: oure every days bred give us to day; and forgive us oure trespasses, as wee forgive them that trespass against us; and lead us not in to temptation, but deliver us from all evil sin, amen.

Among the early printers, the only points used were the comma, parenthesis, interrogation, and full stop. To these succeeded the colon; afterward the semicolon; and last the note of admiration. The sentences were full of abbreviations and contractions; and there were no running titles, numbered leaves, or catch-words. Our punctuation appears to have been introduced with the art of printing.

PRIOR, MATTHEW, an English poet and statesman, born 1664, and died in 1721.

PRUSSIA consists of two great divisions, unconnected with one another. The western and smaller, comprising Westphalia and Rhenish Prussia, lies on both sides of the Rhine, between Belgium and Hanover; the main portion borders upon Russia. The entire kingdom has an area of 107,954 square miles, and a population of 17,203,000. The principal rivers are the Rhine, Elbe, Oder, Vistula, and Niemen. The situation of Prussia debars her from prominence in maritime commerce, but her transit and inland traffic is extensive. There is, properly speaking, no state religion in Prussia; that of the royal family, and of a majority of the people, is Calvinism, but men of all denominations are equally admissible to all public employments. In 1817, the three hundredth year of the Reformation, the Calvinists, Lutherans, and other Protestant sects in Prussia, and in some other parts of Germany, united themselves into one religious body, under the name of Evangelical Christians. The system of education maintained by the state is thorough, extending from primary schools to the great universities of Berlin, Bonn, Greifswald, Halle, Münster, and Königsberg. The attendance of children at school is enforced by law. All male subjects are bound to military service. The government was until recently an unlimited monarchy. Various struggles for greater freedom have succeeded in obtaining from the king a species of constitutional liberty based upon representation.

Berlin, the capital of the Prussian dominions, is situated in the province of Brandenburg, on the Spree. It is twelve miles in circuit, including six quarters, and four suburbs. In 1852 it contained 441,931 inhabitants. *Berlin Proper* was built in 1163, by the Margrave Albert the Bear. *Köln* or *Cologne*, on the Spree, was so called from the *kollnen* (piles), on which the Vandals had built their huts. *Friedrichswerder* was founded by the Elector Frederick William the Great. *New or Dorotheenstadt* was built by the same elector and named in honor of his wife. *Friedrichstadt*, founded in 1688 by the Elector Frederick III., is the most extensive and handsome division of this vast city. The number of its public establishments of various kinds, makes Berlin very interesting.

The university of Berlin, founded in 1809, when Prussia was groaning beneath the yoke of the French, is at present one of the first literary institutions of the continent. Berlin has thirty squares and market-places, sixteen gates (that of Brandenburg, modeled on the Propylæa at Athens, but larger, being the most beautiful), forty bridges, &c. On the top of the Mountain of the Cross, before the Halle gate, a monument of iron was erected in 1820 in commemoration of the wars against France. In the Dorotheenstadt is the celebrated street called Unter-den-Linden, 2,744 feet long, 174 broad, and shaded by two double lines of linden-trees. Berlin is one of the finest cities in Europe. Besides its numerous public edifices of elegance, it has many literary, scientific, and charitable institutions. Its manufactures and commerce are also important.

Dantzic (Danzig), on the Vistula near the Baltic, population 70,000, is one of the strongest fortresses and most flourishing towns in Prussia. It was founded in the tenth century, and formerly belonged to Poland. In 1709 it was ravaged by the plague, and in 1734 taken by the Russians and Saxons. May, 1807, the French captured it after a long siege. It was occupied by a French garrison until Napoleon's disastrous campaign in Russia, after which it was blockaded, and bravely defended by Gen. Rapp. It surrendered, however, and in 1814 reverted to Prussia.

Prussia was anciently inhabited by the Bo-russi, who denominated it Prussia, which has been corrupted to Prussia. They were conquered by the knights of the Teutonic order; whom Casimir IV. of Poland compelled to acknowledge themselves his vassals, and to allow Polish Prussia to continue under the protection of Poland. Albert, Margrave of Brandenburg and grand-master of the order, renounced his vows, embraced Protestantism, and had the dukedom of East Prussia given to him, by Sigismund I. of Poland, 1525. It was united with Brandenburg in 1594.

Frederick William, Elector of Brandenburg, surnamed the Great, was freed from paying any homage to the crown of Poland. His son Frederick raised the duchy of Prussia to a kingdom, 1701. His son, Frederick

William, was a wise and politic prince, who amassed a prodigious treasure, though he maintained an army of 60,000 men.

He was succeeded by his son, Frederick II., one of the first military, political, and literary characters that ever filled a throne, but very despotic in his administration. His reign was pregnant with striking historical events. In 1756, Russia, Austria, and France leagued against him, and he maintained against them the famous seven years' war.

He was succeeded by his nephew, Frederick William II., a weak and unwise prince.

Dying in 1797, he was succeeded by Frederick William III., who unhappily revived some obsolete pretensions to Hanover, in 1805. Napoleon proposing to restore that electorate to England, in 1806, Frederick took the field; but being totally defeated at Jena, his kingdom was conquered by Napoleon. Prussia, in conjunction with the other powers of Europe, twice assisted in deposing Napoleon, and recovered the conquered provinces.

The revolutionary wave of 1848 rolled through Prussia, but the king, by bowing to the popular will for a time, allayed the tumult.

As the result of the war with Austria in 1866, (see Austria p. 90,) Prussia, that on the 14th of June was the tail of the Pentarchy, had, on the 4th of July, by a sudden and brilliant stride, leaped to a commanding place among European nations. Her campaign was a swift and splendid success. This was achieved by the statesmanship of Count Bismarck, premier of William I., and by a soldiery gathered from the best educated peasantry and people of Europe.

ELECTORS AND DUKES.

- 1616. John Sigismund.
- 1619. George William.
- 1640. Frederick William, his son; generally styled the great elector.
- 1688. Frederick, his son; crowned king, Jan. 18th, 1701.

KINGS.

- 1701. Frederick I.
- 1713. Frederick William I., his son.
- 1740. Frederick the Great, his son.
- 1786. Frederick William II., nephew of the great Frederick.
- 1797. Frederick William III.
- 1840. Frederick William IV., his son
- 1861. William I., his brother.

PRYNNE, WILLIAM, an eminent Puritan lawyer and writer in the reign of Charles I., born in 1600; tried by the star chamber, 1633; stood in the pillory, and was heavily fined, May, 1634; again, 1637; took his seat in the long parliament, Nov. 28th, 1640; died Oct. 24th, 1669. The first time that he stood in the pillory, his ears were cropped, his nose slit, his forehead branded, and then he was thrown into prison: the second time, the stumps of his ears were hacked off, and both cheeks branded: all for opposing the ecclesiastical tyranny of Laud.

PTOLEMY I., surnamed Soter, was the natural son of Philip of Macedon by Arsinoe. When Alexander invaded Asia, the son of Arsinoe attended him as one of his generals. During the expedition, he behaved with uncommon valor, and killed one of the Indian monarchs in single combat. After the conqueror's death, in the general division of the Macedonian empire, Ptolemy obtained, as his share, the government of Egypt, with Libya and part of the neighboring territories of Arabia. He made himself master of Coelosyria, Phoenicia, and the neighboring coast of Syria; and when he had reduced Jerusalem, he carried about 100,000 prisoners to Egypt, to people the extensive city of Alexandria, which became the capital of his dominions. He made war with success against Demetrius and Antigonos, who disputed his right to the provinces of Syria. The bay of Alexandria being dangerous of access, he built a tower to conduct the sailors in the obscurity of the night; and that his subjects might be acquainted with literature, he laid the foundation of a library, which, under the succeeding reigns, became the most celebrated in the world. He also established in the capital of his dominions, a society called *Museum*, of which the members, maintained at the public expense, were employed in philosophical researches, and in the advancement of science and the liberal arts. Ptolemy died in the eighty-fourth year of his age, after a reign of thirty-nine years, about B.C. 284.

PTOLEMY II., the second son of Ptolemy I., succeeded his father on the Egyptian throne, and was called Philadelphus by antiphrasis, because he killed two of his

brothers. While he strengthened himself by alliances with foreign powers, the internal peace of his kingdom was disturbed by the revolt of Magas, his brother, king of Cyrene. The sedition, however, was stopped, though kindled by Antiochus, king of Syria; and the death of the rebellious prince re-established peace for some time in the family of Philadelphus. Philadelphus died in the sixty-fourth year of his age, B.C. 246. During the whole of his reign, Philadelphus was employed in exciting industry, and in encouraging the liberal arts and useful knowledge among his subjects. The inhabitants of the adjacent countries were allured by promises and presents, to increase the number of the Egyptian subjects; and Ptolemy could boast of reigning over 33,339 well-peopled cities. He gave every possible encouragement to commerce; and by keeping two powerful fleets, one in the Mediterranean, and the other in the Red Sea, he made Egypt the mart of the world. His army consisted of 200,000 foot, and 40,000 horse, besides 300 elephants, and 2,000 armed chariots. His palace was the asylum of learned men, whom he admired and patronized. He increased the library which his father had founded, and showed his taste for learning and his wish to encourage genius. This celebrated library, at his death, contained 200,000 volumes of the best and choicest books; and it was afterward increased to 700,000. Part of it was burnt by the flames of Cæsar's fleet, when he set it on fire to save himself; a circumstance, however, not mentioned by the general; the remainder was again magnificently repaired by Cleopatra, who added to the Egyptian library that of the kings of Pergamus. It is said that the Old Testament was translated into Greek during this reign; a translation which has been called the Septuagint, because translated by the labors of seventy different persons.

PTOLEMY III., surnamed Euergetes, succeeded his father Philadelphus on the Egyptian throne. He early engaged in a war against Antiochus Theus, for his unkindness to Berenice, the Egyptian king's sister, whom he had married with the consent of Philadelphus. With the most rapid success he conquered Syria and Cilicia, and advanced as far as the Tigris; but a sedition at home stopped

his progress, and he returned to Egypt loaded with the spoils of conquered nations. The last years of Ptolemy's reign were passed in peace, if we except the refusal of the Jews to pay the tribute of twenty silver talents, which their ancestors had always paid to the Egyptian monarchs. Euergetes (as he was called by the Egyptians) died B.C. 221, after a reign of twenty-five years. Like his two illustrious predecessors, he was the patron of learning, and, indeed, he is the last of the Lagides who gained popularity among his subjects by clemency, moderation, and humanity, and who commanded respect even from his enemies, by valor, prudence, and reputation.

PTOLEMY IV. succeeded his father Euergetes, and received the surname of Philopator by antiphrasis; because, according to some historians, he destroyed his father by poison. He began his reign with acts of the greatest cruelty and debauchery. In the midst of his pleasures, Philopator was called to war against Antiochus, king of Syria; at the head of a powerful army, he soon invaded his enemy's territories, and might have added the kingdom of Syria to Egypt, if he had made a prudent use of the victories which attended his arms. In the latter part of his reign, the Romans, whom a dangerous war with Carthage had weakened, but at the same time roused to superior activity, renewed, for political reasons, the treaty of alliance which had been made with the Egyptian monarchs. Philopator at last, weakened and enervated by intemperance and continual debauchery, died in the thirty-seventh year of his age, after a reign of seventeen years, B.C. 204.

PTOLEMY V. was the son of Philopator, whom he succeeded as king of Egypt, though only in the fourth year of his age. The Romans renewed their alliance with him after their victories over Hannibal, and the conclusion of the second Punic war. When Ptolemy had reached his fourteenth year, according to the laws and customs of Egypt, the years of his minority expired. He received the surname of Epiphanes, or Illustrious, and was crowned at Alexandria, with the greatest solemnity. Young Ptolemy was no sooner delivered from the shackles of his guardian, than he betrayed the same vices which had characterized his father. His cruelties raised seditions among his subjects; but these were

twice quelled by the prudence and the moderation of Polycrates, the most faithful of his corrupt ministers. In the midst of his extravagance, Epiphanes did not forget his alliance with the Romans; above all others, he showed himself eager to cultivate friendship with a nation from whom he could derive so many advantages; and during their war against Antiochus, he offered to assist them with money against a monarch whose daughter Cleopatra he had married, but whom he hated on account of the seditions he raised in the very heart of Egypt. After a reign of twenty-four years, B.C. 180, Ptolemy was poisoned by his ministers, whom he had threatened to rob of their possessions, to carry on a war against Seleucus, king of Syria.

PTOLEMY VI., the son of Epiphanes, received the surname of Philometor, on account of his hatred against his mother Cleopatra. He made war against Antiochus Epiphanes, king of Syria, to recover the provinces of Palestine and Cœlosyria, and after several successes, he fell into the hands of his enemy, who detained him in confinement. During the captivity of Philometor, the Egyptians raised to the throne his younger brother, Ptolemy Physcon; but he was no sooner established in his power, than Antiochus turned his arms against Egypt, drove out the usurper, and restored Philometor to all his rights and privileges as king of Egypt. This artful behavior of Antiochus was soon comprehended by Philometor; and when he saw that Pelusium, the key of Egypt, had remained in the hands of his Syrian ally, he recalled his brother Physcon, made him partner on the throne, and concerted with him how to repel their common enemy. This union of interest in the two royal brothers incensed Antiochus; he entered Egypt with a large army, but the Romans checked his progress, and obliged him to retire. No sooner were they delivered from the impending war, than Philometor and Physcon, whom the fear of danger had united, began with mutual jealousy to oppose each other's views. Physcon was at last banished by the superior power of his brother; and as he could find no support in Egypt, he immediately repaired to Rome. To excite more effectually the compassion of the Romans, and to gain their assistance, he appeared in the meanest dress, and took his residence in the

most obscure corner of the city. He received an audience from the senate; and the Romans settled the dispute between the two royal brothers, by making them independent of one another, and giving the government of Libya and Cyrene to Physcon, and confirming Philometor in the possession of Egypt and the island of Cyprus. The death of Philometor, B.C. 145, left Physcon master of Egypt and all the dependent provinces.

PTOLEMY VII., surnamed Physcon, ascended the throne of Egypt after the death of his brother Philometor; and as he had reigned for some time conjointly with him, his succession was approved, though Cleopatra, the wife, and Ptolemy Eupator, the young son, of the deceased monarch, laid claim to the crown. Physcon wedded the one and slew the other; Cleopatra was also the sister of Philometor and Physcon. He ordered himself to be called *Euergetes*, but the Alexandrians refused to do it, and stigmatized him with the appellation of *Kakergetes*, or evil-doer, a surname which he deserved by his tyranny and oppression. A series of barbarities rendered him odious; but as no one attempted to rid Egypt of her tyranny, the Alexandrians abandoned their habitations, and fled from a place which continually streamed with the blood of their massacred fellow-citizens. Physcon endeavored to repopulate the city which his cruelty had laid desolate; but the fear of sharing the fate of the former inhabitants, prevailed more than the promise of riches, rights, and immunities. He died at Alexandria in the sixty-seventh year of his age, after a reign of twenty-nine years, about B.C. 116.

PTOLEMY VIII., surnamed Lathyrus, from an excrescence, like a pea, on the nose, succeeded his father Physcon as king of Egypt. He had no sooner ascended the throne, than his mother Cleopatra, who reigned conjointly with him, expelled him, and placed the crown on the head of his brother, Ptolemy Alexander, her favorite son. Lathyrus, after he had exercised the greatest cruelty upon the Jews, by his conquest of Judea, and made vain attempts to recover the kingdom of Egypt, retired to Cyprus till the death of his brother Alexander restored him to his native dominions. In the latter part of his reign, Lathyrus was called upon to assist the Romans with a navy for the conquest of Athens; but Lucul-

lus, who had been sent to obtain the wanted supply, though received with kingly honors, was dismissed with evasive and unsatisfactory answers, and the monarch refused to part with troops which he deemed necessary to preserve the peace of his kingdom. Lathyrus died B.C. 81, after a reign of thirty-six years since the death of his father Physcon; eleven of which he had passed with his mother Cleopatra on the Egyptian throne, eighteen in Cyprus, and seven after his mother's death. He left the crown to his daughter Berenice, called also Cleopatra.

PTOLEMY IX., who was surnamed Alexander, usurped the kingdom a short time during the reign of his brother Lathyrus, and was dethroned, after murdering his mother Cleopatra, B.C. 88.

PTOLEMY X., son of the preceding and also surnamed Alexander, succeeded Ptolemy VIII. under the protection of the Romans in the time of Sylla. He wedded his cousin Berenice Cleopatra, and had her assassinated, for which he was himself massacred, after a reign of nineteen days.

PTOLEMY XI. After the above tragedy the only scion of the race of Ptolemy was an illegitimate son of Lathyrus. He was not acknowledged king till B.C. 59. He received the surname of Auletes, because he played skillfully on the flute. His rise showed great marks of prudence and circumspection; and as his predecessor, by his will, had left the kingdom of Egypt to the Romans, Auletes knew that he could not be firmly established on his throne, without the approbation of the Roman senate. When he had suffered the Romans quietly to take possession of Cyprus, the Egyptians revolted, and Auletes was obliged to fly from his kingdom, and seek protection among the most powerful of his allies. The senators of Rome decreed to re-establish Auletes on his throne. He was no sooner restored to power, than he sacrificed to his ambition his daughter Berenice, and behaved with the greatest ingratitude and perfidy to Rabirius, a Roman who had supplied him with money when expelled from his kingdom. Auletes died four years after his restoration, about B.C. 51.

PTOLEMY XII., surnamed Dionysius, or Bacchus, ascended the throne of Egypt conjointly with his sister Cleopatra, whom he

had married, according to the directions of his father. He was in the thirteenth year of his age, when Pompey, who had aided his father Auletes to the throne, came to the shores of Egypt, after the fatal battle of Pharsalia, and claimed his protection. He refused to grant the required assistance; and by the advice of his ministers, he basely murdered Pompey, after he had brought him to shore under the mask of friendship and cordiality. To obtain the favor of the conqueror of Pharsalia, Ptolemy cut off the head of Pompey; but Caesar turned with indignation from such perfidy, and when he arrived at Alexandria, he found the Egyptian king as faithless to his cause as to that of his fallen enemy. Caesar sat as judge to hear the various claims of the brother and sister to the throne; to satisfy the people, he ordered the will of Auletes to be read, and confirmed Ptolemy and Cleopatra in the possession of Egypt, and appointed the two younger children masters of the island of Cyprus. This fair and candid decision might have left no room for dissatisfaction; but Ptolemy refused to acknowledge Caesar as a judge or a mediator. The Roman enforced his authority by arms, and three victories were obtained over the Egyptian forces. Ptolemy, who had been for some time a prisoner in the hands of Caesar, now headed his armies; but a defeat was fatal, and as he attempted to save his life by flight, he was drowned in the Nile, about B.C. 46, and three years and eight months after the death of Auletes. [See CLEOPATRA.]

PUFFENDORF, SAMUEL, a celebrated civilian, a native of Saxony, was for a time in the diplomatic service of Sweden. He died at Berlin in 1674, aged sixty-three.

PULASKI, Count CASIMIR, a noble-minded Pole, who having been banished from his native land, entered the service of the United States, was made a brigadier, and was mortally wounded in the attack on Savannah, Oct. 9th, 1779.

Pulaski was as chivalrous as a baron of romance. He landed upon our shores an exile, and threw the energies of his character into our cause—the cause of freedom and man. He preferred the wilds of America to the refinements of European courts, to most of which he would have been welcome. With the enthusiasm of a crusader, he drew his

sword in our cause. Military glory and love of freedom were the strong passions of his soul. His ancestors were soldiers; and many of them fell, foremost in the fight, while the glow of early manhood was upon them, and slept in the bed of honor. He felt and declared, that to be alive with a head white with the snows of age, was a stain on his family name; and he feared, in the wild and romantic valor of his soul, that a winding-sheet unstained with blood would be disgraceful to him. If Pulaski saw not the close of the contest, he died as he wished, in the fury of the fight, and rests in his grave in a warrior's shroud. No solemn dirge, no peaceful requiem, soothed the hero's shade; the hasty funeral rites of the battle-field were his. Such honors only were suited to the genius of the dead.

PULTOWA, a fortified town of Russia, 450 miles south-west of Moscow, with 16,000 inhabitants, before which Peter the Great defeated Charles XII. of Sweden, July 8th, 1709. Charles, who had been wounded in a former engagement, was much indisposed. The litter in which he caused himself to be carried was twice overturned, and the second time broken by the enemy's cannon. After an obstinate and bloody engagement, the Swedish army was entirely routed and dispersed; 9,000 of the vanquished were left dead on the field of battle, and a great number surrendered themselves prisoners of war. Charles, with 300 of his guards, escaped with difficulty to Bender, a Turkish town in Moldavia.

PULTENEY, WILLIAM, Earl of Bath, was born of an ancient family, in 1682. After traveling through Europe, he was elected into parliament, and became distinguished as a zealous whig. On the accession of George I. he was appointed a privy-councilor and secretary at war, being then the friend of Sir Robert Walpole; but afterward a difference arose between them, and Pulteney became the leader of opposition. He also joined Bolingbroke in conducting a paper called *The Craftsman*, the object of which was to annoy the minister. This produced a duel between Pulteney and Lord Hervey; and the king was so much displeased with the conduct of the former, that he struck his name out of the list of privy-councilors, and also from the commission of the peace. On the resignation of Walpole, in 1741, Pulteney was created Earl of Bath; but

from that time his popularity ceased. He died June 8th, 1764.

PUNIC WARS. The first Punic war was undertaken by the Romans against Carthage, B.C. 264. Sicily, an island of the highest consequence to the Carthaginians as a commercial nation, was the seat of the first dissensions. The Mamertini, a body of Italian mercenaries, were appointed by the king of Syracuse to guard the town of Messana; but this tumultuous tribe, instead of protecting the citizens, basely massacred them, and seized their possessions. This act of cruelty raised the indignation of all the Sicilians against the Mamertini; Hiero, king of Syracuse, who had employed them, prepared to punish their perfidy; and the Mamertini, besieged in Messana, without friends or resources, resolved to throw themselves for protection into the hands of the first power that could relieve them. They were, however, divided in their sentiments; while some implored the assistance of Carthage, others called upon the Romans for protection. Without hesitation or delay, the Carthaginians entered Messana, and the Romans also hastened to give to the Mamertini that aid which had been claimed from them with as much eagerness as from the Carthaginians. At the approach of the Roman troops, the Mamertini, who had implored their assistance, took up arms, and forced the Carthaginians to evacuate Messana.

From a private quarrel the war became general. The Romans obtained a victory in Sicily, but as their enemies were masters at sea, the advantages which they gained were small and inconsiderable. Duilius at last obtained a naval victory, and he was the first Roman who ever received a triumph after a battle by sea. The losses which they sustained induced the Carthaginians to sue for peace; the Romans, whom an unsuccessful descent upon Africa, under Regulus, and other defeats, had rendered diffident, listened to the proposal, and the first Punic war was concluded B.C. 241, on the following terms. The Carthaginians pledged themselves to pay to the Romans, within ten years, the sum of 3,200 Euboic talents; they promised to release all the Roman captives without ransom, to evacuate Sicily, and the other islands of the Mediterranean, and not to molest Hiero, king of Syracuse, or his allies.

PUN

The Romans, to stop the progress of the Carthaginians toward Italy, made stipulations with them by which they were not permitted to cross the Iberus, or to molest the cities of their allies the Saguntines. When Hannibal succeeded to the command of the Carthaginian armies in Spain, he spurned the boundaries which the jealousy of Rome had set to his arms, and immediately formed the siege of Saguntum. The Romans were apprised of the hostilities which had been begun against their allies, but Saguntum was in the hands of the active enemy before they had taken any steps to oppose him.

Without delay, B.C. 218, Hannibal marched an army of 90,000 foot and 12,000 horse, toward Italy, resolved to carry on the war to the gates of Rome. The battles of Trebia, of Ticinus, and of the lake of Thrasymenus, threw Rome into the greatest apprehensions, but the prudence and dilatory measures of the dictator Fabius soon taught them to hope for better times. Yet the conduct of Fabius was universally censured as cowardice, and the two consuls who succeeded him in the command, pursuing a different plan of operations, brought on a decisive action at Cannæ, B.C. 216, in which 45,000 Romans were left on the field of battle. This bloody victory caused so much consternation at Rome, that some authors have declared that if Hannibal had immediately marched from the plains of Cannæ to the city, he would have met with no resistance, but could have terminated a long and dangerous war with glory to himself, and the most inestimable advantages to his country. The news of this victory was carried to Carthage by Mago, and the Carthaginians refused to believe it, till three bushels of golden rings were spread before them, which had been taken from the Roman knights in the field of battle.

Affairs now took a different turn, and Marcellus, who had the command of the Roman legions in Italy, taught his countrymen that Hannibal was not invincible in the field. In different parts of the world the Romans were making very rapid conquests. Hannibal no longer appeared formidable in Italy; if he conquered towns in Campania or Magna Græcia, he remained master of them only while his army hovered in the neighborhood; and if he marched toward Rome, the alarm

he occasioned was but momentary; the Romans were prepared to oppose him, and his retreat was therefore the more dishonorable. The conquests of young Scipio in Spain raised the expectations of the Romans, and he had no sooner returned to Rome than he proposed to remove Hannibal from the capital of Italy by carrying the war to the gates of Carthage. This was a bold and hazardous enterprise, but though Fabius opposed it, it was universally approved by the Roman senate, and young Scipio was empowered to sail to Africa.

The conquests of the young Roman were as rapid in Africa as they had been in Spain, and the Carthaginians, apprehensive for the fate of their capital, recalled Hannibal from Italy. Hannibal received their orders with indignation, and with tears in his eyes he left Italy, where for sixteen years he had known no superior in the field of battle. At his arrival in Africa, the Carthaginian general soon collected a large army, and met his exulting adversary in the plains of Zama. The battle was long and bloody; one nation fought for glory, and the other for the dearer sake of liberty; the Romans obtained the victory, and Hannibal, who had sworn to the gods eternal hatred of Rome, fled from Carthage, after he had advised his countrymen to accept the terms of the conqueror. This battle of Zama was decisive; the Carthaginians sued for peace, which the haughty conquerors granted with difficulty, 201 B.C.

During the fifty years which followed the conclusion of the second Punic war, the Carthaginians were employed in repairing their losses by unwearied application and industry; but they found still in the Romans a jealous rival and a haughty conqueror, and in Masinissa, the Numidian ally of Rome, an intriguing and ambitious monarch. The king of Numidia made himself master of one of their provinces; but as they were unable to make war without the consent of Rome, the Carthaginians sought relief by embassies, and made continual complaints in the Roman senate of the tyranny and oppression of Masinissa. Commissioners were appointed to examine the cause of their complaints; but as Masinissa was the ally of Rome, the interest of the Carthaginians was neglected, and whatever seemed to depress their republic was agreeable to the Romans. Cato, who

was in the number of the commissioners, examined the capital of Africa with a jealous eye; he saw it with concern, rising as it were from its ruins; and when he returned to Rome, he declared in full senate, that the peace of Italy would never be established while Carthage was in being. Henceforth he concluded all his speeches in the senate with these words, "I also think that Carthage should be destroyed." Most of the senators agreed with him, and waited only for a pretext to make war. A few were for moderate measures.

But while the senate were debating about the existence of Carthage, and while they considered it a dependent power, and not as an ally, the wrongs of Africa were without redress, and Masinissa continued his depredations. Upon this the Carthaginians resolved to do their cause that justice which the Romans had denied them; they entered the field against the Numidians, but they were defeated in a bloody battle by Masinissa, who was then ninety years old. In this bold measure they had broken the peace; and as their late defeat had rendered them desperate, they hastened with all possible speed to the capital of Italy to justify their proceedings, and to implore the forgiveness of the Roman senate. The news of Masinissa's victory had already reached Italy, and immediately forces were sent to Sicily, and thence ordered to pass into Africa. The ambassadors of Carthage received evasive and unsatisfactory answers from the senate: and when they saw the Romans landed at Utica, they resolved to purchase peace by the most submissive terms which even the most abject slaves could offer.

The Romans acted with the deepest policy: no declaration of war had been made, though hostilities appeared inevitable; and in answer to the submissive offers of Carthage the consuls replied, that to prevent every cause of quarrel, the Carthaginians must deliver into their hands three hundred hostages, all children of senators, and of the most noble and respectable families. The demand was great and alarming; yet it was no sooner granted, than the Romans made another demand, and the Carthaginians were told that peace could not continue, if they refused to deliver up all their ships, their arms, engines of war, with

all their naval and military stores. The Carthaginians complied; 40,000 suits of armor, 20,000 large engines of war, with a plentiful store of ammunition and missile weapons, were surrendered. After this duplicity had succeeded, the Romans laid open the final resolutions of the senate, and the Carthaginians were then told, that, to avoid hostilities, they must leave their ancient habitations, retire into the inland parts of Africa, and found another city, at the distance of not less than ten miles from the sea. This was heard with horror and indignation; the Romans were fixed and inexorable, and Carthage was filled with tears and lamentations.

But the spirit of liberty and independence was not yet extinguished in the capital of Africa, and the Carthaginians determined to sacrifice their lives for the protection of their gods, the tombs of their forefathers, and the place which had given them birth. Before the Roman army approached the city, preparations to support a siege were made, and the ramparts of Carthage were covered with stones, to compensate for the weapons and instruments of war which they had ignorantly betrayed to the duplicity of their enemies. The town was blocked up by the Romans, and a regular siege begun. Two years were spent in useless operations, and Carthage seemed still able to rise from its ruins, to dispute for the empire of the world; when Scipio, the descendant of the great Scipio who finished the second Punic war, was sent to conduct the siege. Despair and famine now raged in the city, and Scipio gained access to the city walls where the battlements were low and unguarded. His entrance into the streets was disputed with uncommon fury; the houses, as he advanced, were set on fire, to stop his progress; but when a body of 50,000 persons, of either sex, had claimed quarter, the rest of the inhabitants were disheartened, and such as disdained to be prisoners of war, perished in the flames, which gradually destroyed their habitations, 146 B.C., after a continuation of hostilities for three years. During seventeen days Carthage was in flames; the soldiers were permitted to redeem from the fire whatever plunder they could. The news of this victory caused the greatest rejoicings at Rome; and immediately commissioners were ap-

pointed by the Roman senate, not only to raze the walls of Carthage, but even to demolish and burn the very materials with which they were made. In a few days, that city which had been once the seat of commerce, the model of magnificence, the common store of the wealth of nations, and one of the most powerful states of the world, left behind no traces of its splendor, of its power, or even of its existence. [See CARTHAGE.]

PURCELL, HENRY, an eminent English musician, was born in Westminster, 1658. He died Nov. 21st, 1695. His epitaph in Westminster Abbey (written by Dryden) tells that "Here lies Henry Purcell, Esq., who left this life, and is gone to that blessed place where only his own harmony can be exceeded."

PUTNAM, ISRAEL, a distinguished American officer, who served both in the French and English wars, was born at Salem, Mass., Jan. 7th, 1718. In 1739 he settled at Pomfret, Conn., where he had purchased a tract of land. Here he descended into a dark cavern, and killed a wolf which had committed great depredations upon the flocks of the farmers. He entered on his first campaign in the war of 1755, being then appointed to command a company, and he received a major's commission in 1757. His services prior to the breaking out of the Revolutionary war were various and valuable. The news of the battle of Lexington found Putnam at the plough. He unyoked his oxen, and set off at once for the scene of action. Having levied a regiment, he was appointed major-general, and, on the retreat of the Americans from Bunker Hill, in which he commanded, he checked the pursuing forces. He was indefatigable and ardent in the discharge of his duty, and his value was properly appreciated, as we see from the important duties which were intrusted to him.

After the battle of Monmouth, he was posted at Reading, Conn., with orders to protect the sound and the garrison at West Point. On a visit to one of his outposts, attended by only 150 men, he was closely pursued by Gov. Tryon, at the head of 1,200 royal troops, and escaped by plunging on horseback down a precipice so steep that foot-passengers descended only by an artificial stairway. Putnam commanded the Maryland

line, stationed near West Point, in the campaign of 1779. This ended his military career. A paralytic affection seized upon his right side, but did not impair his cheerfulness and spirit. He died at Brooklyn, Conn., May 29th, 1790, aged seventy-two years.

PYRRHUS, a king of Epirus, was saved when an infant, by the fidelity of his servants, from the pursuit of the enemies of his father, who had been banished from his kingdom. He was carried to the court of Glautias, king of Illyricum, who educated him with great tenderness. Cassander, king of Macedonia, wished to dispatch him, as he had so much to dread from him. Glautias not only refused to deliver him into the hands of his enemy, but he even went with an army and placed him on the throne of Epirus, though only twelve years of age.

About five years after, the absence of Pyrrhus to attend the nuptials of one of the daughters of Glautias, raised new commotions. The monarch was expelled from his throne by his great-uncle, Neoptolemus, who had usurped it after the death of Æacides; and being still without resources, he applied to his brother-in-law Demetrius for assistance. He accompanied Demetrius at the battle of Ipsus, and afterward passed into Egypt, where, by his marriage with Antigone, the daughter of Berenice, he soon obtained a sufficient force to attempt the recovery of his throne. He was successful in the undertaking, but to remove all causes of quarrel, he took the usurper to share with him the royalty, and some time after he put him to death under pretense that he had attempted to poison him.

In the subsequent years of his reign, Pyrrhus engaged in the quarrels which disturbed the peace of the Macedonian monarchy. He marched against Demetrius. By dissimulation he ingratiated himself into the minds of his enemy's subjects, and when Demetrius labored under a momentary illness, Pyrrhus made an attempt upon the crown of Macedonia, which, if not then successful, soon after rendered him master of the kingdom. This he shared with Lysimachus for seven months, till the jealousy of the Macedonians, and the ambition of his colleague, obliged him to retire. Pyrrhus was meditating new con-

quests, when the Tarentines invited him to Italy to assist them against the encroaching power of Rome. He gladly accepted the invitation, but his passage across the Adriatic proved nearly fatal, and he reached the shores of Italy after the loss of the greatest part of his troops in a storm.

At his entrance into Tarentum, B.C. 280, he began to reform the manners of the inhabitants, and by introducing the strictest discipline among their troops, to accustom them to bear fatigue and to despise dangers. In the first battle which he fought with the Romans, he obtained the victory, but for this he was more particularly indebted to his elephants, whose bulk and uncommon appearance astonished the Romans and terrified their cavalry. The number of the slain was equal on both sides, and the conqueror said that such another victory would totally ruin him. He also sent Cineas, his chief minister, to Rome, and though victorious, he sued for peace. These offers of peace were refused.

A second battle was fought near Asculum, but the slaughter was so great, and the valor so conspicuous on both sides, that each claimed the victory as their own. Pyrrhus still continued the war in favor of the Tarentines, when he was invited into Sicily by the inhabitants, who labored under the yoke of Carthage and the cruelty of their own petty tyrants. His fondness for novelty soon determined him to quit Italy; he left a garrison at Tarentum, and crossed over to Sicily, where he obtained two victories over the Carthaginians, and took many of their towns. He was a while successful, and formed the project of invading Africa; but soon his popularity vanished.

He had no sooner returned to Tarentum than

he renewed hostilities with the Romans with great acrimony, but when his army of 80,000 men had been defeated by 20,000 of the enemy, under Curius, he left Italy with precipitation, B.C. 274, ashamed of the enterprise.

In Epirus he attacked Antigonus, who was then on the Macedonian throne. He gained some advantages over his enemy, and was at last restored to the throne of Macedonia. He afterward marched against Sparta, at the request of Cleonymus, but when all his vigorous operations were insufficient to take the capital of Laconia, he retired to Argos, where the treachery of Aristeus invited him. The Argives desired him to retire and not to interfere in the affairs of their republic, which were confounded by the ambition of two of their nobles. He complied with their wishes, but in the night he marched his forces into the town, and might have made himself master of the place had he not retarded his progress by entering it with his elephants. The combat that ensued was obstinate and bloody, and the monarch, to fight with more boldness, and to encounter dangers with more facility, exchanged his dress. He was attacked by one of the enemy, and as he was going to run him through in his own defense, the mother of the Argive, who saw her son's danger from the top of the house, threw down a tile, and brought Pyrrhus to the ground. His head was cut off, and carried to Antigonus, who gave his remains a magnificent funeral, and presented his ashes to his son Helenus, B.C. 272. Pyrrhus was about forty-six years old when he was slain.

PYTHAGORAS, one of the most illustrious philosophers of ancient Greece, died A.C. 497, at the age of eighty-nine. He held the doctrine of metempsychosis.

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QUARLES, FRANCIS, the author of "The Divine Emblems" and other poems, was born in 1592. He espoused the cause of Charles I., and was sorely harassed by the opposite party, who injured his property and plundered him of his books and rare manuscripts, which afflictions brought him to ill health, and that to the next and last stage, the grave, in 1644.

QUATRE-BRAS, BATTLE OF, June 16th, 1815, between the allied army under the Duke of Brunswick, the Prince of Orange, and Sir Thomas Picton, and the French under Marshal Ney, two days before the great contest of Waterloo. The Duke of Brunswick was mortally wounded.

QUEENSTOWN, BATTLE OF, between the Americans and British, in Canada, Oct. 13th, 1812. The former were victorious.

QUEVEDO, FRANCISCO, an eminent Spanish author, born in 1570, died in 1645.

QUIN, JAMES, a famous English comedian, born in 1693, died in 1766.

QUINCEY, EDMUND, a judge of the supreme court of Massachusetts, and agent for

the colony at the court of St. James; died in London, October, 1738, aged fifty-seven.

QUINCY, JOSIAN, was born in Boston, Feb. 23d, 1744, and graduated at Harvard College in 1763, after which he studied law, and raised himself to eminence in his profession. Together with John Adams, Mr. Quincy defended the soldiers who fired upon the Bostonians on the 5th of March, and procured the acquittal of all but two, who were punished by a slight branding. In May, 1774, he published his "Observations on the Act of Parliament commonly called the Boston Port Bill, with Thoughts on Civil Society and Standing Armies," a work of great power. In September, 1774, Mr. Quincy sailed for London, in the hopes of benefiting his country by his patriotic exertions in England. His services were indeed valuable; but his application completed the prostration of his bodily powers, which had been previously sapped by long and hopeless disease. He died just at the close of his voyage home, April 20th, 1775.

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RAAB, a town of Hungary, where the Austrians, commanded by the Archduke John, were defeated by the French under Eugene Beauharnais, viceroy of Italy, June 14th, 1809.

RABELAIS, FRANCIS, the great French humorist, was born of poor parentage, at Chinon in Touraine, about 1483. He led a varied life in youth, settled at last into a parish priest at Mudon near Paris, and continued such till his death in 1553, despite the gibes and jeers at church, and state, and all else, in his "Inestimable Life of the Great Gargantua, Father of Pantagruel, a book full of Pantagruelism."

RACHEL. ELIZABETH RACHEL FELIX, the greatest actress of modern times, was of

humble origin. Her father was a hawker of the Hebrew persuasion, and she was born on the 24th of March, 1820, at the Swiss village of Munf, while her parents were engaged on a professional tour. The family afterward settled for some time at Lyons, where the eldest child, Sarah, pursued the vocation of a vocalist at the various cafes, while Rachel (the future actress) collected money from the admiring connoisseurs. In 1830 Paris became the residence of the Felix family, and little Rachel, rising from her merely financial department, joined with her sister as a singer at the cafes on the Boulevards. While thus employed, it seems she attracted the attention of M. Choron, founder of the royal institution for the study of

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sacred music, who at once took charge of her fortunes. He soon discovered that she was more suited for the dramatic than the musical profession, and he placed her under the tuition of M. St. Aulaire. In 1836 she was admitted as a pupil at the Conservatoire.

Her first appearance in public as an actress was in April, 1837, at the Gymnase, without making any particular sensation. It is from her performance of *Camille* at the Theatre Français, on the 24th of June, 1838, that her European reputation is to be dated, and to the end this character ever remained the most celebrated in her repertoire. In 1850 she made her first appearance in London. In 1855 she came upon a professional visit to the United States. The fatal malady of which she died was contracted at Boston in the autumn of that year. It was greatly aggravated at Philadelphia, where she played a single night in a cold theatre, the performance being followed by a violent pneumonic attack. Her last appearance on the stage was at Charleston, S. C., where she played *Adrienne le Coureur*. She died at Cannes, France, Jan. 5th, 1858. Her disease was at first an affection of the throat, to which there came to be appended a complication of disorders.

RACINE, JEAN, one of the greatest of the tragic dramatists of France, was the son of a tax-collector in Picardy, and born in 1639. He died in 1699.

RADCLIFFE, JOHN, an English physician of uncommon eminence, born in 1650, and died in 1714. He was the founder of the Radcliffe Library at Oxford.

RADETZKY, Marshal, a distinguished Austrian general, was born in Bohemia in 1766. He began his military career as a cadet in a cavalry regiment, Aug. 1st, 1781. He tendered his resignation as field-marshal in 1857. In the seventy-six years between, he had borne a conspicuous part on most of the fields where Austrian troops had been called to battle. He died Jan. 5th, 1858.

RAGLAN. Lord FITZROY SOMERSET, born in 1788, was a cadet of the ducal house of Beaufort. He was the military secretary of the Duke of Wellington (whose niece he married) through the peninsular campaign, and lost his right arm at Waterloo. In 1852 he was created Baron Raglan.

The command of the British troops dispatched to Turkey was given to Lord Raglan. He died in the camp before Sebastopol, June 28th, 1855.

RAIKES, ROBERT, was born in 1736. In 1781 he planned the institution of Sunday schools. He died at Gloucester, England, his native place, in 1811. Mr. Raikes was proprietor of the *Gloucester Journal*, a paper of extensive circulation.

RALEIGH or RALEGH, WALTER, one of the most distinguished men in the brilliant constellation that adorned the reigns of Elizabeth and James, was born of ancient lineage in Devonshire in 1552. He was educated at Oxford and the Temple, and in early youth evinced great acuteness of intellect and a disposition for adventure. He became a soldier at seventeen, and fought for the Protestant cause in France, as a volunteer under Coligni and Condé. Subsequently he served a short time in the Netherlands under the Prince of Orange. In 1579 he accompanied his half-brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, in a voyage to America. The design was to plant a colony in Newfoundland, but the expedition was driven back by a superior Spanish force. On his return, he served in Ireland against the revolt headed by the Earl of Desmond.

In 1582 he appeared at Elizabeth's court, speedily became a favorite with his sovereign, was knighted at her hand, and rewarded by her with wealth and honors. The well known anecdote illustrates his gallantry and tact as a courtier. One day, when he was attending the queen on a walk, she came to a miry spot in the way, and for a moment hesitated to proceed. Raleigh instantly pulled off his rich plush cloak, and, by spreading it at her feet, enabled her to pass on unsoiled. This mark of attention delighted the queen, from whom, it was afterward facetiously remarked, his soiled cloak was the means of procuring him many a *good suit*.

In 1584 he obtained letters patent for colonizing America, and two expeditions, each unsuccessful, were dispatched to Virginia, which then received its name in honor of the virgin queen. The last expedition is said to have been the means of introducing tobacco into England, and also of making known the potato, which was first cultivated in Europe on Raleigh's land. At Youghal, Ireland,

RAL

he had a quiet mansion, and in its garden there, he is said to have planted the potato, which he brought from South America. His gardener, imagining that the apple on the stalk was the part to be used, gathered it. He did not like its taste, and so neglected the roots, till the ground being dug to sow grain, the potatoes were found to have increased vastly.

Raleigh bore an active part in the destruction of the Spanish armada, and the following year he served in the expedition to aid the King of Portugal in recovering his dominions from the Spaniards. The young Earl of Essex was also in the expedition; Raleigh and he quarreled on a military question; and thus their unhappy jealousy began. On his Irish estates he met Spenser, the author of the "Faery Queen," befriended and encouraged him, and presented him at court. An amour with Elizabeth Throgmorton, maid of honor to the queen, drew down upon him his sovereign's displeasure, though he had married the lady, and he was imprisoned several months. While banished from court, he fitted out an expedition at his own cost, and sailed in search of the fabled El Dorado. He visited Guiana, explored the Orinoco four hundred miles from its mouth, and wrote a glowing account of his voyage and the marvelous regions he had found.

He was now restored to the queen's favor, and held a command in the expedition of 1596 against Cadiz. In 1597 he was rear-admiral of the armament which sailed under Essex to intercept the Spanish fleet from the West Indies. By capturing Fayal, one of the Azores, before the earl arrived, he gave great offense to Essex, who thought himself robbed of glory that should have been his. Raleigh joined Cecil in intrigues against Essex, and the latter was brought to the scaffold. Elizabeth's death and the accession of James I. soon came. Raleigh's fortune ebbed. The hypocritical Cecil poisoned the king's ear, and Sir Walter was accused of complicity in Lord Cobham's plot to set Lady Arabella Stuart on the throne, and likewise of being in the pay of Spain to establish popery. Coke, then attorney-general, virulently conducted the prosecution, assailing the prisoner in court with the grossest abuse, and the servile jury convicted him upon the paltriest testimony. His

property was confiscated, and he was sentenced to die. The king reprieved him, however, and he was imprisoned in the Tower twelve years, during which he wrote his "History of the World," vastly superior to all his previous historical productions in the language, and a work of great merit. In 1715 the king released but did not pardon him, and permitted him to sail on a second expedition to Guiana, where his purpose was to colonize, and work gold mines. Upon his return to England he found himself again under the ban, and was committed to the Tower. A match was pending between Prince Charles and the Infanta of Spain. In the last Guiana expedition a portion of Raleigh's forces had attacked the Spanish town of St. Thomas and burned it; Raleigh's eldest son was killed in the affair. For other causes, too, he was obnoxious to the Spanish government, and to smooth Prince Charles's wooing, James sacrificed him. The old sentence of death was revived, and he was beheaded Oct. 29th, 1618.

His behavior in his last hours was calm and manly. The morning of the fatal day, taking a cup of sack, he remarked that he liked it as well as the prisoner who drank of St. Giles's bowl in passing through Tyburn and said, "It is good to drink if a man might tarry by it." He turned to his old friend, Sir Hugh Ceston, who was repulsed by the sheriff from the scaffold, saying, "Never fear but I shall have a place." When an extremely bald man pressed forward to see and to pray for him, Sir Walter took from his own head a richly embroidered cap, and placing it on the aged spectator, said, "Take this, good friend, to remember me, for you have more need of it than I." "Farewell, my lords," he exclaimed to a courtly group who took an affectionate leave of him; "I have a long journey before me, and must say good-bye." After a few last words to the people in justification of his character and conduct, "Now I am going to God," he said, and gently touching the axe, continued, "This is a sharp medicine, but a sound cure for all diseases." Having tried how the block fitted his head, he told the executioner that he would give the signal by lifting up his hand; "And then," he added, "fear not, but strike home!" He laid himself down, but was requested by the

headsman to alter the position of his head. "So the heart be right," he said, "it is no matter which way the head lies." When the signal was given, the executioner failed to strike promptly, and Sir Walter exclaimed, "Why dost thou not strike? Strike, man!" Two strokes were given; he received them without shrinking; and all was over.

The night before execution he composed these verses, in prospect of death:—

"Even such is Time, that takes on trust
Our youth, our joys, our all we have,
And pays us but with age and dust;
Who in the dark and silent grave,
When we have wandered all our ways,
Shuts up the story of our days."

The versatility of Sir Walter Raleigh's genius was remarkable. He was a brilliant scholar, a vigorous writer, an adventurous voyager, and a brave warrior. He was indefatigable in schemes for extending the commerce and colonial power of his country. As a statesman he was in advance of his age, though his fame is not altogether unsullied by the prevailing selfishness and worldliness of ambition. He was illustrious in all his varied enterprises.

RAMILLIES, a village of Belgium, twenty-six miles south-east of Brussels, celebrated for a victory gained over the French and Bavarians, by the Duke of Marlborough, May 23d, 1706. The victories obtained about this time by the allies in Spain determined Louis to assemble all his forces in Flanders and on the Rhine. Villeroi was sent to check the conquests of Marlborough. His army was attacked by Marlborough near the village of Ramillies with such impetuosity, that scarcely were the French assailed, when they were vanquished. The troops of the royal household, however, on the right, forced the Dutch and Danish cavalry to retreat toward the left, and would have completely routed them had not Marlborough hastened to their succor. The French troops were driven back, and their ranks broken. The detachments stationed in the village were either put to death or made prisoners; and Villeroi and the Elector of Bavaria escaped with great difficulty. In the tumultuous disorder of the French, the fugitives who were pursued by the enemy's cavalry were impeded in their retreat by the baggage, and great numbers of

them were slain. The field of battle was strewed with 8,000 killed, and 6,000 were made prisoners. Thus the most formidable army which Louis XIV. had raised for a considerable time, as the last effort of his despair, melted away with the glory of the nation, of which it was the sole resource.

RAMMOHUN ROY, a learned Hindoo, was born in 1774, in Bengal, his paternal ancestors being Brahmins of a high order. He studied several years at the celebrated seminary of Benares, and traveled in Persia and other oriental countries. He was acquainted more or less with ten languages,—Sanskrit, Arabic, Persian, Hindostanee, Bengalee, English, Hebrew, Greek, Latin, and French. The two first he knew critically, as a scholar; the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth he spoke and wrote fluently; in the seventh and eighth perhaps his studies did not extend much beyond the originals of the Christian Scriptures; and in the latter two, his knowledge was apparently limited. He published works in Sanscrit, Arabic, Persian, Bengalee, and English. He held important posts under the East India company, and secured various administrative reforms. In 1830 he came to England as the agent of the Mogul emperor, and attracted much attention. In politics he was a zealous republican; he expressed warmly his hearty approbation of all liberal institutions, associated chiefly with the liberal portion of the community, and took a very deep interest in the progress of the measure of English parliamentary reform. He died suddenly at Bristol, Sept. 27th, 1833.

RAMSAY, ALLAN, a Scotch poet, born in 1686, died in 1758.

RAMSAY, DAVID, eminent physician, historian, and statesman of South Carolina, died in 1815, aged sixty-six.

RANDOLPH, EDMUND, eminent lawyer of Virginia, member of Congress in 1779; afterward governor of Virginia; first attorney-general of the United States; second secretary of state of the United States; died in 1813.

RANDOLPH, JONN, or, as he himself wrote his name, John Randolph of Roanoke, a man distinguished for genius, eloquence, and eccentricity, was born in Virginia, on the 2d of June, 1773, and was descended from Pocahontas, the daughter of Powhatan, a great Indian chief, through his grandmother, whose

RAN

maiden name was Jane Bolling, the great-grand-daughter of Jane Rolfe (married to Robert Bolling), the daughter of John Rolfe and Pocahontas; so that he was of the seventh generation from Pocahontas. His father died in 1775, leaving three sons and a large estate; and his mother was married in 1783 to St. George Tucker, who was the guardian to Randolph during his minority. Mr. Randolph's early life was spent at different places under different instructors, of most of whom he said he "never learned anything." He passed a short time at Princeton College, at Columbia College, and at William and Mary College, and was a little while a student at law under Edmund Randolph. Of himself he remarks, "With a superficial and defective education, I commenced politician." He was elected a member of Congress in 1799, and continued a member of the house of representatives, with the exception of three intervals of two years each (during one of these intervals he was in the United States senate), till 1829; and he was afterward appointed minister plenipotentiary to Russia. Mr. Randolph was never married. He was possessed of a large and valuable estate on the Roanoke, and had, at the time of his death, 318 slaves, and 180 horses, of which about 120 were blood horses. He died at Philadelphia, May 24th, 1833, aged sixty. He arrived in Philadelphia a few days before his death, in a state of extreme debility, purposing to proceed to Europe, with the hope of a partial restoration of his health.

RANDOLPH, PEYTON, president of the first congress, was born in Virginia, and received his education in England. In 1748, having returned to Virginia, he was appointed king's attorney-general for the colony, although but twenty-five years of age. Apr. 12th, 1766, he was chosen speaker of the house of burgesses, and resigned the office of attorney-general. As soon as he joined the first continental congress, he was chosen its president. His patriotic exertions were unfortunately terminated by a stroke of apoplexy, Oct. 21st, 1775, at the age of fifty-two.

RAPHAEL SANTI, or SANZIO, was born at Urbino, in the Contrada del Monte, April 6th, 1483. His father was his first instructor in painting, and afterward Pietro Perugino. From 1504 to 1508 Raphael dwelt chiefly at Florence. Thence he went to Rome, which

was his residence till his death, on his birthday, April 6th, 1520. After lying in state, his corpse was interred with great pomp in the church of Santa Maria ad Martyres, the ancient Pantheon. This eminent artist was of a sallow complexion, brown eyes, slight in form, and about five feet eight inches in height. He was never married, but is said to have been betrothed to Maria Bibiena, niece of Cardinal Bibiena; she preceded him to the grave.

RAUCH, CHRISTIAN, was born in the province of Waldeck, Westphalia, Jan. 2d, 1777, and, after preliminary studies at Cassel and Dresden, in 1804 went to Rome, where he gained the friendship of Baron William von Humboldt and the sculptors Thorwaldsen and Canova. Under the guidance and influence of such men he made great progress in his art, and previous to his return to Berlin, in 1811, had executed, among other works, a noble bust of his kind patroness, Queen Louisa of Prussia. He was afterward commissioned by Frederick William III. to erect a monument to the queen, which occupied him for several years. For the next thirty years Rauch labored in his art with such activity as to distribute his works all over Germany. Besides an immense number of busts and miscellaneous works, he executed statues of Blücher, Scharnhorst, Bulow, King Maximilian of Bavaria, Goethe, and the colossal Victory for the Wallhalla. The monument to Albert Dürer at Nuremberg is also one of his finest works. But his crowning work and masterpiece is the monument to Frederick the Great in Berlin. Rauch was called the Prussian Phidias. He died at Dresden, Dec. 3d, 1857. His remains were borne with great honor to Berlin for interment.

RAVAILLAC, FRANCIS, a fanatic who assassinated Henry IV. of France, May 14th, 1610. The king had got into his carriage at four in the afternoon, to pay a visit to his minister Sully. He had been followed eight days by the regicide, who had a poniard in his hand, and had not quitted the side of the carriage since its departure from the palace of the Louvre. In a very narrow street there was a stoppage which induced the monarch to alight from his carriage. While he was stepping out, the assassin stabbed him twice with his poniard; the second blow was fatal, and the corpse was conveyed to the Louvre.

Ravaillac was seized, and put to death by the most horrid tortures which cruelty could devise.

RAWDON, Lord FRANCIS, was an active British commander in the South during the Revolution. He afterward succeeded his father as Earl of Moira, served several years as governor-general of India, and was created Marquis of Hastings. He died in 1825, aged seventy-one.

READ, GEORGE, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Cecil county, Maryland, in 1734, and educated at Philadelphia. In 1753 he was admitted to the bar, though but nineteen years of age; he commenced practicing law at Newcastle, Del. He was a member of Congress from 1774 to 1777, was a member of the convention to frame the federal constitution, was admiralty judge in 1782, was president of the convention which framed the constitution of Delaware, and represented Delaware in the United States senate from 1789 to 1793, when he was made chief justice of the state. He died in the autumn of 1798.

REBELLION, SOUTHERN. Began in form by the secession of South Carolina, Dec. 20, 1860; ended in fact by the overwhelming defeat and rout of Lee by Gen. Grant, in the first week of April, 1865. For the dates of its chief occurrences, see chronological table at close of this work.

REED, JOSEPH, was born in New Jersey, Aug. 27, 1741. Through part of the Revolutionary war he served with distinction, in the rank of Adjutant-General. He first detected and exposed the character of Arnold, whom he brought to trial for malpractices. He died March 5, 1785. He was long held in high repute for having refused a British bribe; later researches have thrown some doubts upon his character for patriotism and for bravery also.

REFORMATION, that great change in the corrupted system of Christianity, begun by Luther in the year 1517. Leo X., when raised to the papal throne, found the revenues of the church exhausted by the vast projects of his two ambitious predecessors, Alexander VI. and Julius II. His own temper, naturally liberal and enterprising, rendered him incapable of that severe and patient economy which the situation of his finances required.

On the contrary, his schemes for aggrandizing the family of Medici, his love of splendor, his taste for pleasure, and his magnificence in rewarding men of genius, involved him daily in new expenses; in order to provide a fund for which, he tried every device that the fertile invention of priests had fallen upon, to drain the credulous multitude of their wealth. Among others, he had recourse to a sale of indulgences.

The right of promulgating these indulgences in Germany, together with a share in the profits arising from the sale of them, was granted to Albert, Elector of Mentz and Archbishop of Magdeburg, who, as his chief agent for retailing them in Saxony, employed Tetzel, a Dominican friar of licentious morals, but of an active spirit, and remarkable for his noisy and popular eloquence. Assisted by the monks of his order, he executed the commission with great zeal and success, but with little discretion or decency; and though by magnifying excessively the benefit of their indulgences, and by disposing of them at a very low price, they carried on for some time an extensive and lucrative traffic among the credulous and the ignorant, the extravagance of their assertions, as well as their irregularities in conduct, came at last to give general offense.

Whilst Luther was at the height of his reputation and authority as a preacher, Tetzel began to publish indulgences in the neighborhood of Wittenberg, and to ascribe to them the same imaginary virtues which had in other places imposed on the credulity of the people. As Saxony was not more enlightened than the other provinces of Germany, Tetzel met with prodigious success there. It was with the utmost concern that Luther beheld the artifices of those who sold, and the simplicity of those who bought.

The opinions of Thomas Aquinas and the other schoolmen, on which the doctrine of indulgences was founded, had already lost much of their authority with him; and the Scriptures, which he began to consider as the great standard of theological truth, afforded no countenance to a practice equally subversive of faith and of morals. His warm and impetuous temper did not suffer him long to conceal such important discoveries, or to continue a silent spectator of the delusion of his countrymen.

From the pulpit, in the great church at Wittenberg, he inveighed bitterly against the irregularities and vices of the monks who published indulgences; he ventured to examine the doctrines which they taught, and pointed out to the people the danger of relying for salvation upon any other means than those appointed by God in his word. The boldness and novelty of these opinions drew great attention; and being recommended by the authority of Luther's personal character, and delivered with a popular and persuasive eloquence, they made a deep impression on his hearers. Encouraged by the favorable reception of his doctrines among the people, he wrote to Albert, Elector of Mentz and Archbishop of Magdeburg, to whose jurisdiction that part of Saxony was subject, and remonstrated warmly against the false opinions, as well as wicked lives, of the preachers of indulgences; but he found that prelate too deeply interested in their success to correct their abuses. His next attempt was to gain the suffrage of men of learning. For this purpose he published ninety-five theses, containing his sentiments with regard to indulgences. These he proposed, not as points fully established, or of undoubted certainty, but as subjects of inquiry and disputation; he appointed a day, on which the learned were invited to impugn them, either in person or by writing; to the whole he subjoined solemn protestations of his high respect for the apostolic see, and of his implicit submission to its authority. No opponent appeared at the time fixed; the theses spread over Germany with astonishing rapidity; they were read with the greatest eagerness; and all admired the boldness of the man, who had ventured not only to call in question the plenitude of papal power, but to attack the Dominicans, armed with all the terrors of inquisitorial authority.

The friars of St. Augustine, Luther's own order, gave no check to the publication of these uncommon opinions. Luther had, by his piety and learning, acquired extraordinary authority among his brethren; he professed the highest regard for the authority of the pope; his professions were at that time sincere; and as a secret enmity subsisted among all the monastic orders of the Romish church, the Augustines were highly pleased with his invectives against the Dominicans, and hoped

to see them exposed to the hatred and scorn of the people.

His sovereign, the Elector of Saxony, the wisest prince at that time in Germany, secretly encouraged his attempts, and flattered himself that this dispute among the ecclesiastics themselves might put some stop to the exactions of the court of Rome, which the secular princes had long, though without success, been endeavoring to oppose.

Several theses appeared in opposition to the ninety-five published by Luther; the arguments produced for his confutation were the sentiments of schoolmen, the conclusions of the canon law, and the decrees of popes. Meantime, those novelties in Luther's doctrines which interested all Germany, excited little attention and no alarm in the court of Rome. Leo, fond of elegant and refined pleasures, intent upon great schemes of policy, a stranger to theological controversies, and apt to despise them, regarded with the utmost indifference the operations of an obscure friar, who, in the heart of Germany, carried on a scholastic disputation in a barbarous style. He imputed the whole to monastic enmity and emulation, and seemed inclined not to interpose in the contest, but to allow the Augustines and Dominicans to wrangle about the matter with their usual animosity.

The solicitations, however, of Luther's adversaries, together with the surprising progress which his opinions made in different parts of Germany, roused at last the attention of the court of Rome, and obliged Leo to take measures for the security of the church against an attack that now appeared too serious to be despised. For this end he summoned Luther to appear at Rome, within sixty days, before the auditor of the chamber, and the inquisitor-general, who had written against him, whom he empowered jointly to examine his doctrines, and to decide concerning them. He wrote, at the same time, to the Elector of Saxony, beseeching him not to protect a man whose heretical and profane tenets were so shocking to pious ears, and enjoined the provincial of the Augustines to check, by his authority, the rashness of an arrogant monk, which brought disgrace upon the order of St. Augustine and gave offense and disturbance to the whole church. The professors in the university of Wittenberg, anxious for Lu-

ther's safety, wrote to the pope, and, after employing several pretexts to excuse Luther from appearing at Rome, entreated Leo to commit the examination of his doctrines to some persons of learning and authority in Germany. The elector requested the same thing of the pope's legate at the diet of Augsburg; and as Luther himself, who at that time did not entertain even the smallest suspicion concerning the divine origin of papal authority, had written to Leo a submissive letter, promising an unreserved compliance with his will, the pope gratified them so far as to empower his legate in Germany, Cardinal Cajetan, a Dominican, eminent for scholastic learning, and passionately devoted to the Roman see, to hear and determine the cause.

Luther, having obtained the emperor's safe-conduct, immediately repaired to Augsburg. The cardinal required him, by virtue of the apostolic powers with which he was clothed, to retract his errors with regard to indulgences and the nature of faith, and to abstain for the future from the publication of new and dangerous opinions. Luther, fully persuaded of the truth of his own tenets, and confirmed in the belief of them by the approbation which they had met with among persons conspicuous both for learning and piety, was surprised at this abrupt mention of a recantation, before any endeavors were used to convince him that he was mistaken. He declared with the utmost firmness, that he could not, with a safe conscience, renounce opinions which he believed to be true; nor should any consideration ever induce him to do what would be so base in itself and so offensive to God. At the same time, he continued to express no less reverence than formerly for the authority of the apostolic see; he signified his willingness to submit the whole controversy to certain universities which he named, and promised neither to write nor preach concerning indulgences for the future, provided his adversaries were likewise enjoined to be silent with respect to them. All these offers Cajetan disregarded or rejected, and still insisted peremptorily on a simple recantation, threatening him with ecclesiastical censures, and forbidding him to appear again in his presence, unless he resolved instantly to comply with what had been required.

The judges before whom Luther had been required to appear at Rome, without waiting for the expiration of the sixty days allowed him in the citation, had already condemned him as a heretic. Leo had, in several of his briefs and letters, stigmatized him as a child of iniquity, and a man given up to a reprobate sense. As every step which was taken by the court of Rome convinced Luther that Leo would soon proceed to the most violent measures against him, he had recourse to the only expedient in his power, in order to prevent the effect of the papal censures. He appealed to a general council, which he affirmed to be the representative of the Catholic church, and superior in power to the pope, who, being a fallible man, might err, as St. Peter, the most perfect of his predecessors, had erred.

It soon appeared that Luther had not formed rash conjectures concerning the intentions of the church of Rome. A bull, of a date prior to his appeal, was issued by the pope, in which he magnified the virtue and efficacy of indulgences; he required all Christians to assent to what he delivered as the doctrine of the Catholic church, and subjected those who should hold or teach any contrary opinion to the heaviest ecclesiastical censures. Among Luther's followers, this bull, which they considered as an unjustifiable effort of the pope in order to preserve that rich branch of his revenue which arose from indulgences, produced little effect. But among the rest of his countrymen, such a clear decision of the sovereign pontiff against him, and enforced by such dreadful penalties, must have been attended with consequences very fatal to his cause, if these had not been prevented, in a great measure, by the death of the Emperor Maximilian, whom both principles and interest prompted to support the authority of the holy see. To this event was owing the suspension of any farther proceedings against Luther for eighteen months. Perpetual negotiations, however, in order to bring the matter to some amicable issue, were carried on during that space. The manner in which these were conducted having given Luther many opportunities of observing the corruption of the court of Rome, he began to utter some doubts with regard to the divine original of the papal authority. A public disputation was held upon this important question at

Leipsic, between Luther and Eccius, one of his most learned and formidable antagonists; but it was fruitless and indecisive.

Nor did this spirit of opposition to the doctrines and usurpations of the Romish church break out in Saxony alone: an attack no less violent, and occasioned by the same causes, was made upon them about this time in Switzerland. The Franciscans being intrusted with the promulgation of indulgences in that country, executed their commission with the same indiscretion which had rendered the Dominicans so odious in Germany. They proceeded, nevertheless, with uninterrupted success till they arrived at Zurich. There Zuinglius, a man not inferior to Luther in zeal and intrepidity, ventured to oppose them; and being animated with a republican boldness, he advanced with more daring and rapid steps to overturn the whole fabric of the established religion. The appearance of such a vigorous auxiliary, and the progress which he made, was at first matter of great joy to Luther. On the other hand, the decrees of the universities of Cologne and Louvaine, which pronounced his opinions to be erroneous, afforded great cause of triumph to his adversaries.

But the undaunted spirit of Luther acquired additional fortitude from every instance of opposition; and he began to shake the firmest foundations on which the wealth or power of the church was established. At last, on the 15th of June, 1520, the bull so fatal to the church of Rome was issued. Forty-one propositions, extracted out of Luther's works, were therein condemned as heretical, scandalous, and offensive to pious ears; all persons were forbidden to read his writings, upon pain of excommunication; such as had any of them in their custody, were commanded to commit them to the flames; he himself, if he did not, within sixty days, publicly recant his errors, and burn his books, was pronounced an obstinate heretic,—was excommunicated, and delivered unto Satan for the destruction of his flesh; and all secular princes were required, under pain of incurring the same censure, to seize his person, that he might be punished as his crimes deserved.

This sentence, which he had for some time expected, did not disconcert or intimidate Luther. After renewing his appeal to the general council, he published remarks upon the

bull of excommunication; and being now persuaded that Leo had been guilty of both impiety and injustice in his proceedings against him, he boldly declared the pope to be that man of sin, or antichrist, whose appearance is foretold in the New Testament; he declaimed against his tyranny and usurpations with greater vehemence than ever; he exhorted all Christian princes to shake off such an ignominious yoke, and boasted of his own happiness in being marked out as the object of ecclesiastical indignation because he had ventured to assert the liberty of mankind. In the following year he was requested to appear before his avowed enemy, the Emperor Charles V., in the diet at Worms. Unmoved by the apprehensions of his friends, who reminded him of the fate of Huss, he instantly obeyed, and there acknowledged that his writings had occasionally been violent and acrimonious; but he refused to retract his opinions, until they should be proved erroneous by the Scriptures. An edict, pronouncing him an excommunicated criminal, and commanding the seizure of his person as soon as the duration of the safe-conduct which he had obtained should have expired, was immediately promulgated. Frederick the Wise, Elector of Saxony, who had all along countenanced him without professing his doctrines, now withdrew him from the storm. As Luther was returning from Worms, a troop of horsemen, in masks, rushed from a wood, seized him, and conveyed him to the castle of Wartburg, where he was concealed nine months, encouraging his adherents by his pen, and cheered in return by accounts of the rapid diffusion of his doctrines.

John, the successor of Frederick, took a decisive step, and established the reformed religion in 1527 throughout his dominions. In a diet at Spire, held about the same time, the execution of the edict of Worms against the Lutherans, now too formidable to be opposed with impunity, was suspended until the convocation of a general council to remedy the disorders of the church. But in another diet held in the same place, in 1529, the suspension was revoked by a decree obtained through the influence of Charles V., who then found himself at more leisure to push forward his views against the supporters of the Reformation. Against this new de-

creed, six princes, and the deputies of thirteen imperial cities and towns, solemnly protested; and from this the appellation of Protestants became common to all who embraced the reformed religion. At the diet of Augsburg, in Suabia, the following year, a clear statement of the reformed faith, drawn up by Luther and Melancthon, was presented to Charles and the diet, in behalf of the Protestant members of the empire; and hence it obtained the name of the confession of Augsburg. This confession was received as the standard of the Protestant faith in Germany. The same or next year, the Protestant princes made the famous league of Smalkalde, for the mutual defense of their religion, which obliged the emperor to grant the Protestant Lutherans a toleration, till the differences in religion should be settled in a council, which he engaged himself to call in six months. The Protestant party gaining strength every day, instead of being viewed only as a religious sect, as hitherto, soon came to be considered as a political body of no small consequence; and having refused the bull for convening a council at Mantua, Charles summoned a general diet at Ratisbon, where a scheme of religion, for reconciling the two parties, was examined and proposed, but without effect.

At length, in 1545, the famous council of Trent was opened for accommodating the differences in religion; but the Protestants refused to attend or obey a council convoked in the name and by the authority of the pope, and governed by his legates. The following year Luther died; but the work of reformation which he had begun, did not die with him; for though Charles, having concluded a treaty with the pope for the destruction of the reformed religion and its adherents, assembled troops on all sides, and was at first successful in the field, yet on the appearance of Maurice, Elector of Saxony, in arms against him, with a force which he was wholly unprepared to resist, he was checked in his career, and the consequences were, the "religious peace," concluded at Passau, in Bavaria, in 1552, and the complete security of religious freedom to the Protestant states in Germany, which they have enjoyed ever since.

During the course of these events the

reformed opinions were extending their influence in various other countries. Before this time, they were completely adopted in Sweden, and had likewise obtained perfect toleration in Denmark, where they were adopted soon after as the doctrines of the national church. They were, also, daily gaining converts in other kingdoms of Europe. They acquired many friends even in Italy. They privately diffused themselves in Spain, notwithstanding the crowded dungeons and busy flames of the inquisition.

In France they had still more ample success, where their abettors were contemptuously termed Huguenots. This appellation was given to the Protestants in France in 1560, and is supposed by some to be derived from a gate in Tours called Huguon, where they first assembled. According to others, the name is taken from the first words of their original protest, or confession of faith, *Huc nos venimus*, &c. At Geneva, the Protestant doctrines were firmly established by Calvin. In England, the papal power and jurisdiction were abolished by Parliament; the king was declared supreme head of the church, and all the authority of which the popes were deprived was vested in him. That vast fabric of ecclesiastical dominion, which had been raised with such art, and of which the foundations seemed to have been laid so deep, being no longer supported by the veneration of the people, was overturned in a moment. In the reign of Edward VI., a total separation was made from the church of Rome in articles of doctrine, as well as in matters of discipline and jurisdiction.

The force of the secular arm, and the fire of the inquisition, were employed to support the tottering edifice of papacy. In the Netherlands, particularly, the most grievous persecutions took place; so that, by the Emperor Charles V., upward of 100,000 were destroyed, whilst still greater cruelties were exercised upon the people there by his son, Philip II. The formidable ministers of the inquisition put so many to death, and perpetrated such horrid acts of cruelty and oppression in Italy, &c., that most of the reformed consulted their safety by a voluntary exile, while others returned to the religion of Rome, at least in external appearance.

In France, too, the Huguenots were perse-

cuted with unparalleled fury; and though many princes of the blood, and of the first nobility, had embraced their sentiments, yet in no part of the world did the reformers suffer more.

Luther was not the first who attempted to renovate the church. Wickliffe in England, and Jerome of Prague and John Huss in Bohemia, had before him denounced the errors and corruptions that had crept into the system.

REGULUS, MARCUS ATILIVS, a Roman consul during the first Punic war. In his second consulship he took sixty-four galleys of the Carthaginian fleet on the coast of Sicily, and sunk thirty. Afterward he landed in Africa; and so rapid was his success, that in a short time he defeated three generals, and made himself master of about two hundred places of consequence on the coast. The Carthaginians sued for peace, but the conqueror haughtily refused to grant it. Soon after, he was defeated in battle by Xanthippus; 30,000 of his men were left on the field of battle, and 15,000 taken prisoners. Regulus was in the number of the captives, and he was carried in triumph to Carthage. He was afterward sent by the Carthaginians to Rome to propose an accommodation, and an exchange of prisoners; and if his commission was unsuccessful, he was bound by the most solemn oaths to return to Carthage without delay. When he came to Rome, Regulus dissuaded his countrymen from accepting the terms which the enemy proposed; and when his opinion had had due influence on the senate, he then retired to Carthage, agreeably to his engagements. The Carthaginians, when told that their offers of peace had been rejected at Rome by means of Regulus, prepared to punish him with the greatest severity. His eyelids were cut off, and he was exposed for some days to the excessive heat of the meridian sun, and afterward confined in a barrel whose sides were everywhere filled with large iron spikes, till he died in the greatest agonies. His sufferings were known at Rome, and the senate permitted his widow to inflict whatever punishments she pleased, on some of the most illustrious captives of Carthage who were in their hands. She confined them also in presses filled with sharp iron points, and was so exquisite in her cru-

elty, that the senate at last interfered, and stopped the barbarity. Regulus died about 250 B.C.

REID, THOMAS, a distinguished Scottish metaphysician, born in 1710, died in 1796. Dr. Reid in 1752 was appointed professor of moral philosophy in King's College at Aberdeen, and in 1765 succeeded Adam Smith in the corresponding chair at Glasgow.

REMBRANDT GERRITZ, commonly called REMBRANDT VAN RHYN, from the circumstance of his having been bred on the banks of the Rhine, was born in his father's mill, near Leyden, June 15th, 1606. The boy's passion for art disappointed the father's desire to make him a scholar. After some instruction in art at Amsterdam and Haarlem, he returned home, and became a diligent and exclusive student of nature. He met with very early success. In his twenty-fourth year, he settled at Amsterdam, where he continued until his death. In 1634 he married a handsome peasant girl, who often sat to him as a model. Her frugality hoarded up his earnings, which he increased by many unworthy tricks to enhance the demand for his works. But after her death he lived as lavishly as in her time miserly, so that he died bankrupt. His death occurred at Amsterdam in October, 1669. Rembrandt was equally great as a painter and an etcher. He is supposed to have acquired his taste for the concentration and unity of light and shade, which mark his works, from the peculiar light to which he must have been early accustomed in his father's mill.

RESACA DE LA PALMA. This battle was fought May 9th, 1846, two days after the contest of Palo Alto. General Arista, the Mexican commander, fell back from that field to Resaca de la Palma, and awaited the advance of Gen. Taylor. In the gallant charge of May's dragoons on the Mexican artillery, Gen. La Vega was captured. The engagement ended in the precipitate flight of the Mexicans beyond the Rio Grande. The American loss was 39 killed and 71 wounded; that of the Mexicans was estimated at 1,000 in killed, wounded, and prisoners.

REVOLUTION, AMERICAN. For an account of the causes which produced this great event, the reader is referred to the article UNITED STATES. In the present article we

shall present a somewhat detailed account of the war, touching briefly, however, on those events which have been noticed under their respective heads.

The first conflict in which blood was spilled, at Lexington and Concord, Mass., April 19th, 1775, we have elsewhere described. The news of this first battle produced a tremendous excitement throughout the country. The dead were buried with great ceremony and pomp. Great bodies of militia marched toward Boston. Agreements were entered into by thousands of people, to defend the Bostonians to the last gasp. The English forts, arsenals, magazines, and public money were seized upon by the people; more money was coined, and more troops were raised.

Everybody was armed, and ready for battle. When the news from Lexington reached Barnstable, a company of militia started off for Cambridge at once. In the front rank was a young man, the only child of an old farmer. As they came to the old gentleman's house, they halted a moment. The drum and fife ceased. The farmer came out, with his gray head bare. "God be with you all," said he; "and you, John, if you must fight, fight like a man, or never let me see you again." The old man gave his boy his blessing. The poor fellow brushed a tear from his eye, and the company marched on.

The news of the battle reached a small town in Connecticut, on the morning of the Sabbath. It was nearly time to go to meeting, when the beating of a drum and the ringing of the bell attracted the attention of the people. In expectation that some great event was about to happen, every unusual signal had then a startling effect upon the public ear. When the drum and the bell were heard, therefore, the men came running to the meeting-house green, in breathless haste. Soon the clergyman was among them, and they were all told that some of their countrymen had been shot by the British soldiers, at Lexington. The faces of the men, as they heard it, were pale, but not from fear; it was immediately resolved that thirty persons should be equipped, and set out for Boston. Those who could best go, were selected, and went home to make preparations.

At noon, they had all returned to the little lawn in front of the meeting-house. There

was a crowd of people around; there were friends and acquaintances, and wives and children. Such as were not well provided with clothes and equipments were immediately supplied by their neighbors. There was a rich old miser, never known to part with his money but with extreme reluctance. On the present occasion his nature seemed changed. He took several of the soldiers apart, whom he supposed likely to be destitute, and put into their hands about thirty dollars in hard cash; at the same time saying, in a low voice, "Shoot the rascals! shoot them! If you come back, perhaps you will pay me; if not, God bless you."

After all the arrangements were made, the soldiers entered the broad aisle of the church. An affecting and fervent prayer was then offered by the clergyman, in behalf of the country, and in behalf of these brave men that were about to enter upon the dangerous chances of war. After the prayer, he made a short but animated address, encouraging the men to do their duty. He pronounced a blessing, and then they departed.

Israel Putnam was ploughing in a field when the tidings from Lexington were brought to him. He did not stay even to unharness his cattle: but, leaving the plough in the unfinished furrow, he went to his house, gave some hasty directions respecting his affairs, mounted his horse, and with rapid pace proceeded to Boston.

The Massachusetts assembly was, at this time, sitting at Watertown, a few miles from Boston. They addressed a letter, explaining the whole affair, to the English people. They complained that the troops had long been insulting the provincials, and had now undertaken to murder them. They begged the government to interfere, and prevent war, declaring they would submit to no more tyranny. They called God to witness the justice of their cause, and pledged themselves to defend each other to the last drop of blood.

Letters were sent also to other colonies. They voted to raise a large army, and, in a short time, 30,000 militia were assembled about Boston; thousands, who were not needed, were sent home. General Putnam commanded at Cambridge, and General Thomas at Roxbury. All intercourse between the English troops and the country ended at once.

It must be considered, however, that this collection of people was very different from a well-trained army. They were brave, and heartily devoted to the cause. But they went and came as they pleased. They had few uniforms; their muskets were of all sizes and shapes; they had only sixteen cannon, and half of these were not fit for use; and, though all the men were good marksmen, only a few regiments had been trained enough to appear like regular soldiers.

The same might be said of the militia throughout the country. But they determined to make the best of themselves, of their heavy old cannon and rusty muskets, and were in great hopes that, by a few short battles, the English would be entirely driven from the country. The English, on the other hand, especially in England, had a mean opinion of the American courage. One of their generals promised, if they would give him five or six regiments, he would drive the whole of these cowardly rebels from one end of the continent to the other.

The British troops soon began to feel a little uncomfortable in Boston. The provincials had surrounded them so completely that no provisions could enter the city. Fresh meat and vegetables were very scarce; and though they had vessels enough, they could get no supplies on the coast of New England. The people everywhere had driven their cattle into the back country.

The governor would not suffer the inhabitants of Boston to leave the town. He feared that, if they left, the Americans would fall upon him at once. But he promised them, at last, that if all their arms should be handed in at Faneuil Hall, or some other place, they should be allowed to go away, and thirty carts should be admitted from the country to carry off their furniture.

About eighteen hundred muskets, and a great many pistols and bayonets, were given up accordingly; and several of the citizens received passports, and left the town. But the governor soon after pretended, that the people had deceived him, in keeping back part of their arms, and he refused any more passports. The poor and sick only were suffered to go. Among these, there were several who were terribly afflicted with the small-pox. The disease spread among the militia

about Boston, and the Americans were now more angry than ever, for they suspected this to be a matter of design on the part of General Gage.

While these things were passing, the other provinces were also preparing for war. The people of New York refused the English troops there all supplies. They armed and trained themselves, seized upon the ammunition in the arsenals, removed the women and children, and determined, if nothing else would do, to burn the whole of that large and beautiful city. In New Jersey, at the news of the Lexington battle, the people seized upon the public treasure; and at Baltimore they possessed themselves of fifteen hundred English muskets. Similar steps were taken in South Carolina, where two regiments of infantry and one of cavalry were raised in a few days.

There was, at this time, a great deal of difficulty in Virginia, between the English governor, Dunmore, and the assembly. He feared the people would seize on the powder of the public magazine at Williamsburgh, and ordered it to be carried on board a vessel called the *Jasper*, lying at anchor in the river James. The mob crowded about the house; and he began to talk of setting free the negro slaves and destroying the city. On the whole, it was clear that both the governor and the people were in a humor for fighting.

In Connecticut it was resolved to undertake an expedition to Ticonderoga, on Lake Champlain, near Canada. As this fortress was full of stores, and stood upon the great route between Canada and the provinces, it was important to conquer it. The Connecticut assembly voted \$1,800 for the purpose; and powder, ball, and whatever would be needed for a siege, were provided.

The troops assembled with as little display as possible, at Castleton, on the banks of Wood Creek, on the great road to Ticonderoga. Some of these troops were from Connecticut, some from the Boston army, and some were people from the Green Mountains, in Vermont. These latter were called Green Mountain Boys, and were famous for skill in the use of the rifle.

The captain of one of these companies captured an English officer, a year or two after the time of which we are speaking. The Englishman complained to the American

captain that these riflemen gave the regulars a great deal of trouble. "They aim," said he, "at an English officer as far as they can see his uniform plainly, and shoot him dead. They hardly condescend to kill anything less than a corporal." "They can do better still," said the American captain; and he ordered up two of his riflemen. "Is your piece in good order?" said he to the first. "Yes, sir," answered the Green Mountaineer. The captain stuck a knife in a tree, about fifty paces distant, and ordered the man to split his ball. He fired, and the ball was cut in two pieces on the edge of the knife. The other was ordered to shoot the ace of clubs out of a card; and he did so. The Englishman was amazed. These sharp-shooters had only been four weeks from their ploughs in Vermont.

The leaders of the expedition against Ticonderoga were Colonel Ethan Allen and Colonel Easton. They were joined at Castletown by Colonel Arnold, from the Boston army. They marched on quietly, and arrived in the night on the bank of the lake, opposite Ticonderoga. They crossed over, and landed on the other side, close by the fortress.

They entered it under the covered way, by daybreak, with a tremendous shout. The soldiers of the garrison were roused, ran out, half dressed, and began firing. A hot scuffle, with gun-breeches and bayonets, hand to hand, ensued. Colonel Allen ordered the commander of the fort to surrender. "To whom?" said the officer, in great astonishment. "To the American congress!" said Allen, in a voice of thunder. The commander saw it was in vain to resist, and he gave up the fort. Here were found 124 fine brass cannon and a large quantity of ammunition.

A hundred cannon more were taken by the Americans at Crown Point, another fort on the same lake, defended by a small garrison. The next plan was to seize upon an English armed vessel, called a corvette, which lay anchored near fort St. John. The Americans soon rigged out a schooner. Arnold commanded it, and sailed with a fair wind for the fort, while Allen followed slowly, with his troops in flat-boats. The former came upon the corvette, and captured it without the least difficulty. The wind suddenly

shifted, and he was far on his way back, with the prize, when he met Allen and the boats. After taking another fort at Skenesborough, (now Whitehall), the party returned.

Meanwhile, the English were skirmishing with the provincials at Boston. There were some islands in the harbor, where the English found forage for their horses and cattle. The Americans undertook to carry off these cattle from Noddle's Island and Hog Island, and succeeded after some fighting. They scoured Pettick's Island and Deer Island, soon after, in the same way. The English were put to a good deal of trouble to get food.

They were finally so much pressed by the American army, that General Gage found himself obliged to make a new effort against them. The provincials sent a thousand men, under Putnam and Prescott, to fortify Bunker's Hill, in Charlestown. Instead of doing so, however, by some mistake, they fortified Breed's Hill, which is nearer the city. The Americans took possession of it in the evening, and worked so well, that, before morning, they had thrown up a redoubt eight rods square, and so silently, that the British knew nothing of it till daybreak.

The latter, when they discovered the redoubt, began firing upon its daring occupants; but the Americans worked on, till they raised a breastwork, reaching from the east side of the redoubt to the bottom of the hill. As Breed's Hill commands the city, the British saw they must either be driven off, or drive off the provincials. They opened a tremendous fire from the batteries and armed vessels that floated on all the waters about Boston. Showers of bombs and balls were fired. A terrible battery was raised upon Copp's Hill, opposite Breed's; but all in vain. The Americans worked on, and had finished a trench or ditch before noon, which reached to the bottom of the hill.

It was the 17th of June, and the famous battle of Bunker Hill. The British were determined to make a great effort. The provincials lay ready for them on the hill. General Putnam, of Connecticut, commanded the whole force. They had muskets, but few of them bayonets or rifles. They were sharpshooters, however, and were brave men as ever breathed.

About noon of a terribly hot day, the whole British camp seemed to be in motion. A vast multitude of sloops and boats started from the Boston shore, covering the water far and wide. The soldiers landed at Moreton's Point, in Charlestown, protected by their batteries behind them. Here they paraded in fine order. They were the flower of the English army, and were commanded by General Howe and General Pigot. But the Americans appeared a little too strong and too cool for them; and they waited for a few more companies to join them.

The Americans took this opportunity to protect themselves still more, by pulling up post and rail fences, which they set before them, in two rows, filling the space between with fresh hay which they gathered from the hill. The British began to march. The militia left to defend Charlestown, retreated. The British entered it, and set fire to the buildings. In a few moments five hundred wooden buildings were in flames. The wind blew high, and the fire streamed up, and roared in a terrible manner.

Thousands of people were gazing at the scene, from the Boston steeples, and waiting with great anxiety for the fate of the battle. There were multitudes, also, on all the high roofs and hills roundabout. Never was there such a bustle and stir. The English marched slowly toward the redoubt, halting now and then, for the cannon to come up and fire. They came, at last, within musket-shot; and the redoubt, which had been as still as the grave till this moment, blazed all at once, with a tremendous volley.

The British were soon thinned off, and compelled to retreat. Many fled for their lives, and threw themselves into the boats. The green slope of battle was covered with dead bodies. The officers ran hither and thither, to rally the troops, and, after some time, persuaded them to march forward again. The Americans waited for them quietly, and received them once more with a flood of balls. The British fled down the hill to the shore.

General Howe was alone upon the field; all his officers being killed and wounded around him. General Clinton, who had been watching the battle from Copp's Hill, now came to his aid with new troops. They made a third effort, with more spirit than before.

Clinton led on the whole body; the cannon still firing from the ships and batteries, and the flames and smoke of the burning town sweeping over them like the blast of a furnace.

The powder of the Americans was exhausted, and they were compelled to draw off. They retired to Prospect Hill, fighting with their muskets as if they were clubs, and there began throwing up new works. The British intrenched themselves on Bunker Hill, and neither army seemed willing to attack the other. They had had fighting enough for one day. Of 3,000 British troops, 1,054 were killed or wounded. A large part of these were officers. The sharp-shooters had taken the poor fellows down like so many gray squirrels.

The Americans lost five pieces of cannon. Their killed, of about 1,500 engaged in the battle, amounted to 134; their wounded to 314. Brave General Warren was among the dead. He was loved and lamented by all classes of people. An English officer, who knew him by sight, saw him in the retreat, rallying the Americans. He borrowed a gun of one of his soldiers, and, taking a fatal aim, shot him in the head, and he fell dead on the spot.

The battle of Bunker Hill (as it is called, though fought on Breed's Hill) had no decisive effect; yet it roused the country, showed the Americans that they were able to contend with the regulars, and taught the British that the provincials were not exactly the cowards they had taken them for. The capture of Breed's Hill did them more hurt than good. They were obliged to defend it now, and they had not too many men before to defend the town. Their soldiers were also worn out with fatigue, and were much depressed by the hot weather.

The Americans began now to fortify the town of Roxbury. Their works went up very fast, notwithstanding the continual fire of the British cannon. They had plenty of food, too, while the British were near starving. The latter could get nothing on the Boston islands, or along the Massachusetts coast, but by hard fighting; and very little by that. They were at last obliged to let most of the Bostonians pass out of the town. They had not provisions enough to keep them alive.

A British sloop of war, the *Falcon*, Captain

Linzee, one day, "hove in sight," as the sailors say, off the coast. She had been in search of two American schooners from the West Indies. One of these, Captain Linzee had just captured, and he followed the other into Gloucester harbor. He anchored, and sent two barges, with fifteen men in each, armed with muskets and swivels, and followed by a whale-boat, in which were a lieutenant and six privates, with orders to seize the schooner, and bring her off. The Gloucester people saw what was going on, and brought out their rusty muskets along shore in great numbers. The lieutenant, with the barge-men, boarded the schooner at the cabin windows. The militia began to blaze away at them off the shore. Three of the British were killed, and the lieutenant was wounded in the thigh. He soon made off for the *Falcon*, as fast as his boat would carry him.

Captain Linzee now sent a cutter and the schooner he had taken, with orders to fire on the "saucy rebels," wherever they should see them. He amused himself, meanwhile, by cannonading the town. He fired a broadside into the thickest part of the settlement, to begin with. "Now," said he to the crew, "now, my boys, we'll aim at that dirty old church. Well done! crack away! one shot more! knock 'em down!" The balls went through the houses in every direction; but not a man, woman, or child was injured. Meanwhile the men of Gloucester had gone out upon the water, and taken possession of both schooners, the cutter, the two barges, the boat, and every man in them all. They had but one killed, and two wounded. The British lost about forty men.

The continental congress met again at Philadelphia, May 7th, 1775. There were delegates sent from all the colonies but Georgia; and though they had no precise right, by any law, to act for the whole country, yet the whole country was ready to obey them. They chose George Washington, of Virginia, commander-in-chief of the American army, and appointed many other officers to act under him. Among these were Gates and Lee, of Virginia; Schuyler and Montgomery, of New York; Pomeroy, Heath, and Thomas, of Massachusetts; Green, of Rhode Island; Putnam, Wooster, and Spencer, of Connecticut; Ward and Sullivan, of New Hampshire. These were

some of the bravest and best men of the country.

General Washington went directly to the army at Cambridge. He arrived there on the 3d of July. Though he used no parade, wearing only a small sword at his side, epaulettes on his shoulders, and a black cockade on his hat, he was easily known, by his fine figure and noble countenance. He was treated everywhere with the greatest respect.

Having reviewed the army, he found only 14,500 men in a condition for service; these had to defend a line of twelve miles. They were now arranged and trained as well and as fast as possible, no man understanding this business better than General Gates, who was an old soldier, as well as Washington. They had not 10,000 pounds of powder, at this time, in the army, being only nine charges to a man. Had the enemy known this, and attacked them, they must have fled like a flock of deer. Great efforts were made, however, and several tons soon arrived from New Jersey.

The provincials had, at this time, no corps of riflemen; though light troops of this kind were exceedingly needed, to bring in recruits and provisions, and to scour such a wild country as America then was, abounding in rivers, swamps, mountains, and woods. Congress soon raised a few companies in Pennsylvania and Virginia; and 1,400 of them arrived at the camp early in August. These troops had, some of them, marched five or six hundred miles, and were stout and hardy men; many of them were more than six feet tall. They were dressed in white frocks, or rifle shirts, and round hats. They were terrible fellows for sharp-shooting; equal to the Green Mountain Boys already mentioned. At a review, a company of them, on a quick march, fired their balls into marks seven inches across, at the distance of 250 yards. They often shot down the British officers, in Boston, like so many wild animals, at more than double the common musket distance.

More powder was procured about this time, from the coast of Africa, in exchange for New England rum. This was managed so shrewdly that every ounce in the British forts there was bought up for the American army. The Massachusetts rulers passed a law, also, that no powder should be fired at any beast, bird,

or mark; they wished it all to be saved for the war.

Congress took measures for the coining of money, and the raising of troops in all quarters. The people obeyed the directions of Congress with alacrity. Every man, from sixteen years of age to fifty, was a member of some militia company; and a fourth part of the whole, called minute-men, were to keep themselves ready for action at a moment's notice. Captains were to be paid twenty dollars a month; lieutenants and ensigns, thirteen; corporals and sergeants, eight; and privates, six.

No province was more active than Pennsylvania. Companies were raised in all the country towns. Many of the Quakers, even though they did not approve of fighting, were so carried away with the general feeling as to turn out and train with the rest. Three large battalions were raised in Philadelphia alone, besides artillery, cavalry, riflemen, pioneers, and others. They often manoeuvred in presence of Congress. The whole city was full of the music of drums, fifes, and bugles.

Among others, a company was formed of eighty old Germans, who had, most of them, fought a long time before in Europe. It was called the old men's company. Instead of cockades, they wore black crape, to signify their sorrow at the need of taking up arms at such an age. The captain was near a hundred years old, and had been in seventeen battles; he had been a soldier forty years. The drummer was ninety-four, and the youngest in the corps was about seventy. In the county of Bristol, a regiment was raised, and they were clothed, armed, and furnished with colors by the women.

About this time, Congress took the necessary steps to keep peace with the Indian tribes. But they never employed them to fight against the English, though the English hired them to fight against the Americans. The Americans thought the Indian way of fighting entirely too barbarous and cruel to be suffered among civilized people. Another objection was that the savages could not be depended on. They were greedy for wages, but so deceitful, that they could not be safely trusted. A story told of a sergeant, who traveled through the woods of New Hampshire, on his

way to the American army, will show the character of the Indians.

He had twelve men with him. Their route was far from any settlement; and they were obliged every night to camp in the woods. The sergeant had seen a good deal of the Indians, and understood them well. Early in the afternoon, one day, as they were marching on, over bogs, swamps, and brooks, under the great maple trees, a body of Indians, more than their own number, rushed out upon a hill in front of them. They appeared to be pleased at meeting with the sergeant and his men. They considered them, they said, as their best friends. For themselves, they had taken up the hatchet for the Americans, and would scalp and strip those rascally English for them, like so many wild-cats. "How do you do, pro?" (meaning brother) said one; and "How do ye do, pro?" said another; and so they went about, shaking hands with the sergeant and his twelve men.

They went off, at last; and the sergeant, having marched on a mile or two, halted his men, and addressed them. "My brave fellows," said he, "we must use all possible caution, or, before morning, we shall all of us be dead men. You are amazed; but, depend upon me, these Indians have tried to put our suspicion to sleep. You will see more of them by and by."

They concluded, finally, to adopt the following scheme for defense. They encamped for the night near a stream of water, which protected them behind. A large oak was felled, and a brilliant fire kindled. Each man cut a log of wood about the size of his body, rolled it nicely up in his blanket, placed his hat on the end of it, and laid it before the fire, that the enemy might take it for a man. Thirteen logs were fitted out in this way, representing the sergeant and his twelve men. They then placed themselves, with loaded guns, behind the fallen tree. By this time it was dark; but the fire was kept burning till midnight. The sergeant knew that if the savages ever came, they would come now.

A tall Indian was seen, at length, through the glimmering of the fire, which was getting low. He moved cautiously toward them, skulking, as an Indian always does. He seemed to suspect, at first, that a guard might

be watching; but, seeing none, he came forward more boldly, rested on his toes, and was seen to move his finger, as he counted the thirteen men, sleeping, as he supposed, by the fire.

He counted them again, and retired. Another came up, and did the same. Then the whole party, sixteen in number, came up, and glared silently at the logs, till they seemed to be satisfied they were fast asleep. Presently they took aim, fired their whole number of guns upon the logs, yelled the horrid war-whoop, and rushed forward to murder and scalp their supposed victims. The sergeant and his men were ready for them. They fired upon them; and not one of the Indians was left to tell the story of that night. The sergeant reached the army in safety.

Treaties having been made with the Indians, Congress recommended that the 20th day of July, 1775, should be observed, in all the provinces, as a day of fasting and prayer; and it was so. The people were everywhere disposed to implore Heaven to prevent war, and to soften the hearts of their enemies. In Philadelphia, Congress attended church in a body. As they were entering the house of worship, they received news from Georgia, that this province had at last concluded to join in the common cause, with the other twelve. Until this time, the people there had said and done but little; but they determined now to make amends for lost time.

A declaration of rights was soon after put forth by Congress, and sent over every part of the country. It gave a history of the whole difficulty, from first to last, between England and America; and ended with an account of the burning of Charlestown, the seizure of the provincial vessels by the British, and the hiring of the savages to fight against the Americans. "We are compelled," said they, "to submit to tyranny, or to take up arms. We have counted the cost of this war, and have determined to be free, as our fathers have been before us, and as we trust our children shall be after us. We declare, before God, that we will defend each other, and the liberties of the whole country, to the last moment of life." This was signed by John Hancock, president, and by Charles Thompson, secretary, of Congress. The ministers read it from their pulpits in all parts of the land. It was read in

Cambridge, to a vast multitude, and General Putnam assembled his troops on Prospect Hill to hear it. This was followed by a prayer from a clergyman. All the troops cried, three times, "Amen;" the artillery fired a general salute, and a new flag was unfurled, with these mottoes,—on one side, "An appeal to Heaven," and, on the other, "He who has brought us over will defend us."

A petition to the English king was next drawn up, and addresses were written to the people of England, Ireland, and Canada. Congress were resolved to leave nothing unsaid, or undone, that offered any chance of restoring peace. The Canadians were persuaded to remain neutral, taking no part on either side. The British general, Carleton, used efforts to make them enlist as soldiers. They were offered two hundred acres of land in any part of America they should choose, at the end of the war. Each married man was to have fifty acres more for his wife, and fifty for each of his children, with a guinea as a bounty at the time of enlisting. A few only were persuaded in this way. A good many Indians, however, were hired. They collected at Montreal, in great numbers, in July, 1775. Among the rest were six famous tribes of Western New York, called the Six Nations. They swore, in the presence of Carleton, to fight for the English king; and thus, soon after, the Indian war began.

It may seem strange, that, during the disturbances in the various colonies, little or nothing should have been done, by the English governors, to put down the rebellion. The truth is, they had no troops, and not much money at their disposal; and, before these could be supplied, the spirit of independence had gone too far to be repressed.

In Virginia, Governor Dunmore, being compelled to leave Williamsburg, and fearing that it would not be safe for him to remain upon the land, went on board a royal armed vessel. Having collected a fleet, he resolved to harass the Virginians as much as possible, if he could not govern them. He was joined by the Tories, that is, the Americans who favored the English.

He laid waste the coast, at various places, murdering and burning like a pirate. He burnt Hampton, on the bay of Hampton, among the rest, and undertook to establish

his camp there. But the Virginians soon drove him back upon the water. He then declared all the negro slaves to be free, and invited them to join him. A few of them succeeded in doing so.

He landed again at Norfolk, where the Tories were numerous; and a battle was fought, a few miles from that city, at a place called Great Bridge, with a regiment of Virginia militia and minute-men. The governor had only 200 regulars about him. The rest was a mere mob, of black, white, and gray.

The first attack was made by the British, on the American intrenchment. The battle lasted some time, with a good deal of spirit. At last, the British captain was killed, and the troops fell back upon the bridge. The governor did not like fighting; so, during the battle, he contented himself with looking on at a distance. The negroes loved fighting as little as the governor. They found it by no means pleasant to have their flesh cut to pieces with bullets; so, after a few shots, they ran away as fast as they could. The governor also thought it best to retreat, and, accordingly, he and his men went on board of their vessels.

This affair did not serve to sweeten Governor Dunmore's temper; nor did it put him in a better humor, to find that his friends, the Tories at Norfolk, had been handled roughly by the people there after his retreat with his negro allies. He returned into the bay, with a ship of war, and sent a message ashore, declaring, that, unless the people furnished him provisions, he should batter the town down about their ears. They refused to supply him: so he gave them notice, in the morning, to remove the women and children; and then, with his own sloop of war, the frigate *Liverpool*, and two corvettes, he blazed away upon the place, till scarcely one stone was left upon another. The provincials, to disappoint him of his provisions, burnt the whole country round about.

In South Carolina, Governor Campbell arrived at Charleston, from England, about the same time with the news of the bloodshed at Lexington. The people were on their guard; and he tried in vain to get the better of them, by inviting the Tories to assist him; but the Tories were afraid to do so. He began to be frightened a little himself, being a man of less

courage than Governor Dunmore; so he said little or nothing for some time. To unmask him, the American leaders sent privately to him one Adam Macdonald, captain in a militia regiment. He called himself Dick Williams, and offered his services to the governor. The latter was delighted, and told him all his plans. Having heard them attentively, Adam went away, and told the whole to the persons who employed him. They immediately sent a committee, Macdonald among the number, to wait upon his excellency, and request him to show his royal commission, if he had any, as governor. He declined this proposal. There were some hints then thrown out, about putting him in confinement. These came to his ears, and he retreated, with very little ceremony or delay, to an English corvette in the harbor. The assembly requested him to return; but he refused. Nothing more was seen of him, or his government, in Charleston. The Tories were numerous in other sections of the province, however, and he mustered them together in great force. The people were alarmed. The militia were ordered out; and the two parties were on the eve of an engagement. But at length the Tories were dispersed, and they gave no more trouble at that time.

The provincials in South Carolina continued to be very active. They captured Fort Johnson, on James's Island, in Charleston harbor, and placed batteries on Point HUDREL. The English ships were at last driven off. The next thing with the people was to send an expedition after an English vessel laden with powder, which was anchored off St. Augustine, a town on the coast of East Florida. She was taken, and 15,000 pounds of powder were carried to Charleston.

In North Carolina, the provincial congress raised 1,000 regular militia, and 3,000 minute-men. The English governor, Martin, disliked the appearance of things, and endeavored to muster a force of the Irish and Scotch part of the inhabitants. He also fortified his own house, at Newbern, with artillery. The people seized upon his cannon; and he fled to a fort upon Cape Fear River. The provincials marched after him, led on by Colonel ASHE. He retreated on board a vessel, as the other governors had done. Colonel ASHE burnt the fort to ashes the same

night. The assembly declared the governor a traitor. He answered them in a very long letter, which they ordered burnt by the common hangman. A large quantity of ball and powder was found in his cellar and gardens, at Newbern.

In Pennsylvania, the people prepared actively for war. A single mill, near Philadelphia, manufactured five hundred pounds of powder a week. Governor Tryon, after endeavoring a long time to manage the province, followed the example of the other governors.

In other parts of the country, the enemy was not asleep. One Captain Wallace, commanding an English squadron of small vessels off Rhode Island, was doing all the damage in his power, by ravaging the coast, and making prize of the merchant vessels. His chief object seemed to be to supply himself and his force with provisions. With this view, he made a furious attack upon the town of Bristol, and fired, from morning till night, upon their houses and churches. He bored them through and through, till, finally, the people supplied him and his squadron with fresh meat, and he sailed away.

About this time, a body of American troops were sent from Massachusetts to Rhode Island, under Gen. Lee. He was a man of great courage and warm temper. He obliged all the inhabitants, whom he went to defend, to take the most terrible oaths to do precisely what Congress should command; and, at all events, to break off all intercourse with the tools of tyranny, "vulgarly called," as the oath said, "the fleets and armies of the king." Congress were not much pleased with this manœuvre. It was well meant, without doubt, but it was very rough, and of no real use.

On the 18th of October, 1775, Falmouth, now Portland, in Maine, was bombarded by Lieut. Mowatt, of the ship *Canceaux*, of sixteen guns, and the whole town was consumed. He had formerly received some affront in the place, and revenged himself in this way. He sent the people word at night that he should destroy the town in the morning; they removed their furniture, and he went to work early the next day with his cannon. The town had been twice sacked by the Indians, but never suffered so severely before.

The most important affair of this year was an expedition to Canada. The provincials had done so well upon Lake Champlain, that the scheme of another expedition in the same quarter was much approved of. Congress hoped that, if Canada was invaded at once, many of the inhabitants would join the Americans.

Three thousand men, commanded by Generals Montgomery, Wooster, and Schuyler, were fitted out. Boats were built for them on the lake, at Crown Point, and the sum of \$50,000 was collected to pay the expenses. Sir Guy Carleton, governor of Canada, intrenched himself, with a strong force, at the entrance of the river Sorel, which leads out of the lake, and which the Americans would be obliged to pass.

The latter took possession of an island in the lake, at the mouth of the river, and, from that place, planned an attack on Fort St. John, where the governor was. This fort stood on the left bank of the Sorel, and commanded the passage to Canada. The Americans moved on without cannon, to a swamp within a mile and a half of the fort. They defeated a body of Indians, who attacked them in crossing a small river, waited for reinforcements, and laid siege to the fort.

Farther north, on the Sorel, was a small fort, called Chambly. The English had no idea of the provincials passing St. John to fall upon Chambly; but they did so; took the garrison prisoners; obtained 124 barrels of powder for the siege of St. John, and sent the colors they had captured to Congress. Other detachments scoured the country between the Sorel and the St. Lawrence; the Canadians supplying them everywhere with arms and provisions.

Just at this time, Colonel Ethan Allen and Major Brown undertook an expedition against the city of Montreal, which stands on an island in the St. Lawrence. Allen found boats ready for him at Longueville, and crossed the river in the night, below Montreal. Here Brown was to have joined with his troops, but he missed his way, and Allen was left, with a small force, in the neighborhood of the city. It was just sunrise. The murmur of the city was heard at a few miles' distance, and by and by the roll of the English drums came upon the ear. The Ameri-

cans saw that they were discovered. Before long, a column of British infantry came marching down the bank of the river. There was an almost breathless silence in Allen's small band, as they came up. Even Allen himself stood fast, and gazed at them. "To the boats! to the boats!" cried a dozen of his soldiers; "there's a thousand of them." "Silence! every man of ye!" roared Allen, brandishing a huge horse-pistol. "The first man that turns his back upon the red coats, shall smell gunpowder." They were satisfied with this arrangement, on the whole, examined their rifles, and stood ready for the onset.

"Stand your ground, boys!" shouted Allen. A party of British soldiers was moving toward them from the main body, at double quick time. "Let them come!" cried a tall, fine-looking hunter at his side; "let them come!" He brought his rifle to his eye, as he spoke. "Fire!" shouted the British officer, and instantly the hunter dropped dead at the feet of Allen. His hardy followers shrunk back; they were sprinkled with the blood of the poor hunter. "Fire! fire!" shouted Allen, with a voice of thunder. A hot skirmish ensued. Allen was at last compelled to surrender.

He was kept a prisoner more than two years, and then was exchanged for some English officer whom the Americans had taken. The irons put upon him were so fastened about him, and so heavy, that for a long time he could lie down only on his back. A chest was his seat by day, and his bed by night. He was sent to England, to be tried as a prisoner of state, not as a fair and open enemy, but as a rebel. At this time, all the Americans were called rebels, and the English used to speak of hanging great numbers of them when the war was over.

Allen was a man of very large frame and prodigious strength. He possessed great courage, and was much inclined to daring enterprise. His reputation, it seems, had gone before him to England; and he was therefore kept in very close confinement. The people were as much afraid of him as if he had been a whale or a sea-serpent. They sometimes used to come and see him in his prison; but they were very shy, and if he so

much as turned round, they would run away like a flock of startled sheep.

The Americans were always on the watch. They thought it probable, that Carleton would set out about this time, and were ready for him. He embarked 800 men in boats, and undertook to cross the St. Lawrence, precisely where Allen had crossed it, at Longueville. But Col. Warner, with three hundred of the Green Mountain sharpshooters, and a few cannon, lay among the bushes, on the river bank, as the governor's boats came over. The Americans waited quietly till they were fairly within reach, and then poured out upon them a tremendous volley of grape-shot. The governor's party retreated in great haste, with some loss of lives; and nothing more was seen of them.

News of this defeat soon came to Major Preston, the British commander of the besieged fort of St. John. He began to think it a desperate case with him, and so concluded to surrender to the American general, Montgomery. This he did on the 3d of November, 1775. He had held out like a brave man, the siege having lasted six weeks. The Americans found in this fort seventeen brass cannon, twenty-two iron ones, and a large quantity of balls and bombs. The powder had been used to the last kernel, and the provisions to the last morsel. The capture was an important one. St. John, standing on the Sorel, which leads from Lake Champlain to the St. Lawrence, commanded the passage to and from Canada, and was, therefore, called the key of Canada.

The next movement of the Americans was to take possession of the mouth of the Sorel, where it empties into the St. Lawrence. The point of land that is formed by the meeting of the two rivers, was fortified with batteries, which swept the river in such a manner that no English vessel could pass without being bored through and through. As the St. Lawrence is wide here, the Americans provided a fleet of boats and floating batteries to guard the other side, and thus completely stopped the passage up and down that river.

Governor Carleton had left Montreal, which stands farther up the St. Lawrence from the sea, with a fleet of English ships under his command, without having heard of these for-

tifications. What added to the difficulty of his situation was that, the very day after he left Montreal, another body of Americans, under Montgomery himself, appeared under the walls of that city, and called upon the people to surrender.

This detachment had marched across the country from Fort St. John. The land is flat and marshy, and their journey had been slow and difficult. It gave them great satisfaction to have reached Montreal just as the governor had gone off with his force. The city, having no defense, was compelled to surrender. General Montgomery treated the people so handsomely, that they supplied him with a large quantity of clothes for his troops. These were very much needed. It was now the middle of November, and they were weary of a long, cold march.

Governor Carleton was now unpleasantly situated on the river, with Montreal, in the possession of Montgomery, above him, and the fortifications at the mouth of the Sorel below. If he could have been taken, all Canada would have been easily conquered; but he contrived, one dark night, to pass through among the floating batteries, in a small boat, with the oars muffled. Thus he escaped safely to a town on the northern bank, called Trois Rivières; and from that place he went to Quebec.

The English fleet, which the governor had left behind, surrendered to the Americans, in a day or two, with a large number of soldiers and officers aboard. General Montgomery left garrisons in Montreal, and Forts Chambly and St. John, on the Sorel, to keep the Indians in awe, and marched on to Quebec, with the small force of three hundred men.

While these things were going forward, General Washington, in his camp at Cambridge, had conceived the plan of sending an expedition against Quebec, by way of a rough, wild route, known only to the backwoodsmen and hunters, through the district of Maine. He selected Colonel Arnold to command the expedition; a rash but brave man, who had assisted in the capture of Ticonderoga and Crown Point. Fourteen companies were put under his command; three of riflemen, and one of artillery, under Captain Lamb, being among the number; in all, there were about eleven hundred men. A few others joined

them, of their own accord; and among these volunteers was Aaron Burr, then twenty years of age.

Maine is crossed, from north to south, as a map will show, by the river Kennebec, rising in the mountains between Maine and Canada, and emptying into the Atlantic Ocean. On the other side of the same mountains, and close, therefore, by the small upper streams of the Kennebec, another river rises, called the Chaudière, which empties into the St. Lawrence, nearly opposite Quebec. In crossing these mountains, between the sources of the two rivers, on the two sides, it is necessary to pass very steep and wild and desolate places, over marshes and torrents. Such was the route Arnold and his brave soldiers were to travel.

He left Boston in September, 1775, and arrived at Newburyport. The vessels that waited for him here conveyed him and his men to the mouth of the Kennebec. With a fresh south wind, they sailed up the river fifty miles, to the town of Gardiner. Here were two hundred batteaux ready for them. These were long, light flat-boats, much used by the Canadians, hunters, and others in shoal waters.

Having laden these with his arms and provisions, Arnold proceeded up the river, to Fort Western, on the right bank. Here he divided his corps into three detachments. The riflemen, under Capt. Morgan, moved on forward, as a vanguard, to explore the country; to sound the fords,—that is, ascertain where the river might be crossed easily; and to look out for the portages. These are places where the river ceases to be navigable, on account of shoals, falls, or rocks. The lading of the boats must, therefore, be carried forward upon the banks, by hand, or by beasts of burden. The batteaux are then carried on, also, till the river becomes deeper and smoother.

Arnold's second detachment marched the next day after the first; and the third detachment the day after that. The current of the river was rapid, the bottom rocky, and often interrupted by falls. Every hour, the water entered some of the batteaux, and damaged the provisions and arms. At every portage,—and these occurred very often,—the boats were to be unladen, and carried on the shoulders of the troops. In places where the river was rapid, yet free of rocks, the batteaux were

hauled up slowly by soldiers on the banks, who dragged them along with ropes.

The army, however, advanced, and at length they had wild mountains to cross, steep precipices to climb, vast shady forests to pass under, and quagmires to wade through. They had deep valleys to traverse, where the pine-trees were tossing over their heads in the stormy wind, and where the river was rushing and foaming over the rocks, with a noise like the ocean. They were sometimes a whole day in traveling four or five miles, with their baggage lashed on their backs, and axes in their hands to hew a road through the wilderness. Some of the men died at last with weariness; many others fell sick; and all of them were at length sorely pressed for food. Many a young soldier, as he lay down at night, hungry and tired, on his pillow of green boughs, thought of the warm bright fireside, where a mother was weeping for him. But these thoughts were vain. They rose in the morning, and pressed on patiently, brave men as they were.

By the time they had reached the source of Dead River, a branch of the Kennebec, their provisions were almost exhausted. The soldiers were living, or rather starving, now, upon the poor lean dogs they had taken with them, and even this food was a luxury. At this place, Col. Enos received orders from Arnold, to send back the sick to Boston. He took the opportunity to return himself, with his whole detachment. He was afterward tried for this desertion, by a court-martial, and acquitted, for the reason that the men must otherwise have starved.

But Col. Arnold marched on. For thirty-two days, not a single human dwelling was met with. The army arrived at last upon the mountains, between the Kennebec and the Chaudiere. The little food still left was divided equally, and then the troops were directed to look out as they could for their own living. They discovered, finally, with inconceivable joy, the sources of the Chaudiere, and the first log-houses of the Canadians.

These people received them well, and assisted them. Arnold addressed a proclamation to the Canadians, waited for his rearguard to overtake him, pressed on, and arrived, Nov. 9th, at Point Levy, nearly opposite Quebec. The people of the city were as

much amazed at the sight of him and his men, as if they had been so many goblins.

The English colonel, Maclean, had heard of their coming, however, by a letter which Arnold had given to an Indian on the Kennebec, to carry to Gen. Schuyler. The Indian gave it to Maclean, and the latter removed all his batteaux from the Point Levy side of the river to the other bank. The wind blew a gale, too; and thus the city had time to prepare for defense. All the people of Quebec were immediately armed, and brought within the walls, soldiers or not soldiers, English, French, Scotch, and Irish, regulars and marines.

The wind moderated, and Arnold undertook to pass the river on the night of Nov. 13th, the same day that Montgomery took Montreal. One hundred and fifty men remained to make ladders for scaling the city walls. The rest succeeded in crossing the river. The banks being very steep here, Arnold and his men marched down upon the edge of the river toward Quebec, and climbed the heights of Abraham, close by the city, and almost overlooking it. Here he waited for his 150 ladder men, and hoped that the city would surrender.

They were prepared for him, however; and Maclean not only refused to receive the message requiring him to surrender, but fired upon the bearer of it. Arnold had no cannon, and only six charges of powder to each man. Hearing, therefore, that Maclean was about to sally out upon him, he retired twenty miles up the river, to Point au Tremble. He met on his march the ship in which Governor Carleton was sailing down to Quebec; and heard, when he reached the Point, that he had left it but a few hours before.

Montgomery arrived here, and joined Arnold, on the 1st of December, 1775, after a weary march from Montreal. The weather was excessively cold, and the roads were blocked up with snow. His force was about three hundred men; and never were people more delighted to see each other, than were these three hundred, and the little band of brave fellows who had followed Arnold. Montgomery had brought clothing for the latter; and they stood in great need of it, indeed.

The soldiers now marched in company, and arrived in sight of Quebec on the 5th. A summons was sent to Carleton to surrender;

but he ordered his troops to fire upon the bearer. Montgomery then planted a battery of six cannon within seven hundred paces of the walls. They were laid upon banks of snow and ice; the pieces were small; and the fire had little effect. The snow had now fallen in huge drifts, and the weather was excessively cold. A council of war was called, and an immediate assault on the city was resolved upon.

Two detachments, under Montgomery and Arnold, were to attack the walls of the lower part of the town. This taken, the rest would probably submit without fighting. On the last day of the year 1775, between four and five in the morning, in the midst of a heavy snow-storm, the American columns advanced.

An Irish captain, going his rounds upon the walls of the town, observed the guns fired by the Americans as a signal, and at once caused the drums to beat, and roused the garrison to arms. Montgomery, with his detachment, passing along under Cape Diamond, came to a small battery of cannon. The guard threw down their arms, and fled. The Americans had nearly taken possession of it, but the road was impeded with immense masses of snow. Montgomery, with his own hands, opened a path for his troops. Two hundred of them came up at last, and rushed on. Just then, a cannoneer, who had fled, on seeing the Americans halt, returned to his post, at the little battery, and, taking a match, which happened to be still burning, fired a cannon charged with grape-shot. The Americans were within forty paces. Montgomery dropped dead upon the spot, and his troops soon fled.

Arnold had made an assault, meanwhile, at another point. But he soon received a musket ball in the leg, which splintered the bone; and he was carried off to the hospital, almost by force, as he was unwilling to quit the field. Captain Morgan, with two companies of riflemen, now advanced upon the battery. His sharp-shooters killed many of the English through the embrasures. The guard fled. Morgan rushed forward, and some prisoners were taken. But here the courage of his troops failed them. Morgan alone stood firm. As the morning dawned, he rallied his riflemen with a voice of thunder, and they pushed forward. A detachment sallied out upon

them, at this moment, from the walls; and the English captain summoned them to lay down their arms. Morgan aimed a musket at him, and shot him dead. The English retreated; a hot skirmish ensued. Ladders were planted against the walls, but a terrible fire was poured down upon the men who attempted to ascend them. A detachment of the British now assaulted the Americans on another side, and they were compelled, at last, to surrender.

Arnold, with his remaining force, retreated three miles from the city, and intrenched himself. Governor Carleton kept within the walls of Quebec, satisfied with waiting till reinforcements should reach him from England, in the spring. So ended the famous assault upon Quebec.

A braver man than Montgomery never fell on a field of battle. The whole country wept for his loss. Even the Canadians lamented him, and Carleton buried his body with all the honors of war. Colonel Barre, and Fox and Burke, the great orators of England, pronounced his praises in the English parliament. Congress ordered a monument to be procured from France, and erected to his memory.

We come now to 1776. In the winter and spring of this year, Boston was still surrounded by the American army under Washington. The British in the town, meanwhile, were reduced to great extremity. For fuel, they used the timber of houses, which they pulled down for the purpose. They were in want of food. Armed ships were ordered to Georgia, to buy up rice; but the people of that province opposed them with so much success, that, of eleven vessels, only two got off with their cargoes.

The old South church, in Washingtonstreet, was entirely destroyed inside, and used as a riding-room for a regiment of dragoons. The pulpit and pews were taken out, and the floor covered with earth. The frame-work of one pew, carving, silk furniture, and all, was taken out, and used for a pig-sty. The North church, so called, was entirely demolished.

All this time, notwithstanding there was much suffering in the town, the English officers and the Tories contrived to pass the time, when they were not fighting the Americans, in dancing and other amusements. They had a small theatre, and in the evening

of Feb. 8th were acting a farce, called "The Blockade of Boston." One figure, meant to ridicule Washington, was rigged out in the most uncouth style, with a large wig, and a long rusty sword. Another character was an American sergeant, in his country dress, with an old gun on his shoulder, eight feet long. At the moment this figure appeared, one of the British sergeants came running on the stage, and cried out, "The Yankees are attacking our works on Bunker Hill." The audience took it for a part of the play; but Gen. Howe knew it was no joke, and called out, "Officers, to your alarm-posts!"

The American army at this time about Boston was but little better provided for than the English. Many fell sick with fatigue and exposure. They had provisions enough from the country, to be sure, while the English troops were said to be living wholly on salt meat, and the Boston Tories upon horse-flesh. But the whole number, in January, was reduced to less than ten thousand; and these, having enlisted for a few months only, were every day going home.

At one time, there were hardly men enough to man the lines. As for powder, they had but four rounds to a man; and but four small brass cannon, and a few old iron pieces full of holes, with the wood-work broken off. These were fitted into logs, like the barrel of a gun into the stock, and lifted up and down, and wheeled about, in this way, but to some good purpose. The British laughed at these machines, at first, but they soon found them no laughing matter. They kept up a continual cannonade, in return; firing about two thousand shot and bomb-shells, it is said, in the course of a few months. But the whole of this firing killed only twelve Americans.

There were two cannon kept in a gun-house opposite the Mall, in Boston, at the corner of West street, in the care of one Paddock. The British found it out, and Paddock promised to deliver them up. A party of school-boys undertook to prevent him from doing it. The school-house was the next building to the gun-house, separated only by a yard, common to both, and surrounded by a high fence. The boys contrived to enter the gun-house windows, in the rear, in spite of an English guard which had been placed before the building. The guns were taken off their

carriages, carried into the school-room, and placed in a large box under the master's desk, in which wood was kept. The English soon missed the guns, and began to search the yard. They entered the school-house, and examined it all over, excepting the box, which the master placed his lane foot upon. They were too polite to disturb him, and excused him from rising. The boys looked on, but lisped not a word. The guns remained in the box for a fortnight, when one of the largest boys carried them away in a trunk, one evening, on a wheelbarrow. A blacksmith at the south end kept them some time under a pile of coal; and they were at last put into a boat at night, and conveyed safely to the American camp.

The condition of the American army in the early part of the year 1776 was miserable. They soon after received five brass cannon, small arms of all kinds, cargoes of provisions, &c. These were all captured from the British, off the coast, by American privateers.

In England, the year 1776 opened with new resolutions, on the part of the ministry, and the majority of parliament, to continue the war. The party called the Whigs were violently opposed to it; but the Tories, the ministry, and the king regarded the Americans as rebels, and resolved to spare no pains to punish them severely. They found it difficult to enlist soldiers in England, for the war was unpopular with the lower classes. Recruiting officers were sent about, the royal standard was raised in all the cities, and large bounties and wages were promised; but to little purpose. In Scotland, some thousands were raised; and a bargain was made with some of the small states of Germany, for about seventeen thousand German troops. These mercenaries were called Hessians, because a part of them came from Hesse.

In the mean time, the American army at Boston began to form plans for seizing upon the town, for taking the British garrison prisoners, and for destroying their fleet in the harbor. But they kept quiet in their quarters till March, 1776; the British now and then sallying out on the American lines; and the latter returning the compliment, by playing upon the town with their rusty cannon.

During this month, the news came of the

doings of the ministry in England, and of the king's violent speech at the close of the session of parliament. The whole American army was greatly excited. The speech was publicly burnt in the camp. At the same time, the red ground of the American flag was changed, and, in place of it, thirteen blue and white stripes were inserted, as an emblem of the thirteen colonies that were united in the struggle for liberty. These stripes are still retained in our national flag.

There was the same feeling in Congress as in the army. Stimulated by the conduct of the king and parliament, they resolved, from this time, to follow up the war, at all hazards. Hearing that an attack would be made upon New York, they urged General Washington to press, as closely as possible, the siege of Boston, so that the British might not be able to spare troops to send against New York. He wished to attack the town at once, but most of his generals opposed this plan; and he concluded to fortify the heights of Dorchester, which commanded the entire city on the south side.

Heavy batteries were opened from the American works in Cambridge, Roxbury, and Lechmere Point. The bombs fell into the town every hour, and houses were constantly set on fire by them. All this was to employ the British upon that side, while the Americans, on the night of the 4th of March, secretly marched over Dorchester neck.

The frost rendered the roads good, and such was the silence of the march, and the tremendous roar kept up by the batteries, that 2,000 troops passed over, with three hundred loaded carts, and nothing was known of it till morning. Had the British suspected this manœuvre, they would have taken measures to prevent it. By four o'clock in the morning, two fortifications were raised upon the heights.

The British were amazed. "These rebels have done more in one night," said General Howe, who now commanded, "than my army would have done in a week." A terrible cannonade now opened from the British forts and the shipping, upon the heights. But few men, however, were killed; and the Americans worked on in high spirits, taking no notice of the cannon-balls, as they came ploughing the ground about them.

General Howe saw that he must either leave the town, or dislodge the Americans from the heights. He resolved upon the latter; but a long storm and a very high sea prevented his troops from crossing over. He finally concluded to give up the town, and transport his whole force to Halifax, in Nova Scotia.

Knowing that his shipping might be prevented from passing out of the harbor, by the American fortifications, he prepared a great mass of stuff for setting fire to the town, and then proposed to Washington and the selectmen, that if his troops were suffered to pass safely, the town should be left standing. This was agreed to.

He had 150 transports in the harbor; and he embarked on board these, on the 17th of March, taking with him 1,500 of the American Tories. Never was such a scene of confusion, plunder, hurrying, crying, and quarreling; there were fathers bearing their baggage, mothers leading their children, beasts of burden loaded with furniture. The vessels were crowded. The British were some days getting out of the bay; and had the pleasure, meanwhile, of seeing the American army march into Boston, with great rejoicing.

The siege had lasted sixteen months. Provisions had become so scarce that fresh fish sold at a shilling a pound; geese at nine shillings apiece; turkeys at two dollars; hams at two shillings a pound; sheep at six dollars each; and apples at six dollars a barrel. Two hundred and fifty pieces of cannon were left behind; also a quantity of wheat and other grain, a good deal of coal for fuel, and 150 horses.

The English soldiers now began to think that the Americans were an enemy worth conquering, and that powder was not absolutely wasted upon them, as upon so many crows. They were provoked by the treatment they had received from the sharpshooters at Breed's Hill, and the rough compliments of the old cannon.

The Americans, on the other hand, now entered upon the war with their whole hearts. They were irritated more than ever at the conduct of the English ministry, in hiring the Hessian soldiers. This irritation was not allayed by the bill which had just passed

through parliament, compelling all persons found in American vessels, to serve on board his majesty's ships of war.

Thus from this time, the war, on both sides, assumed a more determined character. A strong English force was sent to relieve Carleton, in Canada. Arnold's whole force before Quebec now amounted to only 3,000 men. Many of these were sick of the small-pox. General Thomas died of the disease. The river was clear of ice, April, 1776, and English re-enforcements were expected every day by the governor. An attack was made upon Quebec, but it failed of success; and Arnold was obliged to break up his camp and retreat, leaving his baggage behind. Governor Carleton pursued, till the Americans reached the mouth of the river Sorel.

About the last of May, English forces arrived at Quebec, amounting to 13,000 men, commanded by Burgoyne, Phillips, and a German general, called Reidesel. Arnold, meanwhile, was skirmishing with the Canadians and Indians, about Montreal and the Sorel. In a short time, he went down the St. Lawrence to Trois Rivières, where there was a large body of English.

He expected to surprise them in the night, but was misled by his guide; and when he arrived late in the morning, the enemy was drawn up in battle array. A skirmish began, and the Americans were defeated. They fled over a wild, swampy country of woods, leaving many prisoners behind them, and, having crossed the St. Lawrence, at last arrived at Fort St. John, on the Sorel. The English pursued them to this place. Arnold's force was too small to resist a siege. He therefore set fire to the magazine and barracks, and retreated farther south to Crown Point. The English, having lost their batteaux, could pursue him no farther, and soon after returned to Quebec.

The Americans had suffered exceedingly in the retreat. They sometimes waded in the water to the waist, and dragged the loaded batteaux up the rapids by main strength. Two regiments, at one time, had not a single man in health; another had only six, and a fourth only forty. On the first of July, they reached Crown Point. And thus ended the courageous but unfortunate expedition to Canada.

During the summer of 1776, Crown Point was taken by the British; and the Americans, now commanded by Gen. Gates, withdrew to Ticonderoga. A fleet was built on the lake, at Skenesborough, consisting of a sloop, three schooners, and six gondolas, which were large flat vessels. They carried, in the whole, more than 100 guns, and more than 400 men. Arnold commanded the fleet.

By the month of October the British had collected a much larger naval force; and, as nothing could be done, by way of invading the provinces from Canada, till Lake Champlain should be cleared of the Americans, they sailed up the lake and engaged them. The two fleets fought till night. Arnold then very skillfully made his escape, and in the morning not an American sail was to be seen.

The British fleet followed on, however, and found them again off Crown Point. Some of the American vessels escaped to Ticonderoga. Seven of them remained. They were attacked, and the action continued some hours. Arnold was determined that his vessels should not be taken. He contrived, therefore, to run them on shore, and there they were blown up. He did not leave his own vessel till she was wrapped in flames. Lake Champlain was now in the power of the British; but Gates and Arnold had prevented them, strong as their force was, from invading the provinces farther south. It was now too late in the season to attempt it.

The British, finding that the provinces of North Carolina and Virginia were too strong for them, determined to make an attack upon the city of Charleston, in South Carolina. Admiral Parker and General Clinton reached Charleston harbor on the 28th of June, and with eleven large vessels of war commenced a tremendous attack upon Fort Moultrie. This stood upon Sullivan's Island, six miles from the city, and was built of a kind of wood called palmetto, so spongy and soft that the balls were buried in it, and no splinters were thrown off.

The fort was defended by sixty pieces of cannon. Ship after ship poured in their stunning broadsides. The whole harbor seemed but a sheet of flame. The Americans aimed well, and every shot had its effect. Some of the English vessels were soon stranded. The Thunderer, after firing more than sixty

bombs, was disabled. The Bristol was almost destroyed, and a great number of men were killed.

The fire of the fort suddenly stopped. The powder was exhausted. The enemy thought themselves sure of the victory, and the ships moved nearer, with their flags flying and their drums beating. But the Americans were soon supplied from the shore, and the battle lasted, hotter than ever, till seven in the evening. The English drew off in the night, and the enterprise was abandoned. This defense of Fort Moultrie was one of the most gallant actions of the war. Every man and every officer fought like a hero. Congress voted thanks to the whole garrison, and to several of the officers by name. A sword was presented to Sergeant Jasper. In the heat of the battle, the staff of the fort flag had been cut down by a ball. It fell from the parapet to the ground below. Jasper sprang after it, fastened it to the rammer of a cannon, and hoisted it again, amid the fire of the enemy.

General Clinton arrived at Staten Island, off the harbor of New York, about the 12th of July. General Howe, with the army which left Boston for Halifax in March, had taken possession of the island on the second of the month. Two hundred of the inhabitants enlisted under his banner. Some of the New Jersey people came into his camp, and Governor Tryon of New York visited him, informed him of the state of the province, and encouraged him to believe that everything must soon yield to his army.

The British plan now was, to direct the whole English force upon the province of New York, and to make it, with the city of New York, the centre of all their operations in America. From this point, they could march south upon the southern provinces; here they could receive stores from England by water, and provisions from Staten and Long Islands; and here they could ascend the Hudson, and meet Burgoyne, in his route south from Canada.

The revolution in America had reached a point from which it could not turn backward. The feelings of a great part of the people were alienated from England, and a deep hostility was planted in their bosoms. They had originally asked for justice, and that was de-

nied. Oppression followed, and that they resisted. Then came the British armies, with fire and sword, to consume their dwellings, and shed their blood. A high-spirited people were not likely to look on these things but with resentment. Their love and respect for England were originally very strong. These, indeed, lasted up to the period of which we are now speaking. But now all thoughts of reconciliation were abandoned. The people no longer asked for redress; they cast off their allegiance to the king, and determined to be free; the "spirit of '76," which is often alluded to, was the earnest voice of a nation, resolving that they would risk everything for independence.

In June, 1776, Congress had chosen five of their members to consider the great question, whether the colonies should declare themselves a free and independent nation. These were Jefferson, Adams, Franklin, Sherman, and Livingston. They reported in favor of so doing; and Congress agreed with them. Independence was solemnly declared on the 4th of July. The declaration was signed by John Hancock, president, and afterward by every other member of Congress.

This declaration has become famous among all nations. It was drawn up by Thomas Jefferson; and then it was a great deal discussed by the members of Congress, and amendments and alterations were made. It was a long time before Congress could satisfy themselves. One gentleman objected to one word, and another to another word, till, as Franklin said to Mr. Jefferson, it fared like the sign of a hatter in Philadelphia, composed in these words, "John Thompson, hatter, makes and sells hats for ready money," with a figure of a hat at the end. Before nailing it over his door, the hatter submitted it to his friends for correction. One thought the word "hatter" of no use, it being followed by the words "makes hats." So "hatter" was struck out. A second said that "makes" might as well be omitted; his customers would not care who made the hats. A third thought "ready money" was useless; it was not the custom of the place to sell for anything but money. These were brushed out, and it now read, "John Thompson sells hats." "Sells hats!" said the next man the hatter met; "why, nobody will expect you

to give them away." "Sells" was knocked out, and then "hats," because there was one painted on the board. This, with "John Thompson," was all that remained. The declaration was not trimmed quite so badly as this. It satisfied everybody at last.

This story, therefore, only applies to the manner in which the Declaration of Independence was discussed in Congress. As it was finally passed and signed by the members of Congress, it was one of the most noble efforts of the human mind. The people received and read it with great joy. Independence was proclaimed, with great parade, at Philadelphia, on the 8th. Cannon were fired, the bells rung, bonfires were kindled, and the people seemed to be mad with joy. On the 11th, the declaration was read to each brigade of the American army, then assembled at New York, and received with prodigious peals of applause. The same evening, the statue of George III., erected in 1770, was dragged through the streets, by the 'sons of liberty;' and the lead it was made of was melted into musket-balls.

At Baltimore, an immense multitude received the declaration in similar manner; the air ringing with shouts and the roar of cannon. The king's effigy was made the sport of the populace, and burnt in the public square.

In Boston, the declaration was read from the gallery of the state-house, to an immense crowd, gathered from all quarters. Men, women, and children assembled to hear it, and every moment the air resounded with the shouts of the multitude. The troops were drawn up, finely dressed and armed, in King street, which from that time was called State street. The bells rang, the people shouted, the cannon thundered and blazed, and the striped banners waved from the steeples, till the whole air seemed to be alive. In the evening, all the ensigns of royalty, English lions, sceptres, or crowns, whether graven or painted, were torn in pieces, and burnt in State street.

The Virginian convention voted that the king's name should be struck from all the public prayers. They ordered that the great seal of that commonwealth should represent Virtue as the guardian genius of the province, resting one hand upon her lance, holding

with the other a sword, and Trampling upon Tyranny, in the shape of a prostrate man, with a crown fallen from his head, and a broken chain in his hand.

Such was the manner in which the declaration of independence was received by the Americans. They had now declared themselves to the world as a free people; but ere their freedom could be established, they had yet to pass through a long, bloody, and desolating war.

General Washington now occupied New York and the opposite shore of Long Island, with seventeen thousand troops. On the 22d of August, the English landed, in great force, on the island, and a very hot battle was fought among the hills and woods. A whole regiment of fine young men from Maryland were killed, some cannon were lost, and the Americans retreated to the northern part of the island.

Here the stormy weather kept the enemy from attacking the camp again. But, fearing an assault every moment, the Americans concluded to pass over to New York, and join the rest of the army. This was done in the night of August 29th. They kindled up circles of bright fires in their camp, to deceive the enemy, and started off in their boats at eleven o'clock in the evening.

They were so near the British all the while, as to hear the sound of their pickaxes, and now and then the shout of a British soldier, as he walked on guard. They were neither seen nor heard, however. The fleet of boats moved off from the shore, like an army of ghosts; not a word was said, no drums beat, no bugles rang, no colors waved in the breeze.

A fair wind favored the enterprise, and bore the boats fleetly across. In the morning, at eight, when the fog cleared up which had covered them in the passage, and the sun shone out bright and warm upon the green shores, the wooded hill-tops of the islands, and the smooth surface of the bay, the American army had vanished. The camp was deserted, the fires had gone down, and nothing was to be seen but a few distant boats, which had come back for the cannon.

Previous to the retreat of the Americans, several skirmishes were fought between the two armies. Two posts, one belonging to the English, and the other to the Americans,

were within half gun-shot of each other, and only separated by a small creek. It was at last agreed between the British and American officers, that the sentinels should not fire upon each other, as they went their rounds. So they became very civil. "Give us a quid of your tobacco, my good friend," cried the English guard to the American sentinel. "Oh! certainly," said the latter. He drew his twisted roll from his pocket, and tossed it across the creek to the Englishman, who gnawed off a quid, and threw it back again.

The British army now pressed the Americans with great activity; the latter were driven back from point to point. They left the city of New York, at last, and the British entered it. A few days after, a terrible fire raged in the place, and consumed more than a thousand houses. Washington retreated into the back country. The British scoured the province of New York with their troops, and covered all the shores with their vessels. Several strong forts were taken, together with their garrisons. Nothing could be done to oppose them. The Americans were never so much discouraged.

General Washington with his army marched into New Jersey, and attempted to harass the British army there, under Cornwallis. But they were too strong, and Washington was obliged to retreat night and day: over mountain and valley, he fled before them. The time the militia had enlisted for was short, and many of them went home. Whole companies deserted, and the army was so small in December, that Washington knew every man by his name. They were so nearly naked and ragged, too, and looked so miserable, that their own countrymen would not join them. They were driven, week after week, up and down the banks of the Delaware. The infantry left the frozen ground bloody behind them, with their bare and sore feet. They were so closely pursued that they could scarcely cross a stream, and beat down the bridges after crossing it, before the enemy came galloping up on the other side.

The British cavalry traversed the country, with their large, fine horses, and elegant uniforms. The hundred or two horsemen of the American army were mounted upon wretched, worn-out horses, so lean and frightful as to

be the constant theme of ridicule with the British soldiers. The riders were not much better. Ragamuffins had become a common name for them.

These were gloomy times; and the American people began to fear that they would be crushed in their struggle for freedom. Many were entirely disheartened. Some persons basely deserted the cause of their country, in this hour of trouble, and went over to the enemy. But Washington remained firm and undismayed. While other minds were shaken with doubt and fear, he remained steadfast and resolved. Looking deeply into the future, and placing his trust in Heaven, he seemed to penetrate the clouds that shed their gloom upon the land, and to see beyond them a brighter and a happier day.

He always appeared before his soldiers with a smile, and fought or fasted with them, as necessity required. He inspired all around him with courage, and wrote many letters to Congress, entreating them to make great exertions to send him assistance. They endeavored to rouse the country, by representing to the people the necessity of an immediate increase of the army. This appeal was not without its effect. Philadelphia, in a very short time, furnished Washington with a regiment of fifteen hundred noble fellows who were resolved to support him to the last. They had been accustomed to the gay company and high living of the city; but they shouldered the musket,—slept, with a mere blanket around them, on the frozen ground, or in sheds and barns, and suffered everything with the poorest of the army.

The British withdrew into winter quarters. They occupied the villages for many miles, up and down, on the eastern side of the Delaware. Washington was below them, on the other side. They were tired of pursuing him; and they believed that his army would soon dwindle away, and the whole country be conquered. They scarcely took the trouble to set guards at night.

But Washington watched them like a lynx. On the night of the 25th of December, 1776, he crossed the Delaware with a large part of his army. The night was dark, stormy, and cold. The river was crowded with broken ice, rushing together, and sweeping down upon its swift current. But, notwithstand-

ing these difficulties and dangers, the river was passed by the American troops, and they marched on to Trenton, which place they entered at eight in the morning. A large body of Hessians were stationed there. They were completely surprised; but they fought bravely for a short time. Five hundred cavalry made their escape; but some fine cannon and more than a thousand prisoners were taken by the Americans. Cornwallis, who lay a few miles off, thought so little of the American 'ragamuffins,' at this time, that he mistook the noise of the cannon at Trenton for thunder.

The British army were amazed at this unexpected event. Washington started off for the mountains of New Jersey, the British close upon his rear. They encamped so near him one evening that they thought it impossible for him to escape. They put off attacking him, however, till the next morning. The Americans kindled up their fires, as usual, posted sentinels enough to keep up the show of a camp, and then marched off at one o'clock without noise. They reached Princeton at daybreak, and fell upon the British there so suddenly and so fiercely, that sixty were killed, and three hundred taken prisoners. Their commanding officer had some fears of an attack, and had written to the commander of the British army, a day or two before, for a re-enforcement. "Don't be alarmed," was the answer; "with a corporal and six men, you may scour the whole country; don't be alarmed." They found themselves mistaken, however, as we have seen. Washington now formed a camp at Morristown, and militia came to him from all parts.

The British treated their prisoners with cruelty. Hundreds were confined in the New York prisons. They were often insulted as rebels. A party of them was once brought before Gen. Howe, to be tried. An English gentleman pleaded their youth in their favor. "It won't do," said the general; "hang up the rascals! hang them up!" They were only carted through the streets, however, seated on coffins. Halters were tied about their necks, and the British soldiers hooted at them.

While these things were going on, late in the year 1776, Sir Peter Parker scoured the coasts of Rhode Island with a large squadron,

and overran the whole province. Meanwhile, too, a man by the name of Stuart was sent, by the British, among the Indians in the high, wild lands back of Virginia and the other southern colonies. The Cherokees were persuaded by him to make war; and they rushed in upon the settlements of the whites, burning the villages, and scalping men, women, and children. But a large American force soon marched into their own country. Their wigwams were burnt to the ground, and their cornfields trampled under foot. They were frightened at last, and begged for peace.

It once happened, during the expedition against the Indians, that the Americans having marched a long way among the hills, Major Pickens was sent ahead with twenty-five men, as a scouting party, to examine the country. One morning, as he and his party waded through the tall grass on the bank of a stream called Little River, more than two hundred Indians came rushing out on a ridge of land just above them. "Let us scalp them," cried the Indian leader to his men; "they are too few to shoot." But Major Pickens was prepared for their onset. His men were sharpshooters, and each had his rifle. He ordered them not to fire until he did; to take sure aim; and having fired, to bury themselves in the grass, and load their rifles. The Indian chief soon came up within twenty-five yards of the little band, yelling, and shaking his tomahawk. Pickens stretched out his rifle, took deliberate aim, and shot him dead. The twenty-five brave riflemen fired. The Indians fell on all sides. They yelled more than ever, with fury and terror, dropped their tomahawks, and fell back among the trees. Even there the rifles were too sure for them. Not an Indian could show himself over a log or a rock, but a bullet instantly whistled through him. One of them was seen running his gun through the roots of a fallen tree: a rifleman aimed at him as coolly as if he had been a wooden mark, hit him precisely in the nose, and laid him flat on his back. Another Indian lifted the dead body, and was running off with it, when another rifleman fired, and killed him. Dozens of them were picked off in this way, and the rest fled.

A few such skirmishes as these made the

Indians soon tired of fighting the Americans, to which they had been instigated by the British. The next year, when an attempt was made to set them upon the white inhabitants along the frontiers, they replied to the British emissaries, that "the hatchet was buried so deep that they could not find it."

In the spring of 1777, General Howe amused himself by sending out detachments from his camp to ravage various parts of the country. On the 26th of April, Governor Tryon embarked at New York with a detachment, sailed through the sound, and landed at Fairfield, Conn. His forces marched through the country in battle array, and reached Danbury in twenty hours. As they came, the few militia who were there fled at full speed. The British began to burn and demolish everything except the houses of the Tories. Eighteen houses were consumed; and eight hundred barrels of pork and beef, two thousand barrels of flour, and seventeen hundred tents were carried off or destroyed. But the militia began to muster from the country roundabout.

At Ridgefield, Gen. Arnold blocked up the road in front of the British, who were now returning. He had with him about five hundred men. These brave fellows, who had marched fifteen or twenty miles in the rain, kept up a brisk fire upon the enemy as they came on, and stood their ground till the British formed a lodgment upon a hill at their left hand. They were then obliged to give way. The British rushed on, and a whole platoon fired at Gen. Arnold, who was not more than thirty yards distant. His horse was killed. A soldier advanced to run him through with his bayonet; Arnold shot him dead with his pistol, and escaped. The British lost more than two hundred men, but made good their retreat to the sound. Congress presented Gen. Arnold with a fine war-horse, richly caparisoned, for his gallantry.

By way of retaliation, on the 24th of May, Col. Meigs, an American, crossed the sound with one hundred and seventy men, in whale-boats, and fell upon the enemy at Sag Harbor, on Long Island. They burned twelve vessels, destroyed a large quantity of forage, killed six men, and brought off ninety prisoners, without losing one of their own men. They returned to Guilford, having traversed the

distance of ninety miles in twenty-five hours from the time of their departure. Congress ordered an elegant sword to be presented to Colonel Meigs.

Gen. Howe made great efforts, in the spring of 1777, to persuade the Americans to enlist under him. They were promised large wages and bounties; but very few of them could be wheedled in this way. They hated the German mercenaries even more than they did the English. But great numbers of militia crowded to Washington's camp, at Middle Brook, New Jersey. His army amounted to fifteen thousand men.

He was so strongly intrenched among the hills, that Howe dared not attack him. The summer was spent in marching to and fro, in New Jersey, without effecting much. But in July, the British mustered a force of sixteen thousand men, at New York. These left there, soon after, with a large fleet. An attack was expected everywhere upon the coast; but no one knew whither they were bound. Having been off at sea, with high winds, for a long time, they entered Chesapeake Bay at last, and landed at Turkey Point. They left that place Sept. 3d, and, marching toward Philadelphia, came up with Washington's army at a place called Chad's Ford, on the river Brandywine. On the 11th, they had a warm skirmish, and the Americans were driven back. Congress removed to Yorktown, Virginia; and Howe entered Philadelphia, in great triumph, Sept. 26th.

The Americans were defeated again at Germantown, on the 4th of October. The battle began early in the morning, when nothing could be seen farther than thirty yards. During the whole action, which lasted nearly three hours, the firing on both sides was directed by the flash of each other's guns. The smoke of the cannon and musketry, mingled with the thick fog, rested over the armies in clouds. The Americans saved their artillery, even to a single cannon, which had been dismounted. This piece belonged to Gen. Greene's division; he stopped in the midst of the retreat, and coolly ordered it to be placed in a wagon. In this manner it was carried off.

Gen. Greene's aide-de-camp, Major Burnet, wore a long cue in this battle, as the fashion then was in the army. As he turned round

to attend to the cannon just mentioned, his cue was cut off by a musket-ball from the enemy. "Don't hurry, my dear major," cried Greene, laughing; "pray dismount, and get that long cue of yours; don't be in haste." The English were driving after them at a tremendous rate, cavalry, cannon, and all. The major jumped from his horse, however, and picked up his cue. Just at that moment, a shot took off a large powdered curl from the head of Greene. The major, in turn, advised him to stop and pick it up; but he rode on quietly, and was the last man on the field.

About this time, a smart action was fought at Red Bank, on the Jersey side of the Delaware, seven miles below Philadelphia. The Americans had erected batteries here, and upon Mud Island, half a mile distant, in the middle of the river. Nothing, therefore, belonging to the British, could pass up and down between their camp, which was now at Philadelphia, and their fleet in the river below. Two ranges of chevaux-de-frise were placed in the channel. They stretched from the island nearly to the bank.

Howe sent down two thousand Germans, under Col. Donop, to attack the Red Bank redoubt. This was defended by four hundred men. This number was so small that half the redoubt was left vacant, and a line was drawn through the middle of it. The enemy came on fiercely enough, with a brisk cannonade; entered the empty part of the redoubt, and shouted for victory. But it was now the garrison's turn. They poured out such a tremendous fire that the Germans, after a brief conflict, fled, with the loss of four hundred men. Their brave commander, Donop, was killed. Late in the season, these fortifications in the river were abandoned.

Washington retired into winter quarters, at Valley Forge, sixteen miles from Philadelphia. His army might have been tracked, by the blood of their feet, in marching, without shoes or stockings, over the hard, frozen ground. Thousands of them had no blankets, and were obliged to spend the night in trying to get warm, instead of sleeping. They erected log-huts for lodgings. For a fortnight, they nearly starved. They were sometimes without bread and without meat. A person passing by the huts of these poor

fellows in the evening, might have seen them, through the crevices, stretching their cold hands over the fire, and a soldier occasionally coming in or going out, with nothing but a blanket on his shoulders. "No pay, no clothes, no provisions, no rum," said they to each other. But they loved Washington and their country too well to desert them in these trying times.

While a British force lay on the west side of Rhode Island, under haughty and oppressive Gen. Prescott, during this last season (1777), one Barton, a militia major, learned their situation from a deserter, and planned an adventure. He collected his regiment, and asked, which of them would risk their lives with him. If any were willing, they should advance two paces. Every man came forward; they knew Barton well for a brave and trusty leader. He chose thirty-six of them, mustered five whale-boats, and started off at nine o'clock in the evening. The men promised to follow him at all hazards. He directed them to sit perfectly still, like statues, and obey his orders. Barton's boat went ahead, distinguished by a long pole run out from the stem, with a handkerchief tied to it.

As they rowed by Prudence Island, they heard the English guard cry "All's well." A noise was heard on the main land, like the trampling of horses; but, as the night was very dark, nothing could be seen, and no man whispered a word. They now landed, and set off silently for Prescott's lodgings, which were a mile from the shore. Their way led by a house occupied by a company of troopers. "Who comes there?" cried the sentinel. They said nothing; and a few trees standing before them, their number could not be seen. They moved on. "Who comes there?" muttered the sentinel again.—"Friends," replied Barton.—"Friends," said the soldier, "advance, and give the countersign."—"Poh! poh!" said Barton; we have no countersign. Have you seen any rascals to-night?" He rushed upon the guard, at this moment, like a lion, and threatened to blow his brains out, if he uttered a syllable. The poor fellow was horribly frightened, and they took him along with them. They soon reached the house, burst in the door, and rushed forward. A British soldier, with only a shirt on, rushing out at the same time, ran for the cavalry

house, to give the alarm. The men would not believe him, but laughed at him for being frightened at ghosts. He confessed that the creature (Barton) was clothed in white; and so it passed off.

"Is Gen. Prescott here?" shouted Barton, to the master of the house.—"No, sir! oh no, sir!" said the poor fellow, scared almost out of his wits. Nobody in the house seemed to know anything about Prescott.—"Then," shouted Barton, at the head of the staircase, "I will burn the house down about your ears." And he seized a flaming brand from the fireplace.—"What noise is this?" cried somebody in the next chamber. Barton opened the door, and found an elderly gentleman sitting up in bed. "Are you Gen. Prescott, sir?"—"Yes, sir."—"You are my prisoner, then," said Barton. Prescott was half dressed by the soldiers in a moment, and carried off to the shore, with a Major Barrington, who had leaped from a chamber window.

The captors had scarcely rowed through the English fleet, when a discharge of cannon gave the alarm. Fifty boats pursued them in the dark. They escaped, however, and, in six hours from the time of starting, landed at Warwick Point. "You have made a monstrous bold push, major," said Prescott, as they stepped ashore.—"Thank you, sir," said Barton, with a bow; "we have done as well as we could." This capture occasioned great joy throughout the country.

Having seen Washington's army in their winter quarters at Valley Forge, we shall now follow the northern army, under Gates, and the English under Burgoyne, through the campaign of 1777. The latter intended to break his way from Canada, up the river Sorel, through Lakes Champlain and George, and the river Hudson, to New York. He had under his command one of the finest armies ever seen. The Americans were driven before him, from Champlain almost to Albany. Burgoyne pressed after them; but his route lay through the woods, and the Americans cut large trees on both sides of the road, so that they fell across it, and blocked it up entirely. The country was so covered with marshes, and crossed by creeks, that the British were obliged to build no less than forty bridges; one of them was a log bridge, extending two miles across a swamp.

July 30th, Burgoyne reached Fort Edward, on the Hudson.

He had with his army a large number of Indian warriors, who ravaged the country in a horrible manner. One of them murdered a beautiful American girl, Miss McRea. She was the daughter of a Tory, and was to be married to a young English officer. The latter sent two Indians to guide her across the wood from the fort to his own station. They quarreled on the way, which should have special charge of her, and one of them, to terminate the dispute, sunk his tomahawk in her head.

The spirit of the whole country was greatly excited by these things; and an army of thirteen thousand men was collected under Gen. Schuyler, to oppose Burgoyne. The command was afterward given to Gen. Gates. Meanwhile, a British force, under Gen. St. Leger, had crossed Lake Ontario, from the St. Lawrence, and laid siege to Fort Schuyler, on the southern side. Gen. Herkimer marched northward with eight hundred militia, to relieve it. He fell into an ambuscade, however, in the woods, and was killed. In his last moments, though mortally wounded, he was seen sitting on a stump, still encouraging his men. They stood firm, and several of the British Indians fell at their first fire. The rest were so enraged, that they turned upon the Tories and the British, and murdered several of them. The battle was heard at the fort, and two hundred and fifty of the Americans came out to re-enforce the detachment. The British were wholly routed. The Indians fled, howling like wild beasts, and left their kettles, blankets, tomahawks, and deer-skins behind.

But St. Leger, with his Indians and Tories, still besieged Fort Schuyler. Gen. Arnold was sent, with one thousand men, to attack them. But this force was too small, and the Americans had recourse to a laughable stratagem. Col. Brooks, afterward governor of Massachusetts, seized upon one Cuyler, a Tory, who owned a large farm-house. He was in great terror lest the Americans should plunder him; but Brooks agreed to let him go, and spare his property, if he would travel to Fort Schuyler, and tell the British force there, that Arnold was coming upon them with an immense army. Cuyler consented.

He bored his coat through in two or three places, in the skirts, and made all haste across the woods to the British camp. He informed the Indians that Arnold was rushing upon them with a tremendous force; he said he had fled before them for his life, and showed the bullet-holes in his old coat, in proof of his story. The Indians were frightened. Nothing could persuade them to stay with St. Leger. "You told us," said they, "there would be no fighting for us; that we should smoke our pipes; and when you had taken the prisoners in the fort, we were to have the pleasure of cutting their throats. But this won't do." Accordingly, seven or eight hundred immediately left him. He was himself so alarmed that he fled with his troops, and left his baggage behind him. Two Indian chiefs, who, it seems, understood the plot, followed them in their march, and played jokes upon the officers. One of the chiefs had loitered behind; and just as the officers reached a deep, muddy place, he came running up to them, out of breath, and cried out, "They are coming! they are coming!" The soldiers threw down their knapsacks, and plunged through the mire as fast as they could go. St. Leger himself was plastered with mud from head to foot. In this way, Fort Schuyler was relieved from the siege without bloodshed.

About the middle of August, Burgoyne sent a detachment of five hundred Hessians and one hundred Indians, under Col. Baum, to take possession of a collection of American provisions, at Bennington, in Vermont. But Gen. Stark was on hand, luckily, with eight hundred New Hampshire and Vermont militia. Col. Baum, finding this force greater than his own, threw up temporary breastworks for defense, and sent to Burgoyne for re-enforcements. Several skirmishes followed, in which the Americans had the advantage. Animated by success, they at length ventured to make a general attack upon the breastworks of the enemy, though they were without cannon, and destitute even of bayonets. The Hessians fought very bravely for two hours. But they were now opposed by still braver men. The Americans rushed into the very flash of their cannon and musketry. Stark had said, at the outset of the battle, "My fellow-soldiers, we conquer to-day, or

this night Moll Stark is a widow." Such deep resolution seemed to be in the breast of every man. They could not be resisted. Multitudes of the enemy fell before their keen and well directed fire. Baum himself was killed, and most of his detachment either lost their lives, or were taken prisoners.

The Americans, not expecting another enemy, had dispersed themselves after the battle. Suddenly, a re-enforcement of several hundred British troops, under Col. Breyman, arrived at Bennington. The Americans were now near losing all they had gained. But it happened that a regiment, under Col. Warner, reached the place soon after. These, with the militia, immediately made an attack upon the enemy. They fought till sunset, when the British retreated, and, under cover of the night, the greater part effected their escape. In these two engagements, four hundred of the enemy were killed and wounded, six hundred were taken prisoners, and two hundred and fifty dragoon swords, eight loads of baggage, and twenty horses fell into the hands of the Americans.

A Vermont clergyman, at the commencement of the first day's battle, mounted a stump, and prayed for the Americans. The British heard him, and fired at him. The stump was bored through with their bullets, but the clergyman was unhurt. He stepped down. "Now give me a gun," said he; and he fired the first shot on the American side.

An old farmer in the neighborhood had five sons in the battle. He was told the next day that one of them had come to a miserable end. "What!" cried the gray-headed patriot, "did he leave his post? did he run from the enemy?" "Oh no, sir; worse than that: he fell among the slain, fighting like a hero."—"Then I am satisfied," said the old man; "bring him in; let me look upon my noble boy." The corpse was brought in; he wept over it. He then called for a bowl of water and a napkin, washed the blood away with his own trembling hands, and thanked God that his son had died for his country.

By the middle of September, the American army under Gates was within three miles of the great army of Burgoyne, on the Hudson. The latter was severely pressed for provisions, and undertook to march on toward

Albany. The Americans met him at Stillwater, on the 19th; a fierce battle was fought; and the British could advance no farther. They pitched their camp on the plains of Saratoga, three miles above the village, within cannon-shot of the American lines.

General Clinton was at this time attempting to force a passage up the Hudson, from New York to re-enforce Burgoyne. Spies and scouts were constantly passing between the two armies. One Palmer was at last caught in this business, and brought into the camp of Gen. Putnam, at Peekskill. He was found to be an American Tory, whom the British had made a lieutenant for his pains. Gov. Tryon wrote for his release, and threatened vengeance if he were executed.

Putnam addressed the following note to the governor, in reply:—

"Sir: Nathan Palmer, a lieutenant in your service, was taken in my camp as a spy; he was tried as a spy; he was condemned as a spy; and you may rest assured, sir, he shall be hanged as a spy.

"I have the honor to be, &c.,

"ISRAEL PUTNAM.

"To his excellency, Governor Tryon.

"P. S. Afternoon. He is hanged."

Hot skirmishes now took place every day between the two armies at Saratoga. Sept. 23d, a cannonade was kept up, with a tremendous roar and blaze, for three hours. The field was strewn with the killed. An English captain, with forty-eight men, had the command of four fine cannon. He fought till thirty-six of his men were killed. His horses being shot down at last, the cannon were left to the Americans.

Some of the American soldiers, during these skirmishes, often placed themselves in the boughs of high trees, the country being wild and woody, and played with their rifles upon the rear and flanks of the enemy. The British officers were picked off like birds. Burgoyne himself once narrowly escaped. His aide-de-camp, Gen. Phillips, was delivering a message to him, when he received a rifle ball in his arm. His saddle was furnished with very rich lace, and a sharp-shooter had taken him for Burgoyne.

Oct. 7th, the whole British line was driven back by a tremendous charge. The German

lines stood firm to the last, and Col. Brooks was ordered to attack them. He galloped toward them at the head of his regiment, waving his sword; and Gen. Arnold (who fought this day as a volunteer) rushed on with him. Arnold was wounded, and carried off. Brooks kept on, and the Germans were driven back. Col. Cilley, of New Hampshire, captured a cannon with his own hands, and was seen astride upon it in the heat of the battle, shouting to his soldiers.

In this battle, Burgoyne had a bullet pass through his hat, and another through the edge of his vest. The English general Frazer fought nobly for a long time. Col. Morgan observed him at last, called up one of his best riflemen, and pointed him out. "Do you see that tall, fine-looking fellow," said he, "fighting like a lion? It is Frazer. I honor the man—but he must die." This was enough for the rifleman. He aimed, and Frazer was shot dead.

On the 18th of October, 1777, the whole British army under Burgoyne surrendered to General Gates. There were nearly ten thousand men, including Indians; forty cannon, seven thousand muskets, and a vast quantity of tents and cartridges. The whole country was filled with rejoicing. The thanks of Congress were voted to Gates and his army.

But the best effect of the victory was that the French now concluded to fight with the Americans against England. Treaties between the two nations were signed Feb. 6th, 1778, and a fast-sailing schooner from France reached Casco Bay, in Maine, in about a month with the news. It occasioned prodigious joy in Congress, in the army at Valley Forge, and over the whole country. A French fleet arrived on the coast early in July.

General Clinton knew that they were coming, and therefore thought it necessary to remove to New York. He left Philadelphia on the 18th of June, and marched through New Jersey, toward the latter place. The British army had been in possession of Philadelphia for many months. Their departure was a most welcome event to the inhabitants. The business of the city was very much interrupted while they were there, and the intercourse of the inhabitants with the neighboring towns and villages, was attended with much difficulty and vexation.

Captain Plunkett escaped from the British, while they were at Philadelphia, in a curious manner. He was an American officer, who was taken prisoner, carried to that city, and kept in confinement. Some years before he had formed a very pleasant acquaintance with a young Quakeress. She became apprised of his situation, and determined to effect his release. Accordingly, she privately sent him the uniform of a British officer. The captain put it on, and ordered the guard to open the door. The latter, taking him for a British officer, allowed him to pass into the streets. He immediately went to the house of the young Quakeress, where he remained concealed for some time. His benefactress then procured him an old market-woman's gown, bonnet, and shawl. The captain dressed himself in these, and, thus disguised, set out to leave the city. The British soldiers on guard at the gate, taking him for a market-woman, allowed him to pass; and thus he escaped from the enemy.

The Americans contrived some machines, which were filled with gunpowder, and sent down the river Delaware, near to the city. They expected that these would explode, and annoy the British shipping; they did, in fact, no damage, but the British were very much alarmed; accordingly, they fired cannon at every thing they saw floating in the river. The Americans heard of all this, and they were very much amused with it. Francis Hopkinson, a man of great wit, wrote a ballad on the subject, which follows. Sir William, spoken of in the poem, was Sir William Howe, then the British commander.

THE BATTLE OF THE KEGS.

Gallants, attend, and hear a friend
Trill forth harmonious ditty:
Strange things I'll tell, which late befell
In Philadelphia city.

'Twas early day, as poets say,
Just when the sun was rising,
A soldier stood on log of wood,
And saw a thing surprising.

As in a maze he stood to gaze,—
The truth can't be denied, sir,—
He spied a score of kegs, or more,
Come floating down the tide, sir.

A sailor too, in jerkin blue,
This strange appearance viewing,
First rubbed his eyes, in great surprise,
Then said, "Some mischief's brewing."

"These kegs do hold the rebels bold,
Packed up like pickled herring;
And they're come down to attack the town,
In this new way of ferrying."

The soldier flew, the sailor too,
And, scared almost to death, sir,
Wore out their shoes, to spread the news,
And ran till out of breath, sir.

Now up and down, throughout the town,
Most frantic scenes were acted;
And some ran here, and others there,
Like men almost distracted.

Some fire cried, which some denied,
But said the earth had quaked;
And girls and boys, with hideous noise,
Ran through the streets half naked.

Sir William he, snug as a flea,
Lay all this time a snoring,
Nor thought of harm, as he lay warm,
The land of dreams exploring.

Now in a fright he starts upright,
Awaked by such a clatter:
He rubs both eyes, and boldly cries,
"Alas, what is the matter?"

At his bedside he then espied
Sir Erskine at command, sir;
Upon one foot he had one boot,
And the other in his hand, sir.

"Arise, arise!" Sir Erskine cries;
"The rebels—more's the pity—
Without a boat, are all afloat,
And ranged before the city."

"The motley crew, in vessels new,
With Satan for their guide, sir,
Packed up in bags, or wooden kegs,
Come driving down the tide, sir.

"Therefore prepare for bloody war,—
These kegs must all be routed,
Or surely we despised shall be,
And British courage doubted."

The royal band now ready stand,
All ranged in dread array, sir,
With stomach stout, to see it out,
And make a bloody day, sir.

The cannons roar from shore to shore,
The small arms make a rattle;
Since wars began, I'm sure no man
E'er saw so strange a battle.

The rebel dales, the rebel vales,
With rebel trees surrounded,
The distant woods, the hills and floods,
With rebel echoes sounded.

The fish below swam to and fro,
Attacked from every quarter;
"Why sure," thought they, "the devil's to pay,
'Mongst folks above the water."

The kegs, 'tis said, though strongly made,
Of rebel staves and hoops, sir,
Could not oppose their powerful foes,
The conquering British troops, sir.

From morn to night, these men of might
 Displayed amazing courage,
 And when the sun was fairly down,
 Retired to sup their porridge.

An hundred men, with each a pen,
 Or more, upon my word, sir,
 It is most true, would be too few,
 Their valor to record, sir.

Such feats did they perform that day,
 Against these wicked kegs, sir,
 That years to come, if they get home,
 They'll make their boasts and brags, sir.

As soon as Washington heard that Clinton had left Philadelphia, he broke up his quarters at Valley Forge, and followed hard after him. A hot battle was fought on the 28th, near Monmouth court-house, in New Jersey. It did not cease till the evening. Washington slept upon his cloak under a tree, expecting more fighting in the morning; but the British marched off in the night. Sixty of their soldiers were found dead on the battle-field, without wounds. Fatigue and the excessive heat had killed them.

In the beginning of this battle, one Molly Pitcher was occupied in carrying water from a spring to a battery, where her husband was employed in loading and firing a cannon. He was shot dead at last, and she saw him fall. An officer rode up, and ordered off the cannon. "It can be of no use, now," said he; but Molly stepped up, offered her services, and took her husband's place, to the astonishment of the army. She fought well, and half-pay for life was given her by Congress. She wore an epaulette, and was called Captain Molly, ever after.

In the midst of the fight, there was a soldier whose gun-lock was knocked off by a bullet. At the same instant, a soldier at his side was killed. He picked up the dead man's musket, and was preparing to fire, when a bullet entered the muzzle of the gun, and twisted the barrel into the shape of a corkscrew. Although the bullets were flying around him like hail-stones, he deliberately knelt down upon the spot, unscrewed the lock from the musket in his hand, and fastened it to his own gun, which he had thrown away. In a few minutes, he was again prepared, and then engaged in the deadly conflict.

No other great battles were fought during the campaign of 1778. The armies only

molested each other by sending out small detachments. Col. McLane, of Lee's famous legion of troopers, had a narrow escape. He had planned an attack on a small British force stationed on a turnpike road, eight miles from Philadelphia, and rode ahead with a single soldier, to point out the way for his men. It was in the gray of the morning. His comrade suddenly shouted, "Colonel, the British!" spurred his horse, and was out of sight in a moment. There, indeed, were the enemy all about him. They had lain in ambuscade, and thus suddenly came upon him. A dozen shots were fired, but his horse only was wounded, in the flank. This spurred the animal on at a furious rate. A number of British officers at a farm-house by the road-side observed the colonel as he passed. They thought he was on his way to the English army, which was directly ahead. He dashed by; they soon found out their mistake, and pursued him. His horse went with such speed, however, over fences and fields, and every obstacle, that, at last, only two men continued to follow him. These came up with him at the ascent of a small hill, the three horses so exhausted, that neither could be forced out of a walk. One of the soldiers cried, "Surrender, you rebellious rascal, or we will cut you to pieces." The colonel made no reply, but laid his hand on his pistols. The man came up, and seized him by the collar, without drawing his sword. The colonel drew a pistol from his holster, aimed it at the Englishman's heart, and killed him. The other now seized him on the other side; a fierce struggle ensued. The colonel received a severe sword-gash in his left arm; but he drew his second pistol that moment with his right, placed it between the Englishman's eyes, and killed him by a shot in the head. He then stopped the flow of his own blood, by crawling into a mill-pond, and at last reached the American camp.

In the camp at Morristown, during the winter and the spring of 1779, the Americans were often without meat or bread; and they ate peas, barley, and almost every kind of horse-food but hay. Salt could only be got for eight dollars a bushel. The snow was four feet deep. They had nothing but a bed of straw and a blanket at night. They made log huts in February, which were tolerably

comfortable. But many deserted, and the rest were almost discouraged.

Little was done on either side during this year. The British main army, under Clinton, was at New York; and the Americans, under Washington, were among the Highlands, above that city, on the river Hudson. In the spring, a British force was sent to ravage the coast of Virginia. They destroyed everything in their way, villages, shipping, and stores. The Virginians sent to the British general to ask what sort of warfare this was. He replied that "all rebels must be so treated."

A month or two afterward, Governor Tryon was sent to commit similar havoc in Connecticut. Col. Whiting had mustered the militia at Fairfield. Tryon came to that place, and commanded him to surrender. He gave him an hour for consideration; but, before that time had elapsed, his soldiers set the town on fire, and a great part of it was laid in ashes. At New Haven, all possible damage was done. The harbor was covered over with feathers from the beds of the people. Desks, trunks, closets, and chests were broken open; the women were robbed of their buckles, rings, bonnets, and aprons. East Haven was afterward burnt, and Norwalk shared a similar fate. At a place near Stamford, the British came upon General Putnam, who had one hundred and fifty militia-men with him, and two cannon. With these he kept the enemy at bay for some time. He then ordered the soldiers into a swamp hard by, where the British troopers could not follow; and he himself rode at full gallop down a steep rock behind the meeting-house. Nearly one hundred steps had been hewn in it, like a flight of stairs, for the people to ascend in going to meeting. The troopers stopped at the brink, and dared not follow him. He escaped with a bullet-hole through his hat.

In July, a fleet of thirty-seven small vessels was fitted out from Boston, with fifteen hundred militia on board, under Gen. Wadsworth and Gen. Lovell. The object was to drive the British from the Penobscot river, in Maine, where they had built a fort at a place called Bagaduce then, now Castine. They were near succeeding, when a British fleet appeared off the mouth of the river. They were obliged to leave their vessels, and

most of the troops, after some fighting, escaped across the wild lands of Maine, to the settlements on the river Kennebec.

On the Hudson, the Americans were more successful. On the 15th of July, Washington sent Gen. Wayne up the river with twelve hundred men, to attack a strong British fort called Stony Point. At eleven in the evening, Wayne arrived within a mile or two of the fort. The troops were formed into two columns. Col. Fleury marched on in front, with one hundred and fifty volunteers, guided by twenty picked men. They marched silently, with unloaded guns and fixed bayonets. A disorderly fellow, who persisted in loading his gun, was run through the body by his captain. No man was suffered to fire. The fort was defended by a deep swamp, covered with water. The troops marched through it, waist deep. They proceeded with charged bayonets, under a tremendous fire of cannon and musketry from the British, till the two columns met in the centre of the fort. The garrison, six hundred in number, were taken prisoners, with fifteen cannon, and a large quantity of stores. The Americans lost a hundred men: seventeen of the twenty picked men who marched in front, were among the number.

Gen. Lincoln commanded in the South during 1779, the British still holding possession of Savannah. He besieged them there with the help of the French fleet, but was driven off. Prevost, the British general, met with the same bad luck in besieging Charleston, South Carolina. The people resisted him nobly, with some assistance from Lincoln, and the siege was abandoned. But Prevost ravaged the country, burning and plundering without mercy. The Tories joined him, and the negro slaves were hired to serve him as spies and scouts. Peter Francisco, an American trooper, made himself famous at this time. A plundering British dragoon entered a hut in the country, where he happened to be, and ordered him to "deliver up everything, or die." "I have nothing to deliver," said Peter, who was unarmed; "do as you please." "Off with those great silver buckles on your shoes, you scoundrel!" said the dragoon. "Take them, if you like," answered Peter; "I will not give them." The soldier stooped to cut them off with his knife,

placing his sword under his arm, with the hilt toward Peter. He seized upon it, and struck the dragoon with such force as to sever his head from his body at a single blow.

Sergeant Jasper was another brave fellow, who has been mentioned before. He once went, secretly, with a young friend of his, by the name of Newton, to visit his brother, a soldier at a British fort. As he stayed there a day or two, his brother took him to see some American prisoners, just brought in. They were all handcuffed. There was a young woman among the rest, with her husband, and a beautiful little boy, five years old, leaning his head on her bosom, and weeping. Jasper and Newton were hardly able to bear this. They walked to a wood near by. "I shall not live long," said Jasper. "Why so?" said the other. "Why, the thought of that poor woman haunts me. I shall die, if I do not save them." "That is my mind, exactly," said Newton, grasping Jasper's hand. Go on, my brave friend; I will stand by you to the last."

After breakfast, the prisoners were sent on toward Savannah, under a guard of ten armed men. The two friends followed them through the woods, but without arms. Thinking the party would stop at the Spa, a famous spring two miles from Savannah, they went secretly round to that place, and concealed themselves in the bushes. By and by, the prisoners and guard came up, and the former were suffered to rest at the spring. Two men kept guard with their muskets, while two more came to the spring for water. The others piled their arms up, and sat down at a distance. The two guards now rested their guns against a tree, and began drinking from their canteens. "Now's the time," cried Jasper. At the instant, the two heroes sprang from the bushes, snatched the two muskets, and shot down the two guards. By this time, two of the soldiers had seized upon their guns. But they were instantly knocked down. Jasper and Newton stood over the pile of guns, and ordered the other six to surrender. They were glad to do so. The American prisoners were armed; the handcuffs were taken from them, and put upon the British soldiers, and the party soon reached the American camp.

During the year 1780, nothing of great consequence was done in the northern prov-

inces. The two armies lay near each other, the British being in New York, and the Americans on the Hudson; but no battles were fought. The most important event of this year was the treason of Arnold. He commanded the very strong fort at West Point, and he undertook to deliver it into the possession of the British. Major Andre, a young British officer, went on shore in the night from a British ship in the river, to arrange the business with Arnold. The two officers met privately at some distance from the fort. Arnold agreed, for a certain sum of money, and other considerations, to surrender the fort, with the garrison, cannon, and ammunition, into the hands of the British commander. In settling the details of this business, Andre was detained till the next day; and then the boatmen refused to carry him back to his vessel. He had to return by land, and to pass by the American camp, on his way to New York. He was furnished with a horse, and exchanged his uniform for a common coat. He thought himself already out of danger, when, as he trotted quietly on through the woods, he was stopped by three Americans, who were scouting between the outposts of the two armies. "Who goes there?" cried the first, seizing the bridle. Andre was startled, and asked the scout where he belonged. "Below," answered he, meaning New York. "So do I," said Andre, deceived; "I'm a British officer, in great haste; don't stop me." "Are you, indeed?" said the scouts; "then we'll see about that!" They found his papers in his boots. He offered them his gold watch, horse, and purse, if they would release him; but they told him they knew their business too well, and he was carried to the camp.

Arnold escaped from West Point in great haste. Andre had contrived to send him notice of his capture. He was dining with some of his friends, when the letter came. They saw he was very much agitated. He started up, and looked wild, made an excuse to go out, and they saw nothing more of him. He went to New York, joined the British army, and was appointed a general. His name was covered with everlasting shame and disgrace. Even his gallantry and decided military talents were overlooked and forgotten in his infamy. The British themselves

despised him. After the war, he went to England, where he lived in obscurity and contempt.

The head-quarters of Washington were at Tappan, on the Hudson, at the time he heard of Arnold's treason. Having taken measures to put the fort in a state of security, he appointed a court-martial to try Andre. After a very deliberate examination, he was found guilty, and condemned, according to the usages of war, to be hanged as a spy. When the gallant young officer heard that he was condemned to be hanged, he wrote a very pathetic letter to Washington, praying that he might be shot, and die as a soldier, rather than be executed like a felon. No man had a kinder heart than General Washington; and he would gladly have granted the request of the unfortunate young Englishman. But duty to his country would not permit him to soften the sentence of the law. He was very anxious to bring Arnold to justice, and imagined that, if he could be taken, Andre might be set free. He resolved to make an attempt to effect these desirable objects, and, having formed his plan, sent to Major Lee to repair to head-quarters, at Tappan. "I have sent for you," said Washington, "in the expectation that you have some one in your corps, who is willing to undertake a delicate and hazardous project. Whoever comes forward will confer great obligations upon me personally, and, in behalf of the United States, I will reward him amply. No time is to be lost; he must proceed, if possible, to-night. I desire to seize Arnold, and save Andre."

Major Lee named a sergeant-major of his corps, by the name of Champe, a native of Virginia, a man full of bone and muscle, with a countenance grave, thoughtful, and taciturn,—of tried courage and inflexible perseverance.

Champe was sent for by Major Lee, and the plan proposed. This was for him to desert; to escape to New York; to appear friendly to the enemy; to watch Arnold, and, upon some fit opportunity, with the assistance of some one whom he could trust, to seize him, and conduct him to an appointed place on the river, where boats should be in readiness to bear them away.

Champe listened to the plan attentively; but, with the spirit of a man of honor and

integrity, replied, that it was not danger nor difficulty that deterred him from immediately accepting the proposal, but the ignominy of desertion, and the hypocrisy of enlisting with the enemy. To those objections Lee replied, that although he would appear to desert, yet, as he obeyed the call of his commander-in-chief, his departure could not be considered as criminal; and that, if he suffered in reputation for a time, the matter would one day be explained to his credit. As to the second objection, it was urged that to bring such a man as Arnold to justice, loaded with guilt as he was; and to save Andre, so young, so accomplished, so beloved; to achieve so much good in the cause of his country,—was more than sufficient to balance a wrong existing only in appearance.

The objections of Champe were at length surmounted, and he accepted the service. It was now eleven o'clock at night. With his instructions in his pocket, the sergeant returned to camp; and, taking his cloak, valise, and orderly book, drew his horse from the picket, and mounted, putting himself upon fortune. Scarcely had half an hour elapsed, before Capt. Carnes, the officer of the day, waited upon Lee, who was vainly attempting to rest, and informed him that one of the patrol had fallen in with a dragoon, who, being challenged, put spurs to his horse and escaped. Lee, hoping to conceal the flight of Champe, or at least to delay pursuit, complained of fatigue, and told the captain that the patrol had probably mistaken a countryman for a dragoon. Carnes, however, was not thus to be quieted; and he withdrew to assemble his corps. On examination, it was found that Champe was absent. The captain returned, and acquainted Lee with the discovery, adding, that he had detached a party to pursue the deserter, and begged the major's written orders. After making as much delay as practicable without exciting suspicion, Lee delivered his orders, in which he directed the party to take Champe, if possible. "Bring him alive," said he, "that he may suffer in the presence of the army; but kill him if he resists, or tries to escape after being taken."

A shower of rain fell soon after Champe's departure, which enabled the pursuing dragoons to take the trail of his horse, whose

shoes, in common with those of all the horses of the corps, were made in a peculiar form, and each had a private mark which was to be seen in the path. Middleton, the leader of the pursuing party, left the camp a few minutes past twelve, so that Champe had the start of but little more than an hour,—a period by far shorter than had been contemplated. During the night, the dragoons were often delayed in the necessary halts to examine the road; but on the coming of morning, the impression of the horse's shoes was so apparent, that they pressed on with rapidity. Some miles above Bergen, a village three miles north of New York, on the opposite side of the Hudson, on ascending a hill, Champe was seen not more than half a mile distant. Fortunately, Champe descried his pursuers at the same moment, and put spurs to his horse. By taking a different road, Champe was for a time lost sight of; but on approaching the river, he was again perceived. Aware of his danger, he lashed his valise, containing his clothes and orderly book, to his shoulders, and prepared himself to plunge into the river, if necessary. Swift was his flight, and swift the pursuit. Middleton and his party were within a few hundred yards, when Champe threw himself from his horse and plunged into the river, calling aloud upon some British galleys, at no great distance, for help. A boat was instantly dispatched to his assistance, and a fire commenced upon the pursuers. He was taken on board, and soon after carried to New York, with a letter from the captain of the galley, stating the scene which he had witnessed.

The pursuers, having recovered the sergeant's horse and cloak, returned to camp, where they arrived about three o'clock the next day. On their appearance with the well known horse, the soldiers made the air resound with the acclamation that the scoundrel was killed. The agony of Lee, for a moment, was past description, lest the faithful, honorable, intrepid Champe had fallen. But the truth soon relieved his fears, and he repaired to Washington to impart to him the success, thus far, of his plan.

Soon after the arrival of Champe in New York, he was sent to Sir Henry Clinton, who treated him kindly, but detained him more

than an hour in asking him questions; to answer some of which, without exciting suspicion, required all the art the sergeant was master of. He succeeded, however, and Sir Henry gave him a couple of guineas, and recommended him to Arnold, who was wishing to procure American recruits. Arnold received him kindly, and proposed to him to join his legion. Champe, however, expressed his wish to retire from war; but assured the general, if he should change his mind, he would enlist.

Champe found means to communicate to Lee an account of his adventures; but, unfortunately, he could not succeed in taking Arnold, as was wished, before the execution of Andre. Ten days before Champe brought his project to a conclusion, Lee received from him his final communication, appointing the third subsequent night for a party of dragoons to meet him at Hoboken, opposite New York, when he hoped to deliver Arnold to the officers.

Champe had enlisted into Arnold's legion, from which time he had every opportunity he could wish, to attend to the habits of the general. He discovered that it was his custom to return home about twelve every night, and that previously to going to bed, he always visited the garden. During this visit, the conspirators were to seize him, and gag him instantly. Adjoining the house in which Arnold resided, and in which it was designed to seize and gag him, Champe had taken off several fence-palings, and replaced them, so that with ease, and without noise, he could readily open his way to the adjoining alley. Into this alley he intended to convey his prisoner, aided by his companion, one of two associates who had been introduced by the friend to whom Champe had been originally made known by letter from the commander-in-chief, and with whose aid and counsel he had so far conducted the enterprise. His other associate was with the boat, prepared at one of the wharves on the Hudson River, to receive the party. Champe and his friend intended to place themselves each under Arnold's shoulder, and thus to bear him, through the most unfrequented alleys and streets, to the boat, representing Arnold, in case of being questioned, as a drunken soldier, whom they were conveying to the guard-house. When

arrived at the boat, the difficulties would be all surmounted, there being no danger or obstacle in passing to the Jersey shore. These particulars, as soon as made known to Lee, were communicated to the commander-in-chief, who was highly gratified with the much desired intelligence. He requested Major Lee to meet Champe, and to take care that Arnold should not be hurt.

The day arrived, and Lee left the camp never doubting the success of the enterprise, from the tenor of the last received communication. The party reached Hoboken about midnight, where they were concealed in the adjoining wood; Lee, with three dragoons, stationing himself near the shore of the river. Hour after hour passed, but no boat approached. At length the day broke, and the major retired to his party, and, with his led horses, returned to the camp, where he proceeded to head-quarters, to inform the general of the much lamented disappointment, as mortifying as it was inexplicable. Washington, having perused Champe's plan and communication, had indulged the presumption that at length the object of his keen and constant pursuit was sure of execution, and did not dissemble the joy which such a conviction produced. He was chagrined at the issue, and apprehended that his faithful sergeant must have been detected in the last scene of his tedious and difficult enterprise.

In a few days, Lee received an anonymous letter from Champe's patron and friend, informing him, that on the day preceding the night fixed for the execution of the plot, Arnold had removed his quarters to another part of the town, to superintend the embarkation of troops, preparing, as was rumored, for an expedition to be directed by himself; and that the American legion, consisting chiefly of American deserters, had been transferred from their barracks to one of the transports, it being apprehended that, if left on shore until the expedition was ready, many of them might desert.

Thus it happened, that John Champe, instead of crossing the Hudson that night, was safely deposited on board one of the fleet of transports, whence he never departed until the troops under Arnold landed in Virginia. Nor was he able to escape from the British army until after the junction of Lord Corn-

wallis at Petersburg, when he deserted. Proceeding high up into Virginia, he passed into North Carolina, and, keeping in the friendly districts of that state, safely joined the army soon after it had passed the Congaree in pursuit of Lord Rawdon. His appearance excited extreme surprise among his former comrades, which was not a little increased when they saw the cordial reception he met with from Lee. His whole story was soon known to the corps, which reproduced the love and respect of officers and soldiers, heretofore invariably entertained for the sergeant, and heightened by universal admiration of his late daring and arduous attempt. Champe was introduced to Gen. Greene, who very cheerfully complied with the promise made by the commander-in-chief, so far as in his power; and, having provided the sergeant with a good horse, and money for his journey, sent him to Gen. Washington, who munificently anticipated every desire of the sergeant, and presented him with a discharge from further service, lest he might, in the vicissitudes of war, fall into the hands of the enemy, when, if recognized, he was sure to die on a gibbet. When Washington was called by President Adams, in 1798, to the command of the army prepared to defend the country against French hostility, he sent to Lee, to inquire for Champe, being determined to bring him into the field at the head of a company of infantry. Lee sent to Loudon county, Virginia, where Champe settled after his discharge from the army; when he learned that the gallant soldier had removed to Kentucky, where he soon after died.

We must return to our history. Congress continued to make great efforts to supply the army, though the paper money they had issued was worth so little that a soldier would give forty dollars for a breakfast, and a colonel's pay would hardly find oats for his horse. The merchants of Philadelphia raised a large sum of better money, however, and sent it to the army. The ladies of that city furnished a large quantity of clothing.

The British all this time were overrunning the two Carolinas. They had taken Charleston on the 11th of May, 1780, after a long siege, and a brave defense by Gen. Lincoln. Gen. Gates was soon after sent to take command of the southern army. He was joined

by hundreds of the Carolina militia. Congress sent him some fine Maryland and Delaware troops also. They had a very long and hard march through the woods, finding nothing to eat on the way, but peaches and green corn, with now and then a flock of wild turkeys or a drove of wild hogs. But they were brave men, and did not murmur. They even joked each other on account of their thin faces and lank legs.

A battle took place on the 16th of August, near Camden, South Carolina, between Gates and the British under Lord Cornwallis. The former was defeated, and fled eighty miles into the back country. The lean northern soldiers we have just mentioned, fought nobly an hour after all the rest had been routed like an army of sheep. The brave Baron De Kalb was wounded in eleven places. He fell from his horse, and died in the hands of the British. He was a native of Alsace. He sent his compliments, in his last moments, to "his gallant Maryland and Delaware soldiers."

Generals Marion and Sumter gave the British great trouble during this campaign. Small parties of the mountain militia joined them, and they swept down upon the enemy, wherever they could find them in small parties. The farmers' wives furnished them pewter spoons and platters, to make into bullets; and they forged swords of scythes and the saws of saw-mills.

In October, sixteen hundred of these mountaineers mustered together to attack a British force under Major Ferguson, who had encamped not far from the mountains. For weeks, they had no salt, bread, or spirits; they slept upon boughs of trees, without blankets, drank only from the running streams, and lived upon wild game, or ears of corn, and pumpkins, roasted by their great log-fires in the woods.

They were to assault Ferguson in three parties, and Col. Cleaveland addressed his party in these words: "My brave boys, we have beat the red-coats and the Tories, and we can beat them again. They are all cowards. You must fight, each man for himself, without orders. Fire as quick as you can, and stand as long as you can. If you must retreat, get behind the trees. Don't run, my fine fellows, don't run!" "Hurrah for the mountaineers!" cried they, and rushed down

upon the enemy. The Americans were driven back at the point of the bayonet; but they only lay down among the logs and rocks, and, being sharp-shooters, killed more than two hundred of the enemy. Ferguson was killed himself, and eight hundred of his soldiers surrendered. Ten of the most savage Tories, notorious rascals, were hung up on the neighboring trees. This is called the battle of King's Mountain.

With the year 1781, on which we now enter, the war drew rapidly toward a close. It was carried on almost entirely in the South. Gen. Greene was appointed to command the American forces in that quarter. At the time of his arrival, they were a miserable, half-starved militia, of three thousand men. They marked the frozen ground with the blood of their bare feet, and lived half the time upon frogs, taken from the swamps, wild game, rice, and wretchedly lean cattle. But they were soon re-enforced; and small parties, under Sumter, Marion, Morgan, and others, often annoyed the forces of Cornwallis. Colonel Washington laid siege to a strong block-house near Camden, defended by a British colonel and a hundred Tories. He had no cannon and few men; but he carved out a few pine logs in the shape of cannon, mounted them on wheels, and summoned the Tories to surrender. They were frightened at the appearance of his big cannon, and surrendered. Not a shot was fired upon either side.

On the 17th of January, Col. Morgan, with eight hundred militia, was attacked at a place called the Cowpens, in South Carolina, by Tarleton, a famous British officer, with eleven hundred men and two cannon. The enemy rushed on with a tremendous shout. The front line of militia were driven back. Tarleton pursued them, at full gallop, with his troopers, and fell upon the second line. They too were giving way. At this moment, Col. Washington charged Tarleton with forty-five militia-men, mounted, and armed as troopers. The whole line now rallied under Col. Howard, and advanced with fixed bayonets. The British fled. Their cannon were left behind; three hundred British soldiers were killed and wounded, and five hundred were taken prisoners; eight hundred muskets, seventy negroes, and one hundred dragoon horses,

also fell into the hands of the Americans. Many British officers were killed. Morgan always told his sharp-shooters "to aim at the epaulettes, and not at the poor rascals who fought for sixpence a day."

General Greene was driven back, by Cornwallis, into North Carolina. The latter pursued him through the province, over mountains and swamps, and arrived at the river Dan, just as Greene had crossed it. Cornwallis now found it necessary to turn about; and so he marched back, and Greene soon followed him with new forces. Sumter joined him at Orangeburg, having received orders to do so during his hasty retreat before the enemy. Greene could find no man in his army who would carry the message to Sumter. A country girl, named Emily Geiger, at last offered her services, and was sent. She was taken by the British, and confined for the purpose of being searched. She, however, ate up the letter which she carried, piece by piece. They released her, to go home, as they supposed; but she took a roundabout way, reached Sumter's camp safely, and delivered her message, in her own words.

The Americans were defeated near Guilford court-house on the 15th of March. But Cornwallis retreated soon after. He had suffered great loss, and his army was small. A militia-colonel cried out in this battle, as the British were marching up, "They will surround us." He was frightened himself, and frightened his soldiers so much, that they gave way, while the enemy were one hundred and forty yards distant. Col. Washington, at the head of his troopers, nearly captured Cornwallis in this battle. He was just rushing upon the British general when his cap fell from his head. As he leaped to the ground for it, the leading American officer behind him was shot through the body, and rendered unable to manage his horse. The animal wheeled round, and galloped off with his rider; and the troop, supposing it was Washington's order, wheeled about also, and rode off at full speed.

Fort Watson, between Camden and Charleston, surrendered, in April, with 114 men, to Gen. Marion. The fort was built on a mound of earth thirty feet high; but Marion, with his mountaineers, had raised a work which overlooked it in such a manner, that not a

man in the fort could show his head over the parapets, or scarcely point his musket through a hole in the walls, but the riflemen above would shoot him.

Greene was again defeated at Camden, on the 25th of April, by nine hundred English under Lord Rawdon. But in a month or two the British lost six forts, and that of Augusta was among them. Here there were three hundred men, as a garrison, who almost buried themselves under ground, while the Americans were building up batteries within thirty yards, which swept the fort through and through. Greene and all his officers, and all his men, fought nobly the whole season. "I will recover the province," said the general, "or die in the attempt." It is remarkable that although his force was much inferior to that of Cornwallis, and though he was frequently defeated, yet, by his admirable manœuvres, the result of the campaign was entirely favorable to the Americans, and injurious to the British.

He attacked the enemy at Eutaw Springs, Sept. 8th, and completely defeated them, killing and capturing eleven hundred of their best soldiers. In pursuing the enemy, one Manning found himself surrounded by them. He seized upon a small British officer, and, being himself a stout man, placed him on his shoulders, and retreated, the English not daring to fire at him. The little officer was horribly frightened, but Manning took good care of him.

The war was closed by the capture of Cornwallis, at Yorktown, Virginia. He had left Carolina, and expected to overrun Virginia. But in September, the Americans and French, under Washington, surrounded him from all quarters, on the land; while the French fleet, riding in Chesapeake Bay, blocked up the mouths of the rivers, and kept the English fleet from coming in. It was impossible for Clinton, with all his forces at New York, to re-enforce Cornwallis. Washington had kept him in fear all summer, and made him believe, till the last moment, that he was to be besieged in New York. It was not till Aug. 24th, that Washington left his camp on the Hudson River, and marched through New Jersey and Pennsylvania, to the head of the Chesapeake. The French admiral, De Grasse, who had just

arrived, carried the American forces down the bay to Yorktown.

The army passed through Philadelphia, on this march, in splendid style. The line was more than two miles long. The streets were crowded with spectators; and the windows, to the highest stories, were filled with ladies, waving their handkerchiefs, as the gallant troops passed by. There was Washington, with all his generals; the French commander, Count Rochambeau, with all his; Gen. Knox with one hundred fine cannon; and the whole army pressing on with proud step and noble confidence. The music was inspiring; everybody thought they would conquer; and, just at this time, news came that the French fleet had arrived in the Chesapeake. The city rang with the shouts of the hopeful multitude.

By the 7th of October, Cornwallis was completely besieged. He had raised entrenchments; but the allied army, the Americans and the French, had erected breastworks all about him, circle after circle, and now opened a battery of one hundred cannon. They fired day and night. The roar was terrible. The ground, for miles, shook with it; and the bombs and shells were seen whirling and crossing each other in the dark sky, and blazing like comets. If they fell upon the ground, it was torn up for a rod around, and dozens were killed when they burst. The bombs sometimes went over the heads of the enemy, and fell among the British vessels in the harbor, near the British works at Gloucester Point, on the other side of the river. The water spouted in columns as they fell.

One night, an attack was made upon two redoubts which the British had built out so far that they stood in the way of some American works just building around them. The French were ordered to take one redoubt, and the Americans under Lafayette the other. The two parties tried to outdo each other. Lafayette carried his redoubt first, and sent his aid-de-camp to the leader of the French party, through all the fire of the batteries, to tell him he was in. "So will I be," said the Frenchman, "in five minutes;" and he performed his promise.

Cornwallis surrendered on the 19th. His army, of about seven thousand men, marched

out at two o'clock, and passed between the American line on one side and the French on the other, stretched out for more than a mile. They were all dressed in their most splendid uniforms, with fine music, and colors flying. The English marched, carrying their colors bound up, with a slow and solemn step. The English general rode up to Washington, at the head of the line, and excused the absence of Cornwallis, who feigned sickness. Washington pointed him politely to Gen. Lincoln, and the latter directed him to a large field, where the whole British army laid down their arms, and were led away prisoners. After this capture, the English gave up all hopes of success. No more fighting of any consequence took place upon the land.

The British troops were wholly withdrawn from the United States in the following season. The terms of peace with England were settled by the British and American ambassadors at Paris, in November, 1782. The 3d of November, 1783, was fixed upon by Congress for the final disbanding of the American army. On the day previous, Washington issued his farewell orders, and bade an affectionate adieu to the soldiers who had fought with him in the great struggle, which was now over.

Soon after taking leave of the army, Gen. Washington was called to the still more painful hour of separation from his officers, greatly endeared to him by a long series of common sufferings and dangers. The officers having assembled in New York for the purpose, Washington joined them; and, calling for a glass of wine, thus addressed them: "With a heart full of love and gratitude, I now take my leave of you. I most devoutly wish that your latter days may be as prosperous and happy as your former ones have been glorious and honorable." Having thus affectionately spoken, he took each by the hand, and bade him farewell. Followed by them to the side of the Hudson, he entered a barge, and, while tears flowed down his cheeks, he turned toward the companions of his glory, and bade them a silent adieu.

Thus ended the American Revolution.

REYNOLDS, Sir JOSHUA, an eminent English painter, born at Plympton in Devonshire, in 1723. He was particularly celebrated for his portraits, in which he rejected the

stiff, formal style of his predecessors. In 1768 he was elected the first president of the royal academy and received the honor of knighthood. He lived in intimacy with Johnson, Garrick, Burke, and other eminent men of his time, and although afflicted with incurable deafness in the latter part of his life, still enjoyed conversation by means of his ear-trumpet. In 1791 his eyesight failed, and the following year he died, at the age of seventy.

Mr. Burke once observed to Sir Joshua

Reynolds, "What a delight you have in your profession."—"No, sir," said Dr. Johnson, taking up the question, "Reynolds only paints to get money."—Miss Hannah More, who was present, defending Sir Joshua, insisted that the pleasure experienced by the artist was derived from higher and more luxuriant sources than mere pecuniary consideration.—"Only answer me," said the moralist in an impressive tone; "did Leander swim the Hellespont merely because he was fond of swimming?"



RHODE ISLAND is the smallest of the states of our confederacy. It has an area of 1,225 square miles, and in 1860 the population was 174,620. The surface is broken and hilly, and the soil is moderately productive. The islands in Narraganset Bay are very fertile. The streams are small, but their rapid descent renders them very valuable as sources of power for manufactures, which are extensively carried on, cotton goods taking the lead. It was in Rhode Island that Samuel Slater made the beginning of the cotton manufactures of our country. The once extensive commerce of Rhode Island has been largely diverted to the ports of Massachusetts and New York.

The first settlement within the limits of Rhode Island was made at Providence in 1636 by Roger Williams, a Baptist minister who had been driven from Massachusetts for his religious views. The Indians knew and loved him as their friend. Till very lately the broad rock still lay on the bank of the

river, where the exile stepped ashore, and was met by a friendly Indian who smattered a little English, with the greeting, "What cheer?" The new colony was an asylum for all "persons distressed of conscience." The fair island in the bay, which, after that other fair isle in the Mediterranean, received the name of the isle of Rhodes, or Rhode Island, was settled two years after, through the influence of Roger Williams, by other fugitives from the banishment of the Massachusetts theocracy, and in 1644 he obtained a royal charter uniting Rhode Island and Providence Plantations under one government.

Rhode Island, under the wise guidance of Roger Williams, enjoyed the honor of setting the world the example of perfect liberty and toleration in religious matters. The settlers of Providence early agreed that the municipal authority was binding "only in civil things;" and at the first general assembly of the united colony, holden in May, 1647, the code of laws was nobly concluded: "Other-

wise than thus, what is herein forbidden, all men may walk as their consciences persuade them, every one in the name of his God. And let the lambs of the Most High walk in this colony without molestation, in the name of Jehovah, their God, for ever and ever." Full, free, absolute liberty of conscience for all, of whatever creed or sect, of whatever nation or tongue, was here first provided.

Rhode Island bore her share of the burden of the Revolution, and was for a long time in the possession of the British army. Unlike most of the colonies, she continued the administration of government under the royal charter. The new instrument granted by Charles II. in 1663, had conferred on the colony the right to elect all their officers, and to pass laws for their government, without any intervention whatever from king or parliament, and also guaranteed them the broad liberty of conscience they had assumed for themselves aforesaid. This charter, so liberal, and the more so that it bore the name of a Stuart, remained, with some modifications, the polity of the state down to 1842, when a constitution was framed. The legislative power is vested in a senate and house of representatives, who are together styled the General Assembly of the State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations. The governor is chosen annually, and, as well as the lieutenant-governor, is a member of the senate. The right of suffrage is vested in male native citizens of the United States who have resided in the state one year, and in the town six months; and in naturalized citizens who beside such residence possess real estate in the town, worth \$134 over all incumbrances, or which rents for \$7 per annum. The general assembly meets at Newport on the first Tuesday in each May, and adjourned sessions during the year are holden at Providence, East Greenwich, South Kingston, and Bristol. The judiciary consists of a supreme court, having a chief-justice and three associates; and of a court of common pleas for each of the five counties, held by a justice of the supreme court. Rhode Island was once a laggard in the matter of common schools: but within a few years great advance has been made, and she now stands abreast of her sister states of New England.

Providence, at the head of Narraganset

Bay, is among the wealthiest and finest cities of New England. In 1860 it had 50,666 inhabitants. The land for the settlement of Providence Plantations was conveyed to Roger Williams by the chief sachems of the Narragansets. He justly regarded the Indian title as pre-eminent to all others. In one of the early deeds, he says, "Having a sense of God's merciful providence unto me in my distress, I called the place Providence." The place suffered severely during King Philip's war. Only twenty-eight of the male inhabitants "staid and went not away." At the southern end of the beautiful isle of Rhode Island lies the city of Newport. Its harbor is one of the finest in the world, and before the Revolution Newport was the home of prosperous commerce and enterprising merchants. It was then the rival of Boston and far the superior of New York. The struggle for independence entailed its ruin and decline. In modern days, the charm of its situation, the cool and salubrious breezes which enliven its air, and the facilities for sea-bathing, make it a favorite resort in summer. Its population is 10,000.

RHODES, an island in the Grecian archipelago, ten miles from the southern coast of Asia Minor, now in the hands of the Turks. It was formerly celebrated for the fertility of its soil, its commercial importance, its consecration to the gods, and its wonderful works of art, including the celebrated Colossus. [See WONDERS.] It was made a Roman province in the reign of Vespasian. In 1309 the knights of St. John took possession of it. They sustained several attacks from the Turks. The last and most memorable siege of the city of Rhodes was in June, 1522, by Solyman II. The princes of Christendom, hopeless of the defense of so remote an outpost, abandoned Rhodes to its fate. The gallant garrison held out till they were nearly buried in the ruins of their fortifications. In December, 1522, they capitulated, evacuated the island on honorable terms, and retired to Malta.

Oct. 12th, 1856, Rhodes was convulsed by a severe earthquake, the whole island seeming to rock to and fro, as though a bauble in the hand of an angry Titan. The damage done was estimated at \$1,000,000, and hundreds of the inhabitants were killed or wounded. The



THE COLOSSUS OF RHODES.

6th of November following, a thunderbolt fell upon the magazine in the city, where were stored 300,000 pounds of powder, destroying full one-third of the town, and killing a thousand of the people. The ancient church of St. John was laid in ruins.

RICHARD I., II., III., of England. [*See PLANTAGENETS.*]

RICHARDSON, SAMUEL, an eminent English author, born in 1689, died in 1761. Richardson was a printer, and master of an extensive business. Vanity was his only marked foible. He was very early a fluent letter-writer: at thirteen he was the confidant of three damsels, conducting tender correspondence for each unknown to the others: but he did not begin his novels till he was fifty years in life, and then in his back shop, in intervals of business. Our great-grand-mothers wept copiously over "Pamela" and "Sir Charles Grandison" and "Clarissa Har-

lowe;" but with all their pathos, it requires a good degree of wakefulness to get through these prolix fictions nowadays.

RICHELIEU (ARMAND JEAN DUPLESSIS), a cardinal and statesman, was born of a noble family at Paris, in 1585. He studied in the Sorbonne, and in 1607 obtained the bishopric of Lucon. He was also appointed grand-almoner, and in 1616 made secretary of state. When Mary de Medicis fell into disgrace, Richelieu was banished to Avignon, where he wrote his "Method of Controversy." Being soon after recalled to court, he brought about a reconciliation between Louis XIII. and the queen-mother, for which he was rewarded with a cardinal's hat, and appointed prime minister, in which situation he displayed extraordinary talents. He subdued the Protestants, reduced Savoy, humbled Spain, struck terror into Germany, and commanded the admiration of all Europe. In the midst

of this splendor he died, Dec. 4th, 1642, and was buried at the Sorbonne.

RICHTER, JEAN PAUL FRIEDRICH, was born in 1763, in Baireuth, a town of Franconia. He was one of the most eminent German authors of his day, dealing in romances, the most eccentric and grotesque, yet full of pathos and power. He died at Baireuth in 1825.

RIDLEY, NICHOLAS, an English martyr, was born in Northumberland. To qualify himself for divinity, he went to Paris, and studied some time in the Sorbonne. On his return he was chosen proctor of the university at Oxford, in which capacity he signed the declaration against the papal supremacy. He was also elected public orator, and Archbishop Cranmer made him his chaplain. Soon after this he became master of Pembroke Hall, with which he held some considerable church preferment at Canterbury, and Westminster. On the accession of Edward VI. he was consecrated Bishop of Rochester; and, in 1550 he was translated to the see of London, where he discharged the duties of his office with unwearied diligence. He was also employed in all the ecclesiastical measures of that reign, particularly in the compiling of the liturgy and the framing of the articles of religion. But one of the most distinguished occurrences in the life of this great prelate was that of inciting King Edward to endow the three great foundations of Christ's, Bartholomew's, and St. Thomas's hospitals. It was the bishop's misfortune, however, to become the dupe of the Duke of Northumberland, who prevailed upon him to concur in the proclamation of Lady Jane Grey. For this he was committed to the Tower, and after a confinement of eight months, sent to Oxford, there to hold a disputation with the triumphant party. This mockery was followed by a degradation from the episcopal dignity, and sentence of condemnation to the flames for heresy, which he endured with the venerable Latimer before Baliol College, Oct. 16th, 1555.

RIENZI, COLA, was born in 1310. During the absence of the popes at Avignon, Rome was torn by contending factions. The eloquence of Rienzi stirred the people to rise, and he was given the dictatorship as the tribune of the people. This was in 1347. His

power lasted only till the close of the year, and then he was driven from the city. Innocent VI. afterward reinstated him in the dictatorship, and he was slain during a popular tumult, Oct. 8th, 1354.

RITTENHOUSE, DAVID, of Pennsylvania, an eminent and self-taught philosopher, died in 1796, aged sixty-five.

RIZZIO, DAVID, a Piedmontese musician, who ingratiated himself into the favor of Mary, Queen of Scotland. Through his skill as a linguist he became her foreign secretary. He was barbarously assassinated by Darnley, the husband of Mary, on a pretended suspicion of criminal intercourse with her.

ROBERTSON, WILLIAM, born in Scotland, 1721, died in 1793. Dr. Robertson was an eminent clergyman in the church of Scotland, but attained greater fame as a historian. His great works are the "History of the Reign of Charles V.," the "History of America," and the "History of Scotland during the Reigns of Queen Mary and of King James VI., till his Accession to the Crown of England."

ROBESPIERRE, MAXIMILIAN, a leading actor in the terrible drama of the French revolution, was born at Arras in 1759. His father was of English origin, and an advocate, to which profession the son was bred. At the age of thirty he was chosen a deputy to the states-general, and soon became prominent in the scenes of blood with which France was deluged. At last, when the reign of terror was at its height, a coalition was formed against him, and it issued successfully. He was arrested, tried in the same summary style that had condemned so many braver and better men before, and guillotined, July 28th, 1794.

ROCHEFOUCAULD, FRANCIS, Duke of, an eminent French writer, born in 1613, and died in 1680.

ROCHESTER, JOHN WILMOT, Earl of, a witty and licentious nobleman of the court of Charles II., was born in 1647. It is said that he once remained five years in a state of inebriety. He blazed out his youth and health in lavish voluptuousness, and died of physical exhaustion and decay, at the age of thirty-three. He wrote sweet and musical songs, and several satirical poems, many of them very licentious. "Nothing in his life be-

came him like the leaving it." He professed to Dr. Burnet sincere and unreserved penitence. His tender and thoughtful letters to his wife and children throw another bright gleam upon his character. In one of his poems he hits the character of his royal boon companion in one line :—

"A merry monarch, scandalous and poor."

ROCKINGHAM, CHARLES WATSON WENTWORTH, Marquis of, became premier on the dissolution of the Grenville administration, in 1765. He was a nobleman possessing but a mediocrity of understanding, and no ways calculated to warrant the expectation of his long continuance in office ; he was, however, a man of disinterested principles and unaffected patriotism. The chief business of his administration was to undo all that his predecessors had done, particularly repealing the American stamp-act. In 1766 he was succeeded in office by the Duke of Grafton. He came again into power at the close of the ministry of Lord North in March, 1782, but died in July, aged fifty-two.

RODNEY, CESAR, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Dover, Delaware, in 1730. He successively filled the offices of high sheriff, justice of the peace, and judge of the lower courts, and represented his county in the provincial legislature. He was a member of the stamp-act congress at New York in 1765, and was speaker of the assembly of his state in 1768. His chaste and fluent pen was actively employed in the service of his country. He was a member of the first congress in 1774, and continued a delegate till the close of 1776, when he took the field as brigadier-general. In 1777 he remained for two months in the camp near Princeton, laboriously occupied. For four years he was president of his state, but retired from office in 1782, and died the following year from a cancer.

RODNEY, GEORGE BRYDGES, was the son of Capt. Henry Rodney, a naval officer. He was born in 1717, entered early into the British navy, and in 1742 obtained the command of a ship. In 1749 he was appointed governor of Newfoundland ; and on his return, in 1753, he married the sister of the Earl of Northampton. In 1759 he was made

admiral of the blue, and the same year destroyed the stores prepared at Havre de Grace for an invasion of England. In 1761 he served on the West India station with such activity that at the conclusion of the war he was made a baronet. In 1768 he was elected into parliament for Northampton ; but the contest ruined his estate. In 1771 he went to Jamaica as commander-in-chief ; and at the expiration of the term of service, was forced by his embarrassed estate to retire to France, where overtures were made to him on the part of that government, which would have recruited his fortune, but were refused with indignation. In 1779 he was again called into employment ; and the year following, by defeating the Spanish fleet, off Cape St. Vincent, he saved Gibraltar. After this he went to the West Indies, where, on the 12th of April, 1782, he gained a great victory over the French fleet under Count de Grasse ; for which he was made a peer. He died in 1792.

ROE, Sir THOMAS, was born about 1560, at Low Layton in Essex, and educated at Magdalen College, Oxford, after which he became a student in one of the inns of court. In 1604 he was knighted, and soon after went to make discoveries in America. In 1614 he was sent on an embassy to the Great Mogul, at whose court he remained three years. In 1621 he went in the same capacity to Constantinople, and during his residence there, collected a number of manuscripts, which he presented to the Bodleian library. In 1629 Sir Thomas negotiated a peace between Poland and Sweden, and it was by his advice, that Gustavus Adolphus entered Germany, where he gained the battle of Leipsic. In 1640 he was chosen to represent the university of Oxford in parliament. The next year he was sent ambassador to the diet of Ratisbon, and on his return was made chancellor of the garter. He died in 1644.

ROGERS, SAMUEL, a pleasing and tasteful poet, was the son of a wealthy London banker, and born in 1762. He was the friend of Byron and Moore, and his bounty soothed the dying hours of Sheridan. He outlived his contemporaries, and died in December, 1856. His house in St. James's Place, was enriched with the choicest pictures, sculpture, books, and gems. For half a century

it was the centre of literary society in London. The host was not exclusive in forming his circle, and he not only gathered round his table men who had achieved literary eminence, but also extended his hand to young and friendless merit.

ROLAND DE LA PLATIERE, JEAN MARIE, was born at Villefranche in the neighborhood of Lyons, 1732; was inspector general of manufactures and commerce in that city when the revolution commenced; and, having embraced popular principles, became member of the Lyons municipality in 1790. In February, 1791, he was sent to Paris as deputy extraordinary, to defend the commercial interests of Lyons in the committees of the constituent assembly, and remained there seven months, accompanied by his noble-hearted wife. This period dates from the contemplated flight of the king, just before the death of Mirabeau, to the dispersion of the assembly after the acceptance of the new constitution. When the patriot ministry was formed in March, 1792, Roland was made minister of the interior; which position he retained till June 13th, when the royal veto upon the proposal to form a patriot camp around Paris, and upon the decree against the priests, provoked his celebrated letter to the king (written, however, by his wife), and, as a consequence, his almost instant dismissal. Then came the arrival of the Marseillaise in Paris, and the conflict at the Tuileries, August 10th; when Roland was recalled, and Danton became minister of justice. The struggle between the Girondists and the municipality under the guidance of Robespierre filled up the period till May 31st. The former party were vanquished, and Roland was among the number who saved their lives by flight. He found an asylum with his friends at Rouen, but deliberately killed himself with his cane-sword on hearing of the execution of his wife, Nov. 15th, 1793. His body was found by the roadside, and a paper in his pocket contained his last words, among which were these: "Whoever thou art that findest these remains, respect them, as those of a man who consecrated his life to usefulness, and who died as he has lived, virtuous and honest."

On hearing of my wife's death, I would not remain another day upon this earth

so stained with crimes." Roland was marked by his practical philosophy, commercial knowledge, and strict simplicity.

ROLAND, MANON JEANNE PHILIPPON, Madame, the wife of the preceding, and herself the spirit of the Girondist party, was the daughter of a Parisian engraver, and was born at Paris in 1754. Of nine she was the only child left to her father, who provided her with masters regardless of expense, and gave her a brilliant education; the best grounds for which existed in her native talents, her firm spirit, her personal beauty, and her undoubted virtues. Antiquities, heraldry, philosophy, and, among other books, the Bible, made up her earliest studies; her favorite authors, however, were Plutarch, Tacitus, Montaigne, and Rousseau. In 1779 she became the wife of Roland; and as her love for him was founded on his antique virtues and philosophic spirit, she has been called 'the Heloise of the eighteenth century;' he was also twenty years her senior. She shared in all his studies, assisted him in editing his works, and during his two ministries acted as his secretary, entering into all the intrigues of his party without debasing herself by their meanness. She was the angel of the cause she espoused, the soul of honor and the conscience of all who embraced it; while her boldness, her political sagacity, and her sarcastic eloquence were equally dreaded by their adversaries.

After the flight of her husband, Madame Roland was arrested by order of the Paris commune, under dictation of Marat and Robespierre, and consigned to the Abbaye prison; from which, on the 31st of October, 1793 (the day her Girondist friends were led to execution), she was removed to a more wretched abode in the damp vaults of the Conciergerie. The dismal dungeon into which she was cast adjoined the cell in which the hapless Marie Antoinette had languished in misery till dragged to the guillotine. The next day she was subjected to an abusive examination, and having thus learned the nature of the charges which would be brought against her, she sat down in her cell that very night, and swiftly sketched her eloquent defense. She bore the subsequent examinations with serenity and courage, though certain of the untimely death that awaited her.

The upper part of the door of her cell was an iron grating. The neighboring dungeons were filled with illustrious Frenchmen and Frenchwomen. To some it was permitted to walk in the corridors. These, and those more closely immured, often called for her to give them encouraging and consoling words. Standing upon a stool at the door of her own cell, she grasped the iron grating which separated her from her companions in confinement. The melodious accents of her voice floated among those dismal dungeons, penetrating cell after cell, and arousing energy in hearts which had been abandoned to despair. The calmness with which she viewed the certain approach of death, gave to her voice that depth of tone and slightly tremulous utterance which sent her words with thrilling power to every heart. A survivor of those dreadful scenes, who was then an inmate of the prison, has glowingly described the almost miraculous effects of her eloquence at such times. Occasionally, in the solitude of her cell, the recollection of her husband and her child would overcome her with tears. The passion was only momentary. The heroine rose above the woman. With the highest degree of heroism she combined the most resistless charms of feminine loveliness. With an energy of will, an inflexibility of purpose, and a firmness of stoical endurance that few mortals have ever surpassed, Madame Roland combined that purity and gentleness and tenderness and affection,—that instinctive sense of the proprieties of her sex,—which gathered about her a love as pure and enthusiastic as woman ever excited.

Upon the trial, she met her judges calmly and invincibly. She was accused of the crimes of being the wife of M. Roland and the friend of his friends. She proudly owned the truth of both those charges. Whenever she attempted to utter a word in her defense, she was browbeaten by the judges, and silenced by the clamors of the mob. Her serenity was untroubled, save by the exaltation of enthusiasm, and she composedly watched the progress of the trial whose rapid and resistless course was bearing her to the scaffold. Yet it was difficult to bring any accusation against her by which she could be condemned under the pretense and form of law. France, even in her dark-

est hour, was rather ashamed to behead a woman, simply for being the wife of her husband and the friend of his friends. At last it was demanded of her that she should reveal her husband's asylum. Her refusal was enough, and she was immediately condemned. She calmly listened to her sentence; then rising, she bowed with dignity to her unjust judges, and said with a smile, "I thank you, gentlemen, for thinking me worthy to share the fate of the great men whom you have assassinated. I shall endeavor to imitate their firmness on the scaffold."

The morning of the 10th of November, a long procession of carts loaded with victims left the Conciergie for the guillotine. In the last of the mournful vehicles was Madame Roland. She was clad in a white robe, and her black glossy hair, which for some reason the executioners had neglected to cut, fell in rich profusion to her waist. She had continued writing her memoirs until the hour in which she left the cell for the scaffold. When the cart had almost reached the foot of the guillotine, her spirit was so deeply moved by the tragic scene, such emotions came rushing in upon her soul from departing time and opening eternity, that she could not repress the desire to write, once more. She unavailingly begged an officer to furnish her with pen and paper for one moment. Her courage did not falter on the scaffold. Bowing before the statue to the goddess of Liberty, she said, "O Liberty! Liberty! how many crimes are committed in thy name." Her neck was put beneath the fatal axe of the guillotine; the steel descended; and her severed head rolled into the gory basket.

ROLLIN, CHARLES, an eminent historian, born at Paris in 1661, died in 1741.

ROMANOFF, HOUSE OF. Unlicensed power does not foster the growth of virtue; and there are no sections of history more lamentable than those which recount the deeds of families wielding for centuries regal authority, whether it be the Ptolemies of ancient time, or the Stuarts or Bourbons of modern days. The biography of the imperial house of Russia does not yield an exception.

The Rurik dynasty, which for seven centuries, had held power in Russia, ended with the childless Feodor in 1598. His legitimate heir, Dmitri, was assassinated, and the land

became the prey of anarchy, which, with the ambition of rapacious neighbors, menaced the burial of its independence. The throne was offered to the Polish monarch, and all but given, when a successful effort to save the nationality threw off the yoke and drove the Poles from Moscow. A convocation of deputies from the nobles, priests, and burgesses, of each province, was held in 1613, to choose a czar, and Michael Romanoff was selected. The Romanoffs were one of the leading families of Muscovy, having their origin in an adventurer from western Europe who settled in the land in the fourteenth century. Michael was then a youth of seventeen. His kin had suffered sorely in the previous years of lawlessness; he himself had spent many years in exile and in prison; his illustrious father, who had been the ambassador to Poland, was languishing in prison at Warsaw. Alive to the dangers and cares which hedged about the regal dignity in that troublous land and time, the young czar elect declined the honor. His scruples were overcome; he was crowned at Moscow, and he reigned for two and thirty years. The wars he waged with the Poles and with the Swedes cost him broad provinces, but his reign was very popular, and well calculated to establish his family upon the throne. We are told that he forbade the use of tobacco as injurious to health and strength, and that he issued a sort of Mainelaw ukase against ardent beverages. He obtained his father's release from the Polish dungeon, and wisely admitted him to a share in the government, where his prudence and moderation were of great profit.

Michael's son and successor, Alexis, was of another stamp. He chose for his prime counselor and minister, Boris Morosoff, an able nobleman, but ferocious, unprincipled, rapacious, and ambitious. Open traffic was made of justice; offices and employments were publicly sold. These exactions and oppressions excited the just resentment of the inhabitants of Moscow, and finding their petitions disregarded, no grievances redressed, and starvation threatening them from the monopolies in trade which the royal favorite possessed, they rose in tumult, and cried for the head of Morosoff. With difficulty Alexis saved the life of his minister by banishing him. The czar did little better when left to

himself. His evil administration caused more insurrections of a famishing people, which were put down with awful carnage by his strelitz, or mercenary body-guard. A ray of light strays upon his despotism through efforts which he began to make for the advancement of the wealth and industry of his realm. He had the gold mines opened and worked, superintended the construction of the two first ships built in Russia, and advanced the intercourse with the more civilized countries in the west. He died at the age of forty-seven, having reigned thirty-one years. By his first wife, Alexis left two sons, Feodor and Ivan, and six daughters, among them Sophia; and by the second, Peter and the princess Natalia.

At once there arose a dispute for the succession. Feodor was sickly, and not likely to live. Ivan was almost blind, very deaf, and wholly imbecile. The Narishkins, the powerful kinsmen of the second wife, claimed the throne for Peter, then only three years of age. The vigor of Sophia, aided by her beauty and eloquence, turned the scale in favor of Feodor. He lived only six years, insignificant and invalid. Then the fierce contest for the succession was renewed. Peter and his mother narrowly escaped murder from the emissaries of Sophia. At last the idiot Ivan and his half-brother were associated in the nominal dignity of czar, with Sophia for regent. She placed Peter in a country village and surrounded him with profligate and drunken boors. From her idiot brother she had no intrusion to fear. Aided by her able and wary counselor, Prince Galitzin, she applied herself to confirm her authority, and avoid the perils common to usurpers. Yet she was beset by troubles, dangers, and unruly subjects. With all she had done to quench the manhood of Peter, he was still the thorn in her flesh. In his rustication he had learned readily enough the vices set around him; but drunkenness could not drown his energy and strength of character; and as he grew to manly years, his ambition was not concealed. Sophia must be rid of him. The attempt resulted in her downfall. He was victorious, and she with a shaven head was immured in a nunnery. From this time, 1689, Peter is to be considered as sole sovereign of Russia; since from the period of

this revolution to the year 1696, in which Ivan died, the idiot led a private and retired life.

Peter the Great was born May 30th, 1672. His vast projects of improvement raised Russia to the rank of an empire. At the time of his accession he could neither read nor write, thanks to Sophia. Lefort, a Swiss, one of his companions, taught him not only Russian, but several other European languages. His army was undisciplined: he sent abroad for well-trying soldiers,—thousands of Frenchmen, Scots, Germans, and Swiss,—and leavened, the different corps. Very soon all he needed was a general, a want which would not have existed, had merit been the ground of promotion. To correct this abuse, he entered the ranks and performed the duties of a common soldier, till, by rising gradually and regularly through all the grades to the command of a body of troops, he exhibited the duty of obedience and the necessity of discipline, in his own example. Russia had no navy. Peter was born with such a dread of water that whenever he saw a river he shuddered. Of this he cured himself by a rigorous morning regimen of icy shower-baths. He became a practical mariner, and then a ship-carpenter. He visited Holland, under a disguised name, in 1698. Here he worked as a common laborer among the shipwrights in the dock-yard, and then he went to England. There in the royal dock-yard at Deptford, spurning all ceremony and attention, he hewed and hammered like any other frugal, industrious carpenter. When he was thoroughly a master-workman, he went home, and by and by Russia had a navy. Insurrections of the soldiery were a frequent thing. Peter put them down by his resistless daring and force, making fearful examples, till sedition disturbed him no more. His rule was a despotism, but it had for its grand object the aggrandizement of the nation, and not simply selfish ambition. Whatever stood in the way of his gigantic schemes, he crushed without remorse. The council of the boyards and nobles was a restraint upon his will: he brushed it away. Priestcraft he hated as an antagonistic despotism; he crumbled the power of the church, and declared himself its patriarch and head. When he founded St. Petersburg, the clergy swelled the popular dislike to its unhealthy

marshes, by proclaiming that an image of the Virgin, which had been removed to the church on the Neva, shed visible tears thereat. Peter strode into the church, seized the sniveling doll, gouged its eyes, and chuckled to find a small reservoir of oil, so contrived that a little stream could trickle down the cheeks.

He decreed that the dress of his people should assimilate to that of western Europe. He disliked beards, and by taxing them promoted shaven chins. One of the wisest of his social enactments was that which sent young Russians on foreign tours; it helped to raise the Russian noble from a drunken, sensual, brutal boor toward a polished gentleman. Peter was drunken and sensual, in a degree that would have swamped an ordinary man; but he was not an ordinary man, and he knew the worth of virtues and attainments that he did not practice. His trusted friends were foreigners, or Russians who had traveled abroad. Lefort, the Swiss, was his chief adviser; Menshikoff, who began life as a pastry-cook, and ended by founding a princely house still foremost in the empire, was another; and wherever Peter found useful talent, whether in a Muscovite boyard or in a Dutch skipper, he encouraged and employed it.

His domestic life was as strange as his public career. When very young, he married Eudocia, the daughter of Col. Lapuchin, and when quite as young he began to brutally maltreat her, and neglect her for low amours, for he was not at all nice in his mistresses. Alexis, the son which she bore him in 1670, Peter ever hated. A charge of treason was trumped up; Alexis was condemned to death, and the sentence was fulfilled by a horrible poison. The last of Peter's mistresses became his second wife. Her life shows a curious scale. First a Swedish peasant girl, then the wife of a dragoon, then captured by the Russians, successively the mistress of Gen. Bauer and Prince Menshikoff, she was sold by the latter to his master, and became czarina. Martha, her original name, was changed for Catharine. Her imperturbable good-nature proved a resistless charm for impetuous Peter,—one that could calm his wildest fits of passion. She accompanied him to the camp, wielding a strong influence. It is said

that the truce which saved his army when surrounded by the Turks on the banks of the Pruth, was entered into by her without even his knowledge. She was as influential in the court, and the sad fate of Alexis hints her instigation.

The great czar went on; rearing an imperial city of splendid proportions and design, on the watery desert of the Neva; waging battle with Turk and Swede and Pole; building up fleets of war and navies of commerce; founding that army which has since been brought almost to the perfection of a machine; careering, like the car of the Hindoo idol, over life and happiness and liberty, toward the mark of his lofty aims and indomitable energy. In 1716 he journeyed with Catharine to Denmark, and thence to Holland, the scene of the hardy toil of plain Peter Timmermann. Much had been done since then: that toil was not for naught. At last there came to Peter the Great that fate which comes to all. He died of strangury, aggravated by exposure to wet and cold on a boating excursion, Jan. 28th, 1725. A colossal statue was erected to his memory at St. Petersburg, by the second Catharine. The huge block of granite which forms its pedestal, and which weighs upward of fifteen tons, was conveyed from a marsh at a distance of four English miles from St. Petersburg, and two from the sea. On approaching near to the rock, the simple inscription fixed on it in bronze letters, "*Petro Primo, Catharina Secunda, MDCCCLXXII.*," meets the eye. The same inscription in the Russian language appears on the opposite side. The area is enclosed within a handsome railing placed between granite pillars. The idea of Falconet, the French architect commissioned to erect an equestrian statue of this extraordinary man, at whose command a few scattered huts of fishermen were converted into palaces, was to represent him as conquering, by enterprise and personal courage, difficulties almost insurmountable. This, the artist imagined, might be properly represented by placing Peter on a fiery steed, which he is supposed to have taught by skill, management, and perseverance, to rush up a steep and precipitous rock, to the very brink of a precipice, over which the animal and the imperial rider pause without fear, and in an attitude of triumph. The horse rears with his

fore feet in the air, and seems impatient of restraint, while the sovereign, turned toward the island, surveys with calm and serene countenance his capital rising out of the waters, over which he extends the hand of protection.

This monument of bronze is said to have been cast at a single jet. The height of the figure of the emperor is eleven feet; that of the horse seventeen feet; the general weight of the metal in the group is equal to 36,636 English pounds. It is said that when the artist had formed his conception of the design, he communicated it to the empress, together with the impossibility of representing to nature so striking a position of man and animal, without having before his eyes a horse and rider in the attitude he had devised. General Melessino, an officer having the reputation of being the most expert as well as the boldest rider of the day, to whom the difficulties of the artist were made known, offered to ride daily one of Count Alexis Orloff's best Arabians, to the summit of a steep artificial mound formed for the purpose; accustoming the horse to gallop up to it, and to halt suddenly, with his fore legs raised, pawing the air over the brink of a precipice. This dangerous experiment was carried into effect by the general for some days, in the presence of several spectators and of Falconet, who sketched the various movements and parts of the group from day to day. In an equestrian statue the horse is the great point; the rider is of little account. The merit of this group consists in the boldness with which it rests on the hind legs of the steed, assisted by an allegorical serpent of envy that the horse very judiciously spurns rather than topple over.

Peter had appointed his widow his successor; she had Menshikoff and the army on her side, moreover, and she mounted the throne. Freed from the restraint of a husband, and such an imperious one withal, Catharine left business to Menshikoff, and immersed herself in the profligacy which she considered pleasure. Cancer, dropsy, and other maladies cut her off at the age of thirty-nine. Peter, the son of the Alexis of inhuman doom, came to the throne. He was a lad of promise, but only a lad. The government continued in the control of Menshikoff, who

endeavored to carry on the vast plans of Peter the Great, and so became more and more brutal and despotic. In the height of power he was banished to Siberia, and Ivan Dalgorky, whose sister Catharine the boy czar loved and wedded, took his place. But Ivan's span was short, for Peter died in 1630, at the age of fifteen. He was the last of the male line of Romanoff. The nearest heir was Peter, the infant son of Anne, Duchess of Holstein-Gottorp, a daughter of Peter the Great. His aunt Elizabeth, another daughter of Peter, as well as the three daughters of the imbecile Ivan, put forth their claims. A caucus of generals and a few nobles decided in favor of Anne, Duchess of Courland, the second daughter of Ivan. After she had strengthened herself by conciliating the soldiery who had made her empress, she began to repudiate the pledges that had been imposed upon her. One promise was that she would not bring her chamberlain Biren into Russia: he was soon sent for, and intrusted with the whole conduct of affairs, foreign and domestic. Exile and the knout were the devices of his rule; the latter he considered the best answer to any petition or complaint from the people, while the other was his remedy for those who were tainted with opposition to his will. It is said that his banishments to Siberia averaged more than six exiles a day. For Anne, his affection and a few pleasures were sufficient. She was not marked by the coarse vices of her race: she was not a drunkard, and it is not known that she set a premium on profligacy. Fond of cheerful music and gay dancing, she preferred a tranquil life to the boisterous revels of her successors. Now and then she did a deed that evinced the blood she bore. Prince Galitzin, one of the highest nobles in Russia, forsook the Greek for the Romish faith: Anne made him the court-fool, and had him beaten by her pages when his jests failed to amuse. Just at the close of her reign, she took offense at one of her ministers, Volynski: she had his tongue torn from the roots, his right hand cut off, and his mutilated body beheaded. She died childless in 1740. The ambition and arrogance of Biren had worked his ruin, and he took his turn in Siberia. Ivan, grand-nephew of the deceased empress, had been declared the heir. He was only

three months old, and his mother, Anne of Mecklenburg, Duchess of Brunswick, was made regent. She was but a girl of sixteen, and her waiting-maid controlled all. Under such giddiness, revolution came of course, and soon.

The Princess Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the Great, was made empress. Ivan, the innocent and unconscious babe, was dethroned, and immured in a dungeon; and the duchess and her husband were imprisoned in a fortress, where they died. Ivan's fate was hapless enough. He spent his days in prison; every trick to debase his intellect was tried; brandy was given him in quantities; his temper was irritated to sullenness and ferocity, and when one day a word showed a dim consciousness of his birth and claims, in the time of Catharine the Great, the next morning his body lay in a puddle of gore, thrust with five and twenty wounds.

Elizabeth inherited a share of her father's energy, and a fuller portion of his cruelty. She bent her thoughts to the government of the empire, and her twenty years' reign showed no lack of vigor. She abolished capital punishment, except for political offenses, but the knout and torture were substituted, so that such clemency was of slight worth. Like her English namesake she never married, yet she can not be named as a maiden queen, and her meditations were far less 'fancy free.' In her last years she resigned the cares of state to her favorite and able statesman, Panin, and abandoned herself to vile debauches, and died at last in 1762, of delirium tremens, with a half-emptied brandy bottle in her hand and obscene ravings on her tongue.

She left her throne to her nephew Peter, of Holstein-Gottorp, once before a claimant. Brought up under her care, it is not strange that he was ignorant and dissolute. He was grandson to Peter the Great and Catharine I., whose eldest daughter, the Princess Anne, had married his father, Charles Frederick, Duke of Holstein. His reign commenced with a time of political jubilee; the credit of which is due to his ministers, for he was steeped in habitual excesses. He for a long time slighted his consort, Catharine, and openly lived with the Countess of Worontzoff, niece to the chancellor of that name.

Catharine indulged in the greatest licentiousness; and, after the dismissal of Poniatowski, the Polish ambassador, with whom she had been too intimate, she carried on a criminal intercourse with Gregory Orloff, who became an active and zealous member of a conspiracy against the czar. To the conspiracy of Bestucheff, supported by his nephew, the Prince of Wolskonsky, and by Count Panin, was added another, of which the Princess Dashkoff, a girl only eighteen years of age, was the most active and spirited member. Of all these factions, which acted without the cognizance of each other, Catharine was the animating spirit.

At length a report was propagated that the emperor entertained the design of declaring Prince Ivan his successor, of disowning the young grand-duke, Paul, his son, and of immuring Catharine for life in a prison, and substituting in her place his mistress, the Countess of Worontzoff.

At seven in the morning of the 9th of July, 1762, Catharine entered the city of Petersburg in the absence of the czar; and having induced the soldiers to believe that her death, together with that of her son, had been decreed by the emperor that night, the troops took the oath of allegiance to her. She then repaired to the church of Casan, where the Archbishop of Novogorod placed on her head the imperial crown, and in a loud voice proclaimed her sovereign of all the Russias, under the name of Catharine II. The revolution was bloodless. Her husband was solacing himself with his mistress at one of his country-houses of pleasure, when he was informed of the event which had taken place. Consternation immediately pervaded his whole company. The emperor, perplexed and confounded, ordered, countermanded, asked advice, adopted, and again rejected it, and at length set out with his mistress and aid-de-camp to meet Catharine, vainly hoping to move by submission the heart of a woman who was utterly devoid of pity or compassion. After being induced to write and sign a renunciation of the throne of Russia, he was cast into prison, where seven days after, a minion of the empress gave him poison, and made the dose sure by strangling him, after a struggle in which the poor wretch

fought with the desperation and agony of despair.

The woman thus made mistress of Russia, was born at Stettin in Prussia, of the house of Anhalt Zerbst, May 2d, 1729. Her name was originally Sophia, but upon her marriage, she obeyed the law and custom of Russia by leaving the Lutheran faith, and was baptized into the Greek church by the name of Catharine Alexiena. History calls her Catharine the Great, an epithet that seems to belong to all robbers, murderers, and villains that have the opportunity of moulding their crimes in colossal dimensions. With all that accuses Napoleon, it is much to his credit that the word does not cling to his name, and it is surely out of place, in its historic acceptance, upon that of wise Alfred of England. Catharine was a woman of unbounded ambition. In her reign of a third of a century, it was aided by such ministers as Panin and Potemkin, and to wage her wars she had warriors like Romantzoff and the merciless and indomitable Suwarrow. Many magnificent schemes for the advancement of Russia were promulgated in her ukases, sounding her glory far and wide: a few of these were put into operation; but most of them, like many a fine metropolis in our West, existed only on paper. Indeed, she published a list of two hundred and forty-five cities which she had founded; we may look in vain for most of them. Once Joseph II. of Austria accompanied her to lay the foundation of a new city on the Dnieper, to be called, after her name, Ekaterinoslaf. In her imagination it already rivaled St. Petersburg. With imposing ceremony the empress laid the first stone, and her imperial companion another. On his return Joseph drily remarked, "The empress and I have this day achieved a great work: she has laid the first stone of a great city, and I have laid the last." Such was the fate of many of the towns she laid: they were never hatched. She made vast beginnings and mean endings. Her plans were sure to be perverted before they reached the extremities of her dominions. Diderot compared her empire to a fruit rotten before it was ripe. Joseph of Austria called it a "colossus of brass on a pedestal of clay." One great feature of her fame is as a lawgiver.

to her credit be it said that she first lessened and finally abolished the practice of torture. But her famous code of laws, which has been so much praised, never went beyond the set of instructions for its formation which she drew up, and all that was good in these she stole from Montesquieu and other sources.

The luxury and waste of her life and the consequent profusion of expense, sustained by doubling and trebling the taxes, have few parallels. The nation's resources increased under her administration, but it mattered not how much: she was equal to their exhaustion. Upon her favorites she lavished diamonds by handfuls, and coin like pebbles, a harvest of wealth that sprung from the starvation and beggary of thousands. Plague and famine raged in the provinces; rife rebellions were quelled only at terrible cost of life; and in one case an entire Tartar nation took flight from the cruelty and rapacity of her myrmidons, through an awful path of desert and wilderness, to the distant asylum of China. Such a ruler was naturally an accomplice in that stupendous crime, the partition of Poland; she had smoothed the way by forcing upon the Poles as a king, one of her cast-off paramours, Stanislaus Poniatowski. We must not forget that she did much to encourage Russian literature, and that her decree allowing any one to set up a printing-office without a license from government, had an important effect in advancing the civilization of the empire.

Her private character befitted a daughter rather than merely the wife of a Romanoff. Her profligacy was open, defiant, and it increased with her years. We can not sully our pages with even a hint of its details: the record is already black enough. Yet this woman, whose political crimes were so colossal, and whose private vices so detestable, in her personal deportment and in the circle of her court, was kind, easy, and good-humored. Her serenity of temper and composure of manner were remarkable. She was a liberal mistress to her friends, and in the midst of her despotism she sometimes displayed almost unaccountable indulgence and magnanimity. She never hesitated at any atrocity, cruelty, or injustice which could promote her designs or secure her power; yet she could forgive a personal affront, and

seldom punished, even when most provoked. While she was meditating the destruction of Sweden, and preparing all the resources of her realm for one more stupendous war, apoplexy smote her from life, Nov. 10th, 1796.

Her son Paul was crowned emperor. She had hated him, given him the worst of breeding and education, surrounded him with spies and depraved fellows, thwarted him in every wish or enjoyment, and by thirty-four years of contempt and vexation made him a narrow-minded, irritable, wretched maniac. He began his reign, however, with a show of good sense and humanity, undoing some of the worst measures of his mother. This was soon over, and his frantic caprices ran riot, till a terrible end came. He was murdered in his bed-chamber by a small band of conspirators. His awful dying cry was, "And you too, my Constantine!"

Bright auspices encircled the ascent of Alexander. His nature was amiable and generous. He was crowned the 27th of September, 1801, at the age of twenty-four. His mother, Maria, was the daughter of Duke Eugene of Wurtemberg, and throughout his life she exerted a great influence over Alexander, by whom she was tenderly beloved. His tutor, Colonel Laharpe, a Swiss republican, had taught him enlightened principles and liberal views. In 1793 he had married Elizabeth, the excellent daughter of the hereditary prince of Baden. He took part in the conspiracy against his father Paul, although it is impossible to believe that he entertained any design against his life, but saw safety to himself and others only in the removal of the emperor from a throne which he disgraced by the reckless spirit of persecution. Alexander sought to promote the welfare of Russia: he removed the shackles from her commerce and internal industry; he regulated the interior administration of his kingdom; he established schools and universities; he bettered the condition of the peasantry; he raised the military character of his subjects; he modified laws with a liberal spirit; he provided for the construction of roads and canals; he encouraged merit wherever he found it, and finally sought to inspire all classes with a spirit of union, patriotism, enterprise, and courage.

He was an admirer of the brilliant qualities of Napoleon, and this sincere admiration of the French emperor led to their celebrated meeting at Erfurt, in September, 1808. Alexander then thought that, in connection with Napoleon, he might fix the destinies of Europe. But Napoleon could brook no equal, and Alexander no superior, and the alliance was soon ruptured. In 1814 the chivalrous conduct of Alexander to the Parisians, when the allies entered their capital,—the deference he paid to their wishes and opinions,—and his elevated and noble sentiments,—gained him their enthusiastic admiration. But in attending to the affairs of all Europe he had neglected those of Russia: his schemes of reform had fallen through; war and invasion had increased the taxes; and the people began to groan under the old burden of corruption. Alexander loved to be the arbiter of the continent, and for that he still neglected his empire. He had tired of his liberal theories, for his position naturally inclined him to despotism. In all the affairs of Europe, to the time of his death, he partook, exerting an immense influence in the different European courts. He was the principal contriver of the “holy alliance,” but probably from principle as much as from interest. He was the main stay of this unhallowed confederacy. His death took place at Taganrock, in the south of Russia, of a bilious fever, Dec. 1st, 1825. In his last illness, the emperor refused medicine, calling continually for “iced water,” the only thing which he would drink. His illness lasted eleven days. Three days after his death, the body was exposed to permit the people to kiss the hands of their dead monarch. It was then placed in a coffin, and borne in procession to the church, where it remained forty days, and was thence carried to St. Petersburg. The empress, who was tenderly attached to her husband, although for a while they had separated, soothed his last moments, and received his last sigh.

Alexander left no legitimate offspring. Constantine was the eldest brother, but the dreadful stigma of parricide that stained his name, and the resemblance he bore in character to the wild and vicious Paul, made his accession much to be dreaded. Russia heard with joy that, for the sake of union with a

young Polish lady, he had, before the death of Alexander, signed a renunciation in favor of Nicholas, a younger brother. A revolt, aiming at the establishment of a constitutional monarchy, ominously began the new reign. It was soon quelled, and the conspirators mounted the scaffold, or turned their dejected faces toward Siberia. Nicholas had devoted himself to military studies. He was not a great general or a great statesman, but he had energy and determination. The early years of his reign promised well, but ambition and the desire of conquest ruined all. Catharine the Great had meditated the conquest of Turkey, and the establishment of another empire. Thus she had named her second grandson Constantine. Nicholas was soon involved in war with Turkey. Poland, groaning under the rule of Constantine, rose in that revolution whose sad fate is well known. Nicholas ruled more and more as an autocrat. His great power he used in a degree wisely, in developing the esoteric resources of his land, building gigantic lines of railway, fostering industry, and so forth. At last his ambition involved him in the great war with Turkey and the western powers. In the midst of this great contest, the czar died, at the age of fifty-nine. His domestic life had been free from the vices of his ancestors. In 1817 he had married Louise Charlotte, daughter of Frederick William III. of Prussia, by whom he had four sons and three daughters. The eldest son, Alexander, born in 1818, succeeded to the crown, and thus far has bade fair to do much toward redeeming the name of the imperial race of Romanoff.

ROME, a city of Italy, now the capital of the States of the Church, and once of the Roman empire, stands on the banks of the river Tiber, about fifteen miles from the sea. The name of its founder, and the manner of its foundation, are not precisely known. Romulus, however, is said to have laid the foundations on the 20th of April, according to Varro, in the year 3961 of the Julian period, 3251 years after the creation of the world, 753 before the birth of Christ, 431 years after the Trojan war, and in the fourth year of the sixth Olympiad.

In its original state, Rome was but a small walled town on the summit of the Palatine Hill; and the founder, to give his followers



THE COLISEUM.

the appearance of a nation or a barbarian horde, was obliged to erect a standard as a common asylum for every criminal, debtor, or murderer, who fled from their native country to avoid the punishment which attended them. From such an assemblage a numerous body was soon collected, stocked with wives by the rape of the Sabines, and before the death of the founder, the Romans had covered with their habitations, the Palatine, Capitoline, Aventine, Esquiline hills, with Mount Cælius, and Quirinalis.

Under the successors of Romulus, the power of Rome was increased, and the boundaries of her dominions extended. While one ruler employed himself in regulating the forms of worship, and inculcating in the minds of his subjects a reverence for the Deity, another engaged in enforcing discipline among the army, and raising the consequence of the soldiers in the government of

the state; and a third made the object of his administration consist in adorning his capital, in beautifying its edifices, and in fortifying it with towers and walls.

During two hundred and forty-four years the Romans were governed by kings, but the tyranny, the oppression, and the violence of the last of these monarchs, and of his family, became so atrocious, that a revolution was effected in the state, and a republic was established. The monarchical government existed under seven princes, who began to reign in the following order: Romulus, B.C. 753; and after one year's interregnum, Numa, 715; Tullus Hostilius, 672; Ancus Martius, 640; Tarquin Priscus, 616; Servius Tullius, 578; and Tarquin the Proud, 534, expelled twenty-five years after, B.C. 510. The history of this natal period rests chiefly upon popular traditions.

After the expulsion of the Tarquins from

ROM

the throne, the Romans became so jealous of their independence, that Collatinus, the first of their consuls, he who had been most zealous and animated in the assertion of their freedom, was banished from the city because he bore the name and was of the family of the tyrants; and Valerius, who was chosen in his stead, to stop their suspicions, was obliged to pull down his house, whose stateliness and magnificence above the rest, seemed incompatible with the duties and the rank of a private citizen.

When Rome had flourished under the consular government for about a hundred and twenty years, and had beheld with pleasure the conquests of her citizens over the neighboring states and cities, which, according to a Roman historian, she was ashamed to recollect in the summit of her power, an irruption of the barbarians of Gaul rendered her very existence precarious, and her name was nearly extinguished. The valor of the injured Camillus saved her from annihilation, yet not before her buildings and temples were reduced to ashes.

This event, which gave the appellation of another founder of Rome to Camillus, has been looked upon as a glorious era to the Romans. But no sooner were they freed from the fears of their barbarian invaders, than they turned their arms against those states which refused to acknowledge their superiority, or yield their independence. Their wars with Pyrrhus and the Tarentines, displayed their character in a different view; if they before had fought for freedom and independence, they now drew their swords for glory; and here we may see them conquered in the field, and yet refusing to grant that peace for which their conqueror himself had sued. The advantages they gained from their battles with Pyrrhus were many. The Roman name became known in Greece, Sicily, and Africa, and in losing or gaining a victory, the Romans were enabled to examine the manœuvres, observe the discipline, and contemplate the order and the encampments of those soldiers whose friends and ancestors had accompanied Alexander the Great in the conquest of Asia.

Italy became subjected to the Romans at the end of the war with the Tarentines, and that period of time has been called the second

age, or the adolescence of the Roman empire. After this, they tried their strength not only with distant nations, but also upon a new element; and in the long wars which they waged against Carthage, they were successful, and obtained the sovereignty of the sea. Though Hannibal for sixteen years kept them in continual alarms, hovered round their gates, and destroyed their armies almost before their walls, yet they were fated to conquer, and soon to add the kingdom of Macedonia and the provinces of Asia to their empire.

Yet while their conquests were so extensive abroad, we find them torn by factions at home; and so far was oppression of the poorer citizens at one time carried, that we see the Volscians at the gates of the city, while they are unwilling to take up arms and to unite in the defense of the common liberty. The senators and patricians were ambitious of power, and endeavored to retain in their hands that influence which had been exercised with so much success and such cruelty by their monarchs. This was the continual occasion of tumults and sedition. The plebeians were jealous of their liberty. The oppression of the patricians irritated them, and the stripes to which they were too often exposed without mercy, were often productive of revolutions.

The plebeians, though originally the poorest and most contemptible citizens of an indigent nation, whose food in the first ages of the empire was only bread and salt, and whose drink was water, soon gained rights and privileges by their opposition. They became powerful in the state; one concession from the patricians produced another; and when their independence was boldly asserted by their tribunes, they were admitted to share in the highest offices of the state, the laws which forbade the intermarriage of plebeian and patrician families were repealed, and the meanest peasant could by valor and fortitude be raised to the dignity of dictator and consul. It was not till these privileges were obtained by the people from the senate, that Rome began to enjoy internal peace and tranquillity: her battles were then fought with more vigor, her soldiers were more animated, and her sovereignty was more universally established.

But supreme power, lodged in the hands of a fictitious and ambitious citizen, becomes too

often dangerous. The greatest oppression and tyranny, took the place of subordination and obedience; and from those causes proceeded the unparalleled slaughter and effusion of blood under a Sylla and a Marius. It has been justly observed, that the first Romans conquered their enemies by valor, temperance, and fortitude; their moderation also and their justice were well known among all their neighbors, and not only private possessions, but even mighty kingdoms and empires, were left in their power, to be distributed among a family, or to be insured in the hands of a successor. They were also chosen umpires to decide quarrels, but in this honorable office they consulted their own interest; they artfully supported the weaker side, that the more powerful might be reduced, and gradually become their prey.

Under Julius Cæsar and Pompey, the rage of civil war was carried to unprecedented excess: it was not merely to avenge a private injury, but it was a contest for the sovereignty; and though each of the adversaries wore the mask of pretended sincerity, and professed himself to be the supporter of the republic, no less than the abolition of freedom and the public liberty was the aim. What Julius began, his adopted son achieved: the ancient spirit of national independence was extinguished at Rome; and after the battle of Actium, the Romans seemed unable to govern themselves without the assistance of a chief, who, under the title of *imperator*, an appellation given to every commander by his army after some signal victory, reigned with as much power and as much sovereignty as another Tarquin.

Under their emperors, the Romans lived a luxurious and indolent life; they had long forgotten to appear in the field, and their wars were left to be waged by mercenary troops, who fought without spirit or animosity, and who were ever ready to yield to him who bought their allegiance and fidelity with the greatest sums of money. Their leaders themselves were not the most prudent or the most humane; the power which they had acquired by bribery was indeed precarious, and among the people, where not only the highest offices of the state, but even the imperial purple itself, was exposed to sale, there

could not be expected much happiness or tranquillity in the palace of the emperor.

The reigns of the successors of Augustus were distinguished by variety; one was the most abandoned and profligate of men, whom his own vices and extravagance hurried out of the world, while his successor, perhaps the most clement, just, and popular of princes, was sacrificed in the midst of his guards and attendants, by the dagger of some offended favorite or disappointed eunuch. Few indeed were the emperors of Rome whose days were not shortened by poison, or the sword of an assassin. If one for some time had the imprudence to trust himself in the midst of a multitude, at last to perish by his own credulity, the other consulted his safety, but with no better success, in the innumerable chambers of his palace, and changed every day, to elude discovery, the place of his retirement.

At last the necessity of dividing the unwieldy empire, and from the time of Diocletian a division was made for the purpose of facilitating the administration. Constantine made Constantinople the capital of the eastern part of the empire, and the chief seat of government. After the death of the elder Theodosius (A.D. 395), the division into the Eastern and Western empires became permanent. The power of Rome now rapidly decayed: its empire was exposed to fatal incursions from the Huns, the Goths, and other barbarians, and the last emperor was dethroned in 476. The bishops of Rome afterward assumed the title of pope, and gradually acquired an influence in temporal matters. In the year 800 the sovereignty of Rome and adjacent territory was confirmed by Charlemagne, then emperor of the west, to the pope.

The original poverty of the Romans has often been disguised by their poets and historians, who wished it to appear that a nation who were masters of the world, had had a better beginning than a race of shepherds and robbers. Yet to this simplicity they were indebted for their successes. Their houses were originally destitute of every ornament; they were made with unequal boards, and covered with mud; and these served them rather as a shelter against the inclemency of the seasons than for relaxation

and ease. Till the battles with Pyrrhus, they despised riches, and many salutary laws were enacted to restrain luxury and to punish indolence. They observed great temperance in their meals; young men were not permitted to drink wine till they had attained their thirtieth year, and it was totally forbidden to women.

Their national spirit was supported by policy; the triumphal procession of a conqueror along the streets amidst the applause of thousands, was well calculated to promote emulation; and the number of gladiators who were regularly introduced, not only in public games and spectacles, but also at private meetings, served to cherish their fondness for war, whilst it steeled their hearts against the calls of compassion; and when they could gaze with pleasure upon wretches whom they forcibly obliged to murder one another, they were not inactive in the destruction of those whom they considered as inveterate foes or formidable rivals in the field. In their punishments, civil as well as military, the Romans were strict and rigorous; a deserter was severely whipped and sold as a slave, and the degradation from the rank of a soldier and dignity of a citizen was the most ignominious stigma which could be affixed upon a seditious mutineer.

The transmarine victories of the Romans proved at last the ruin of their innocence and bravery. They grew fond of the luxury of the Asiatics; and, conquered by the vices and indolence of those nations whom they had subdued, they became as effeminate and as dissolute as their captives. Marcellus was the first who introduced a taste for the fine arts among his countrymen. The spoils and treasures that were obtained in the plunder of Syracuse and Corinth, rendered the Romans partial to elegant refinement and ornamental equipage. Though Cato had despised philosophy, and declared that war was the only profession of his countrymen, the Romans, by their intercourse with the Greeks, soon became fond of literature; and though they had once banished the sophists of Athens from their city, yet they beheld with rapture their settlement among them in the principal towns of Italy, after the conquest of Achaia. They soon after began to imitate their polished captives, and to cultivate poet-

ry with success. From the valor of their heroes and conquerors, indeed, the sublimest subjects were offered to the genius of their poets; but of the little that remains to celebrate the early victories of Rome, nothing can be compared to the nobler effusions of the Augustan age.

EMPERORS.

BEFORE CHRIST.

48. Caius Julius Cæsar; perpetual dictator: assassinated, March 15th, 44 B.C.
31. Octavianus Cæsar: in the year 27 B.C. *Augustus imperator*.

AFTER CHRIST.

14. Tiberius (Claudius Nero).
 37. Caius Caligula: murdered by a tribune.
 41. Claudius (Tiber. Drusus): poisoned by his wife Agrippina, to make way for
 54. Claudius Nero: deposed; put himself to death to escape a yet more terrible end.
 68. Servius Sulpicius Galba: slain by the prætorian band.
 69. M. Salvius Otho: stabbed himself, after a reign of three months.
 69. Aulus Vitellius: deposed by Vespasian, and put to death.
 69. Titus Flavius Vespasian.
 79. Titus (Vespasian), his son.
 81. Titus Flavius Domitian, brother of Titus; last of the twelve Cæsars: assassinated.
 96. Cocceius Nerva.
 98. Trajan (M. Ulpius Crinitus).
 117. Adrian or Hadrian (Publius Ælius).
 138. Antoninus Titus, surnamed Pius.
 161. Marcus Aurelius, and Lucius Verus, his son-in-law: the latter died in 169.
 180. Commodus (L. Aurelius Antoninus), son of Marcus Aurelius: poisoned by his favorite mistress, Martia.
 193. Publius Helvius Pertinax: put to death by the prætorian band.
- [Four emperors now start up: Didus Julianus, at Rome; Pescennius Niger, in Syria; Lucius Septimius Severus, in Pannonia; and Clodius Albinus, in Britain.]
193. Lucius Septimius Severus; died at York, in Britain, in 211; succeeded by his sons,
 211. M. Aurelius Caracalla, and Septimius Geta. Geta murdered the same year by his brother, who reigned alone until 217, when he was slain by his successor.
 217. M. Opilius Macrinus, prefect of the guards: beheaded in a mutiny.
 218. Heliogabalus (M. Aurelius Antoninus), a youth: put to death for his follies and enormities by his incensed subjects.
 222. Alexander Severus: assassinated by some soldiers corrupted by Maximinus.
 235. Caius Julius Verus Maximinus: assassinated in his tent before the walls of Aquileia.
 237. M. Antonius Gordianus, and his son: the latter having been killed in a battle with the partisans of Maximinus, the father

- strangled himself in a fit of despair, at Carthage, in his eightieth year.
237. Balbinus and Pupienus: put to death.
238. Gordian, junior, grandson of the elder Gordian, in his sixteenth year: assassinated by the guards, at the instigation of his successor.
244. Philip the Arabian: assassinated by his own soldiers: his son Philip was murdered, at the same time, in his mother's arms.
249. Metius Decius: he perished, with his two sons, and their army, in an engagement with the Goths.
251. Gallus Hostilius, and his son Volusianus: both slain by the soldiery.
253. Æmilianus: put to death after a reign of only four months.
253. Valerianus, and his son, Gallienus: the first was taken prisoner by Sapor, King of Persia, and flayed alive.
260. Gallienus reigned alone.
[About this time thirty pretenders to imperial power start up in different parts of the empire: of these, Cyriades is the first, but he is slain.]
268. Claudius II. (Gallienus having been assassinated by the officers of the guard) succeeds: dies of the plague.
270. Quintillus, his brother, elected at Rome by the senate and troops; Aurelian by the army in Illyricum. Quintillus, despairing of success against his rival, who was marching against him, opened his veins, and bled himself to death.
270. Aurelian: assassinated by his soldiers in his march against Persia, in January, 275.
275. [Interregnum of about nine months.]
275. Tacitus, elected Oct. 25th; died at Tarsus in Cilicia, April 13th, 276.
276. Florian, his brother: his title not recognized by the senate.
276. M. Aurelius Probus: assassinated by his troops at Sirmiun.
282. M. Aurelius Carus: killed at Ctesiphon by lightning; succeeded by his sons.
283. Carinus and Numerianus: both assassinated, after transient reigns.
284. Diocletian: who associated as his colleague in the government.
286. Maximianus Hercules: the two emperors resign in favor of
305. Constantius Chlorus and Galerius Maximianus: the first died at York, in Britain, in 306, and the troops saluted as emperor, his son,
306. Constantine, afterward styled the Great: whilst at Rome the prætorian band proclaimed
306. Maxentius, son of Maximianus Hercules. Besides these were,
306. Maximianus Hercules, who endeavored to recover his abdicated power,
306. Flavius Valerius, murdered by the last-named pretender, and
307. Flavius Valerianus Licinius, the brother-in-law of Constantine.
- [Of these, Maximianus Hercules was stran-

gled in Gaul in 310; Galerius Maximianus died wretchedly in 311; Maxentius was drowned in the Tiber in 312; and Licinius was put to death by order of Constantine in 324.]

324. Constantine the Great now reigned alone: died on Whitsunday, May 22d, 337.

337. { Constantine II.
Constans,
Constantius II. } Sons of Constantine; divided the empire between them: the first was slain in 340, and the second murdered in 350, when the third became sole emperor.

361. Julian, the Apostate, so called for abjuring Christianity, having been educated for the priesthood: mortally wounded in a battle with the Persians.

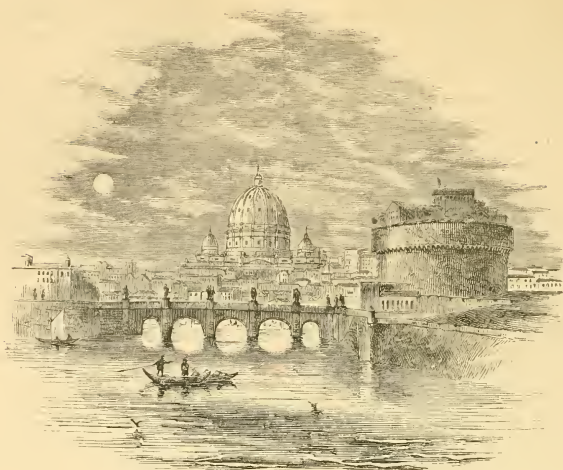
363. Jovian: reigned 8 months: found dead in his bed, supposed to have died from the fumes of charcoal.

The Roman empire may be said to have terminated here as a single dominion. [See EASTERN EMPIRE, WESTERN EMPIRE.]

The modern city of Rome is celebrated for its own magnificence and splendor as well as the ruins of former grandeur. The treasures of antiquity and art garnered in its temples, palaces, churches, and monuments, make it the resort of the artist and the scholar from all quarters of the globe. It had a population in 1862, of 197,078.

ROMILLY, Sir SAMUEL, an eminent English lawyer, was born at London, March 1st, 1757. In 1783 he was called to the bar. He rose to distinction in the court of chancery, and in the last administration of Mr. Fox, was made solicitor-general. When the party to whom he was attached went out of office, he also retired. He exerted himself in endeavoring to effect a revision of the criminal code, with a view to the limitation of capital punishments to a few heinous offenses. The death of this eminent man was most melancholy. Shocked at the loss of his wife, who died in the Isle of Wight, he became delirious, and destroyed himself Nov. 2d, 1818.

ROMULUS, the reputed founder of Rome, was born at the same birth with Remus; but of what parents it is impossible to say, as the account is involved in fable and mystery. They undertook to build a city, hoping that it would become a warlike and powerful nation. Romulus marked with a furrow the place where he wished to erect the walls;



ST. PETER'S.

but their slenderness was ridiculed by Remus, who leaped over them with contempt. This irritated Romulus, and Remus was immediately put to death, either by the hand of his brother or one of the workmen.

When the walls were built, the city was without inhabitants; but Romulus, by making an asylum of a sacred grove, soon collected a number of fugitives, foreigners, and criminals, whom he received as his lawful subjects. Yet however numerous these might be, they were despised by the neighboring inhabitants, and none were willing to form matrimonial connections with them.

But Romulus obtained by force what was denied to his petitions. The Romans celebrated games in honor of the god Consus, and forcibly carried away all the females who had assembled there to be spectators of these unusual exhibitions. These violent measures offended the neighboring nations; they made war against the ravishers with various success, till at last they entered Rome, which had been betrayed to them by Tarpeia, one of the stolen virgins. A violent engagement was begun in the middle of the Roman forum: but the Sabines were conquered, or, accord-

ing to Ovid, the two enemies laid down their arms when the women rushed between the two armies, and by their tears and entreaties raised compassion in the bosoms of their parents and husbands.

The Sabines left their original possessions and came to live in Rome, where Tatius, their king, shared the sovereign power with Romulus. The introduction of the Sabines into the city of Rome was attended with most salutary consequences; and the Romans, by pursuing this plan, and admitting the conquered nations among their citizens, rendered themselves more powerful and more formidable. Afterward Romulus divided the lands which he had obtained by conquest; one part was reserved for religious uses, to maintain the priests, to erect temples, and to consecrate altars; another was appropriated for the expenses of the state; and the third part was equally distributed among his subjects, who were divided into three classes or tribes.

The most aged and experienced, to the number of one hundred, were also chosen, whom the monarch might consult in matters of the highest importance, and from their age they

ROM

were called *senators*, and from their authority *patres*. The whole body of the people were also distinguished by the name of patricians and plebeians, patron and client, who by mutual interest were induced to preserve the peace of the state, and to promote the public good.

Some time after, Romulus disappeared, as he was giving instructions to the senators; and the eclipse of the sun, which happened at that time, was favorable to the rumor which asserted that the king had been taken by Mars to the abode of the gods, 716 B.C., after a reign of thirty-seven years. Such is the legend of Romulus, which is purely mythic.

RONCESVALLES, a valley in the Narvarre, where the army of Charlemagne, on their return from an expedition to that country, A.D. 778, were attacked by the hardy mountaineers in the narrow passes of the Pyrenees, and all that were separated from the main body were killed; among whom were the illustrious paladin Roland and other chiefs of note.

ROOKE, Sir GEORGE, a gallant English admiral, was born in Kent in 1650. He entered early into the naval service, and had the command of several expeditions in the reigns of King William and Queen Anne; all of which he conducted with equal skill and courage. In 1702 he attacked the French fleet and Spanish galleons in the harbor of Vigo, and took several galleons and men-of-war, besides destroying a number of others. In 1704 he made himself master of Gibraltar; notwithstanding which, such was the violence of party, Sir George was soon afterward superseded by the Whigs, who endeavored to lessen his services by representing them as the effects of mere chance and good fortune. He died Jan. 24th, 1709. When he made his will, some of his friends wondered at the slenderness of his circumstances, considering what employments he had been engaged in; to whom the dying hero said, "I do not leave much, 'tis true; but what I do leave was honestly gotten: it never cost a seaman a tear nor the nation a farthing."

ROSA, SALVATOR, was born near Naples, July 21st, 1615. Like many other great painters, he took up the art against the inclination of his father, who was an architect.

He soon rose to favor, and settled early in Rome, where he died March 15th, 1673. He abounded in wild and gloomy landscapes. The character of his genius and works has been vigorously sketched by Fuseli: "He delights in ideas of desolation, solitude, and danger; impenetrable forests, rocky or storm-lashed shores; in lonely dells leading to dens and caverns of banditti; alpine ridges, trees blasted by lightning, or sapped by time, or stretching their extravagant arms athwart a murky sky, lowering or thundering clouds, and suns shorn of their beams. His figures are wandering shepherds, forlorn travelers, wrecked mariners, banditti lurking for their prey or dividing their spoils." Salvator Rosa was also talented as a poet and musician.

ROSCOE, WILLIAM, was born in 1753, of humble parents, and, having received a common education, was articled, at an early age, to an attorney at Liverpool. He soon mastered, by dint of hard study, the Latin, French, and Italian languages, while he neither neglected his business nor the study of the English classics. His most important and celebrated works are the "Life of Lorenzo de Medici," and the "Life of Leo X." He died in 1831; and his memory is affectionately cherished by the inhabitants of Liverpool, whose taste he endeavored to improve, and whose public works he ably and strenuously supported. The banking house in which he was a partner becoming bankrupt, his latter years were clouded by pecuniary embarrassment, through which he was forced to sacrifice his valuable library.

ROSE, GEORGE, was the son of an Episcopal clergyman at Brechin, in the shire of Angus, and was born there in 1744. He was brought up under an uncle, who kept a school near London, after which he went into the navy, and became a purser; but, by the interest of the Earl of Marchmont, he was taken from thence, and made keeper of the records in the exchequer. Here his talents for business were soon discovered, and he was appointed to superintend the publication of the Domesday Book. His advancement was rapid, and his services were duly appreciated and engaged by almost every administration. Mr. Pitt, in particular, placed unbounded confidence in his judgment on subjects of trade

and finance; and, when Pitt returned to power, after the short peace, Mr. Rose was made president of the board of trade, and treasurer of the navy. On the death of Mr. Pitt, another change occurred; but, when the administration formed by Lord Grenville retired, Mr. Rose resumed his former station, and continued in it till his death, which happened at Cuffhells, his seat in Hampshire, Jan. 13th, 1818.

ROSS, GEORGE, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, born in 1730, at Newcastle, Delaware, was the son of a clergyman. At the age of eighteen, having been admitted to practice law, he settled at Lancaster, Pennsylvania. He was for some years a member of Congress, and discharged the duties of his office to the entire satisfaction of his numerous constituents. In July, 1779, an attack of the gout put an end to his life in his fiftieth year.

ROTHSCHILD, MEYER ANSELM, the founder of the great Jewish banking-house which holds so important a station in the finances of Europe, was a native of Frankfort, and died in 1812, leaving immense wealth and credit to his five sons,—Nathan Meyer of London, Anselm of Frankfort, Solomon of Berlin and Vienna, Charles of Naples, and James of Paris.

ROUSSEAU, JEAN JACQUES, a celebrated name in French literature, was born at Geneva, June 28th, 1712. His power as an author lay dormant till he was thirty-seven. He wrote brilliantly, eloquently, lived strangely, immorally, and died at the chateau of Ermenonville, near Chantilly, July 3d, 1778.

RUBENS, PETER PAUL, was born at Siegen in Westphalia, on the day of St. Peter and St. Paul, June 29th, 1577. His parents had fled from Antwerp to escape the religious persecutions that raged in the Netherlands, and in 1587, the father dying, the mother returned with the orphans to her native city. Her desire that Peter Paul should follow his father in the legal profession was overcome by his passion for art. After studying with the best masters of Antwerp he repaired to Italy, returning in 1608, after an absence of more than eight years, to the death-bed of his parent, who expired before his arrival. Thereafter he dwelt at Antwerp, painting hundreds of pictures, gaining bounteous store

of fortune, acquiring honor even beyond his art, intrusted with embassies to Spain, and to England, where he was knighted by Charles I. in 1630, and dying May 30th, 1640. "Rubens," says Sir Joshua Reynolds, "was, perhaps, the greatest master in the mechanical part of the art, the best workman with his tools, that ever exercised a pencil."

RUMFORD. BENJAMIN THOMPSON, best known as Count Rumford, was born at Woburn, Mass., in 1753. He taught school at Rumford (now Concord), N. H., and there married a wealthy young widow. His adherence to the royal cause drove him to England, where he rose to the rank of colonel and was knighted. He afterward entered the Bavarian service, rose to high military rank, and was created Count Rumford. Under his administration the industry and resources of Bavaria were beneficently developed. In 1802 he married the widow of Lavoisier, and spent the remainder of his days, in scientific research, at Auteuil, near Paris, where he died Aug. 20th, 1814, bequeathing \$50,000 to Harvard College. His name is eminent in the annals of natural philosophy. With Sir Joseph Banks he projected the Royal Institution of Great Britain.

RUPERT. Prince Rupert, the third son of Frederick of Bohemia, by Elizabeth, daughter of James I. of England, was born in 1619, and received an education adapted to the military service. In the civil wars of England, while his elder brother became a pensioner to the parliament, Prince Rupert adhered steadfastly to his royal uncle, fighting with more impetuous gallantry than prudence. He was more successful as a naval commander than on land, particularly after the restoration, in the great Dutch war, on the conclusion of which he led a retired life, occupied wholly in scientific pursuits. He died in London in 1682, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

RUSH, BENJAMIN, a signer of the Declaration of Independence and an eminent American physician, was born at Byberry, Penn., near Philadelphia, Dec. 24th, 1745. He was educated at Princeton College, studied medicine, taking his degree at Edinburgh in 1768, and became a successful practitioner in Philadelphia. He was chosen to Congress in 1776, and from that time until his death

took an active part in public life. He stands in the front rank of American physicians and philosophers. He was professor of medicine and clinical practice at the university of Pennsylvania. During the ravages of the yellow fever in 1793, Dr. Rush highly distinguished himself, and his history of that epidemic is a work of great value. He died April 19th, 1813.

RUSSELL, WILLIAM, the first Duke of Bedford, was the eldest son of Francis, the fourth Earl of Bedford, and was born in 1614. He received his education at Magdalen College, Oxford, and at the coronation of Charles I. was created knight of the bath. In the beginning of the civil war he acted against the king, and commanded the reserve of horse in the battle of Edgehill; but in 1645 he joined the royal standard and fought with great bravery at the battle of Newbury. His estate, in consequence, was put under sequestration, but on his submission to the parliament it was restored. He then led a private life until the return of Charles II., when he assisted at the coronation, and was made a knight of the garter. He also attended the coronation of William and Mary, and in 1694 was created Duke of Bedford. He died in 1700.

RUSSELL, WILLIAM, Lord, third son of the preceding, was born about 1641. He received a private education under puritanical teachers. His early life, however, appears to have been rather dissipated, till he married, in 1667, the excellent daughter of Lord Southampton, whose amiable virtues reclaimed him from his follies. On becoming a member of the House of Commons, he distinguished himself by his zeal for the exclusion of the Duke of York; and at length became so far involved in a conspiracy for effecting a revolution, that, when the Rye-house plot was discovered, an indictment was preferred against him, and he was condemned at the Old Bailey. Great exertions were made to save his life, but all without effect, and he was beheaded in Lincoln's Inn Fields, July 21st, 1683. After the revolution an act was passed to annul and make void the attainder against Lord Russell. His estimable widow, Lady Rachel, died Sept. 29th, 1723, at the age of eighty-seven.

RUSSIA. This great empire contains

more than half of Europe, stretches across the north of Asia, and includes possessions in North America, thus almost girding the entire globe. It has an area of about 7,200,000 square miles, with about 70,000,000 inhabitants. Russia in Europe contains 2,120,000 square miles, and ten-sevenths of the population of the entire empire. In this vast tract, which intrudes into arctic regions on the north, and is washed by the Euxine and the Caspian on the south, we find every variety of soil, from wastes to fertile fields. There are broad steppes, sterile and woodless, great forests of pine and fir and birch, and wide regions are almost unpeopled. With such a diversity of races as dwell within the limits of Russia, we find almost every degree in the human scale from nomadic barbarians up to the civilized Tartars of Casan, on the Ural, and the enlightenment that has been fostered at St. Petersburg. The peoples that make up the population have their distinct speeches, customs, and characteristics. There are Russians, Poles, and other branches of the Slavonic family; there are Fins, Tartars, Mongols, all subdivided into divers tribes; and in many parts there is a large sprinkling of descendants of Germans and other Teutons. Religions are as various, from the ceremonial of the Greek or the Romish hierarchies to the faith of Islam and the rites of heathendom. The established religion of Russia is the Greek Church, with a free toleration, however, of other sects, even the Mahometans. The emperor is the head of the Greek church in the empire. By an imperial ukase, in 1802, were established six universities; one each at St. Petersburg, Moscow, Wilna, Dorpat (in Livonia), Charcov, and Kasan; but literature has made little progress, the native publications being very few, and the best books being all translations. The Russian language, though not devoid of elegance, is, to a foreigner, of very difficult pronunciation: the number of letters and diphthongs is forty-two. The government is an absolute monarchy, all immunities and privileges being held at the pleasure of the emperor. There are four great classes among the people, the nobility, clergy, merchants and burghers, and peasants. The condition of the latter has been sad enough: the property of the crown or of individuals, they

were transferred with estates, being considered in the light of irrational live stock. Of late it has been the policy of the government to ameliorate their position. An important step toward enfranchising the whole class has been made in the emancipation of the serfs of the crown by Alexander II.

St. Petersburg is the capital of the empire. On the marshes of the Neva, just conquered from Sweden, Peter the Great, determined to bring his empire into communication with civilized Europe, laid the foundation of the new capital, amid desolation and famine. Workmen were gathered from all parts of the empire. They fell before cold, flood, fatigue, and want; a hundred thousand perished; yet the determination of the pitiless czar faltered not: his hordes of peasants might all be sacrificed, but St. Petersburg must be; and thus was born this city of lofty edifices, elegant palaces, grand streets, and granite quays, impressive in its grandeur, and inhabited by half a million people. [*See* Moscow.]

The history of Russia can not properly be said to commence before the middle of the ninth century. We obtain glimpses of various Scythian and Slavonian tribes that roamed over its vast territory, but little more is known than that it was divided into numerous small independent states, the principal of which were Kiew and Novgorod. About 850, a Scandinavian band crossed the Baltic and settled. They were called Varangians; their leaders were three brothers, Rurik, Sineus, and Truror. The Slaves of Novgorod sought their protection against the neighboring tribes, and Rurik founded a dynasty which continued to rule uninterruptedly till 1598. The reign of St. Vladimir the Great (980-1015) was the era of the conversion of Russia. Vladimir himself, who had married Anna, sister of the Emperor Basil II., became a Christian according to the Greek church in 988, and his example was speedily followed by his boyars, or nobles, and subjects. At the death of Vladimir, his dominions were divided and disputed among his numerous sons; and though Yaroslaf, whose reign was signalized by an unsuccessful attack upon Constantinople in 1043, reunited them for a short time, a second partition took place at his death (1055); and

Russia was devastated for half a century by constant civil wars and Polish invasions. The authority of the Grand-Prince of Kiew had been curtailed by the erection of petty sovereignties under different branches of the house of Rurik, till Andrew I., Prince of White Russia (1057-75), arrogated to himself the title of Grand-Prince of Russia, while the elder line at Kiew sank into a subordinate rank. Novgorod, though retaining the forms of princely government, had become in effect a republic, and the centre of an extensive traffic with both Europe and Asia. The annals of this period present only an unceasing succession of intestine struggles and wars with Poland. The Tartar invasion of 1223 produced a transient unanimity from a sense of common danger. A host of 500,000 men under Touthi, the son of Genghis Khan, overthrew the combined forces of the Russian princes on the river Kalka, near the Sea of Azof. The death of Touthi turned the victors' back, but they came once more in 1236 under his son Batu, laid the country waste with fire and sword, and took complete possession of its government.

For more than two centuries and a half, Russia was held in abject subjection by the Tartars of Kapchak, whose hordes overspread the southern and eastern provinces, and the plains between the Caspian and the Volga, on the banks of which river the Golden Horde, or imperial residence of the khans of the race of Batu, was fixed; but the interior of the country was left under the rule of the native princes. The Grand-Prince of Vladimir, or White Russia, continued to be considered the head of the Russian nation, though this dignity was disputed both by arms and by intrigues at the court of the khans, who fomented these dissensions as favorable to the stability of their own supremacy. In 1320 the seat of government was removed from Vladimir to Moscow. The principality of Kiew was finally extinguished (1321) by the Duke of Lithuania, who conquered and annexed it to his own dominions. In the mean time, Novgorod (which in 1276 had joined the Hanseatic league) had acquired very great commercial importance. But the remainder of Russia continued in bondage, till the termination of the direct line of Batu (1361) by the death of Berdi-Bek Khan, gave

rise to disputes for the throne of Kapchak, and the discord of their oppressors encouraged the Russians to endeavor to throw off the yoke. The struggle continued for about a century, till at last Ivan or John III. obliterated the last vestiges of dependence.

With the reign of this prince, who married Sophia, the niece of the last Greek emperor, a new epoch commences in the history of Russia. He was honored with the surname of Great, and assumed the title of Czar, which signifies emperor, but which was more used by his successors. He defeated the Poles and Lithuanians, reduced the Tartars of Casan to tribute, and reunited under his authority most of the minor Russian principalities; but his capture of Novgorod in 1475, and the exactions which he levied on the merchants and citizens, gave a death-blow to the commerce of that famous emporium. The embassies of Germany, Poland, Venice, the Holy See, &c., were now first seen at Moscow; and though the character of Ivan is sullied by the cruel despotism of his internal administration, he is justly entitled to rank as the founder of the Russian empire.

On the death of Ivan in 1505, the crown ought to have devolved to his eldest son Demetrius, whom he had by a former wife; but his widow Sophia, by various artful insinuations, obtained it for her own son Gabriel, who, disliking his own name, assumed that of Basil. He engaged in a war with the Poles, and in another with the Crim-Tartars, who, by fearful ravages made the czar tremble on his throne, and obliged him to submit to their conditions. The Tartars entered Russia a second time in 1520, ravaged the country, and, making themselves masters of Moscow, compelled Basil to acknowledge himself their vassal, and to promise to pay them an annual tribute. Ivan IV., the Terrible, succeeded in 1533. He was constantly engaged in war with the Tartars, the Poles, the Swedes, the Danes, or the Turks, and was almost always successful. His energy and policy raised his empire to a high pitch of prosperity, but he was remorseless and sanguinary. In 1553 the English trade through Archangel was opened. Siberia was acquired in 1581. About this period the art of printing, and also several branches of manufacture, were introduced into Russia. Ivan died in 1584. With his

son Feodor, or Theodore, in 1598, the male line of the house of Rurik, which had ruled under fifty-six sovereigns for 736 years, became extinct.

Boris Godoonoff, the brother-in-law and minister of Feodor, was placed on the throne, and commenced his reign by the emancipation of the serfs and other salutary measures; but he soon degenerated into an arbitrary and cruel tyrant, and at length lost his throne and life in a contest with an adventurer who declared himself to be the lost Demetrius, brother of Feodor, whose pretensions were supported by Poland. The real history of this person has never been satisfactorily ascertained, and many writers consider his claims to have been well founded. After ruling scarcely a year, he perished (1606) in a revolt headed by a boyar named Basil Schuiski, who thereupon became czar. A second pretended Demetrius speedily started up. The Poles and Swedes, who each aspired to seat a prince of their own nation on the throne, invaded the country, and were supported by various factions among the nobles, and for seven years (1606-1613) Russia was torn by anarchy and civil war. The prospect of the dismemberment of their country aroused the national spirit of the Russians; the Poles were driven from Moscow, after a sanguinary battle, in 1613; and in the following year Michael Romanoff, a descendant in the female line from the house of Rurik, was chosen to the throne.

Of the history and succession of the family of Romanoff, we have already given an ample sketch. With their accession Russia began to lose her character as a barbarous and semi-Asiatic power, and to be considered of some weight in the affairs of Europe. Under the vigorous administration of Peter the Great great advance was made. He warred successfully with the wild Swede, Charles XII., but was less fortunate in contention with Turkey. His daughter Elizabeth, stung by a sarcasm on her good looks from Frederick the Great, allied with Maria Theresa, and retorted with a heavy army, and thus Russia began her direct participation in the politics of Europe. It was much increased by the unscrupulous aggression that marked the rule of Catharine II.

On the death of Augustus III. of Poland,

in 1764, Catharine, who had signed a treaty of alliance with Prussia, raised to the throne of that kingdom Stanislaus Poniatowski, her former paramour, notwithstanding the murmurs and resistance of the Polish nation. The purposes for which Poniatowski had been raised to the throne of Poland, began gradually to develop themselves; and having traced on a map a line of demarcation, by which a great part of the Polish territory had been assigned to Russia, Catharine insisted on the recognition of these limits, and the propriety of her claim. The Poles having induced the Ottoman Porte to take up arms in their behalf, hostilities commenced between Turkey and Russia, and the empress resolved to rend Greece and the Archipelago from the Ottomans. A Russian fleet first appeared in the Mediterranean in 1770. At length the dismemberment of Poland was effected by Russia, Austria, and Prussia; and Turkey was obliged to conclude a peace on very disadvantageous terms. The Crimea was soon seized, and such fresh evidence of the ambition of Catharine again excited the jealousy and the fears of the Turkish emperor for the designs which she entertained respecting her grandson Constantine, whose name sufficiently denoted her ambition to raise a second Eastern empire upon the ruins of the Ottoman power. War was, therefore, again declared by the Porte against Russia, whose minister was shut up in the castle of the Seven Towers. Joseph II., Emperor of Germany, sent 80,000 Austrians to the assistance of Catharine; and everything seemed to announce the ruin of the Ottoman power. Surrounding nations, however, beheld with jealousy the designs of the empress, who threatened to destroy the equilibrium of Europe. Notwithstanding her victories and her conquests, she at length perceived that a cessation of hostilities was very desirable. Accordingly, in 1792, the peace of Jassy was concluded between Russia and the Porte, and a bloody and expensive war terminated. The arms of Russia and Prussia were now united in partitioning the remainder of Poland, and Frederick William, at the head of his forces, fought against Kosciusko, whose talents, courage, and despair were unavailing against multiplied and increasing numbers. After a few bloody victories, the courts of Petersburg

and Berlin succeeded in dividing the remains of that unhappy country; and the courtiers of Catharine shared among them the possessions of the proscribed.

Catharine died after a long and prosperous reign, and at a time when she hoped to drive the Turks out of Europe, and to seize on the throne of Constantinople.

On the death of Catharine II. in 1796, Paul, her son, who was at that time forty-three years of age, was proclaimed emperor. The first acts of the new czar were extremely popular; and his actions seemed to contradict the report of his stern and capricious disposition. However, Paul's conduct in the first days of his reign, was soon afterward reversed.

Paul concluded with the king of Great Britain a treaty, by which they agreed to oppose, in the most efficacious manner, the successes of the French arms, to promote solid and lasting peace, and to endeavor to re-establish the balance of power in Europe. For some time the Russians and their allies were fortunate; but their successes being afterward converted into defeats, the emperor broke off the alliance. Indignant that the British government would not acquiesce in his having appointed himself grand-master of Malta, Paul entered into an alliance with France, and excited a formidable confederacy of the maritime powers of the north against the naval interests of Great Britain, which was broken by the battle of Copenhagen. His capricious and extravagant actions, some of which bordered on frenzy, gave great offense, and he was murdered in the night of the 23d of March, 1801, though his death was ascribed to an apoplectic fit.

The day after his decease, his eldest son, Alexander, who was in the twenty-fourth year of his age, was proclaimed Emperor of all the Russias, and issued several popular ukases, in one of which he revived and confirmed all the regulations of the Empress Catharine for the encouragement of industry and commerce.

Bonaparte not fulfilling the secret convention which had been entered into between France and Russia, with respect to the evacuation of the kingdom of Naples by the French troops, the adjusting of the affairs of Italy, and the indemnity promised to be

granted to the king of Sardinia, Alexander ordered an additional levy of land forces throughout his dominions. He afterward attempted to negotiate a general peace among the powers of Europe; but finding this impracticable, he joined Austria and England in the coalition against France. The Russian troops however, could not join the Austrians till the latter had suffered several severe defeats. The battle of Austerlitz terminated unfavorably to the allies; and the emperor of Germany concluding a separate peace with France immediately after that event, the Russian troops returned into their own country. When war broke out between France and Prussia, Alexander ordered his forces to the assistance of the latter power. Before they could arrive to aid their allies, the French had overrun Prussia, and penetrated into Poland, where they were defeated by the Russians; but Bonaparte, having compelled his vassal princes to furnish their stipulated contingents of troops, again advanced, and gained the battle of Friedland, which obliged Alexander to sign the treaty of Tilsit.

That treaty was soon after followed by a declaration of war, on the part of Russia, against Great Britain; and one immense power now occupied Europe, arranging and controlling everything in conformity to its views. Russia, which had become the willing instrument of French policy, not only withdrew from her alliance with Sweden, but attacked that country. In 1808, an army of 40,000 men was sent into Finland, from which the Swedes were finally expelled.

Alexander agreed to accede to the continental system, and to exclude from Russian ports all British manufactures and colonial produce. Not aware of the consequences of his engagements, he had placed himself in a situation of great difficulty. If he attempted to fulfill the treaty by interdicting the trade between Great Britain and the Russian empire, he deprived his subjects of the best market for their produce, and roused his nobility against him. On the other hand, his apprehensions of the power of Bonaparte were strong and well founded. He, therefore, determined on a species of compromise, and forbade the introduction of all British produce and manufactures into his dominions, except by special license and in neutral ships.

Soon after the differences commenced between Napoleon and Alexander, the former took such measures as he thought would either awe the latter into submission, or secure victory and success in case of hostilities; he assembled large bodies in the north of Germany; he kept possession of a great part of Prussia, especially of the places most conveniently situated for an attack on Russian Poland; and he forcibly occupied Swedish Pomerania. Preparations were made by Russia to meet the approaching crisis; and before the commencement of hostilities, the force that could be brought against the French amounted to nearly 300,000 men, exclusively of the militia. On the other hand, the Emperor Francis engaged to furnish 30,000 men to France in her war with Russia; the troops of the confederation of the Rhine had been raised to their stipulated quota; and the kings of Saxony and Naples had been induced to embark with Napoleon in this great enterprise. The armies of Bonaparte on the frontiers of Russian Poland amounted to at least 300,000 infantry, and 60,000 cavalry, in a state of the highest discipline and equipment, and commanded by the first military talent of the age.

The preparations on each side corresponded with the magnitude of the interests embarked in the contest. In numbers the combatants were not, at first, on an equality; and in discipline, in science, and in organization, the French possessed a great superiority. On the 9th of May, 1812, Napoleon left Paris; and arriving on the banks of the Niemen on the 22d of June, he issued to his soldiers a proclamation in his usual confident and laconic style. This was his only declaration of war. The French and their allies passed the Niemen without opposition, and obtained possession of Wilna, the capital of Lithuania. The re-establishment of the kingdom of Poland was now proclaimed, and a diet assembled under the guarantee of the French emperor; and, by these means, the national enthusiasm was raised in his favor, and the ranks of his army were swelled by Polish levies.

The Emperor of Austria recalled his ambassador from Petersburg, and furnished his contingent of troops to the French. Russia, however, acquired a new and zealous, though

remote, ally in England, who formed a treaty of friendship and reciprocal defense with her and a similar one with Sweden. In proportion as the French advanced into the territories of Russia, the more resistance they experienced; and several bloody engagements took place, without producing any decisive effect. The first great stand was made at the city of Smolensk, which is in the direct road to Moscow, and for the defense of which the Russians were posted. However, in the middle of the night, after a severe engagement, a dreadful conflagration was observed in the city; and the Russians abandoned Smolensk, and retired across the Dnieper. Moscow was now the great object to be contended for; and the Russian main army took a strong position to cover it from the attack of Napoleon.

A dreadful engagement ensued; and the result of this battle, which was named by the Russians the battle of Borodino, was a victory claimed by each party. The French entered Moscow seven days after this engagement; but in order to deprive the French of a place for their winter quarters, the governor, Rostopchin, had ordered the city to be set on fire; and the French troops had scarcely entered the Kremlin, when Moscow appeared in flames in different parts. The conflagration raged with fury for several days. The French began their retreat from Moscow, but were closely pursued by an exasperated foe. To add to their calamities a Russian winter set in with deep snow. The sufferings of the French were extreme, and their losses prodigious. Horses died in such numbers, that the greatest part of the artillery was left behind, and the cavalry was nearly dismounted; whole bodies of men, disabled by cold and hunger, surrendered without resistance to the pursuers; and nothing appeared but disaster and dismay. It is probable, that of nearly 500,000 troops engaged in this frantic expedition, not 50,000, including the Prussian and Austrian contingents, escaped out of Russia.

The Russian armies pursued the remnant of the French armies into Germany, where the former were joined by Prussia, by the princes of Germany, and finally by Austria. Sweden also joined the league against France. The battle of Leipsic, which was gained by

the allies over Bonaparte, determined the fate of Germany, and shook to its foundation the mighty empire raised by Napoleon. Russian armies continued to act against Napoleon, till his downfall, and Alexander entered Paris in triumph. By the treaty of Vienna, in 1815, the duchy of Warsaw, with the exception of certain provinces and districts, was ceded to the Emperor of Russia, who addressed a letter to the Polish diet, announcing the fate of their country, and that he had assumed the title of King of Poland.

After the death of Alexander, Dec. 1st, 1825, his brother Nicholas ascended the throne. The revolt of the Poles, in 1830, was not crushed without a violent struggle, which cost the Russians a terrible effusion of blood. The kingdom was amalgamated with Russia, and the last feeble vestiges of its nationality were soon swept away. A war was carried on against Turkey in 1828 and 1829, through which Russia gained numerous frontier fortresses on the Black Sea, and a protectorate over Moldavia and Wallachia. The resources of the empire were carefully fostered, its power vigorously consolidated and increased. The ambition of Catharine had not died with her. Russia became the great palladium of despotism: she warned Switzerland against any increase of republicanism; she aided Austria to trample upon Hungary; she proposed to the western powers a partition of Turkey. The possession of the holy places at Jerusalem had long been a bone of contention between the Greek and Latin monks. The dispute came up afresh. Russia sided with the former; France with the latter. Of course the decision of the Porte was unsatisfactory to Russia: Prince Menschikoff, her special envoy, bore himself with an arrogance almost equal to that of his great ancestor, the pastry-cook. All the compliances of Turkey were ineffectual: war was inevitable, and the soldiers of the czar crossed the Pruth, July 2d, 1853. In the hostilities which ensued, the Turks displayed a steady courage. The massacre of Sinope startled England and France, and their fleets were sent into the Black Sea. It were better had they been in those waters before, to save the unnamed heroes who perished at Sinope. The Russian fleet retreated to the haven of Sebastopol, never to come

forth. The war on the Danube was bravely maintained by the Turks. France and England entered into a formal alliance with Turkey in the spring of 1854, and a large force was sent to the seat of war. After lying long inactive at Varna, an expedition to the Crimea was decided upon. The allied army landed at Eupatoria on the 14th of September. On the 20th the heights of the Alma were won. St. Arnaud, the French marshal, died, and Canrobert succeeded him. The weary, deadly siege of Sebastopol began on the 17th of October, 1854. While the English and French beleaguered the south side of this rival of Gibraltar, powerful armaments were sent into the Baltic. They gained only slight successes, the Russian navy lying safe under shelter of the strong fortresses of Cronstadt. The siege of Sebastopol is more fully mentioned beyond [*see* SEBASTOPOL], and indeed all the important events of this war are described in their respective places. It was varied by the bloody fields of Balaklava, Inkerman, and the Tchernaya, and by the siege of Kars, in Armenia. Hostilities ceased Feb. 29th, 1856, and peace was proclaimed in the following April.

In the midst of the war, Nicholas was called from life. His son and successor, Alexander II., continued his policy so far as the war was concerned.

In the following list of the rulers of Russia, those marked with a star are doubtful, owing to the difficulty that occurs at every step in early Russian annals.

DUKES, CZARS, AND EMPERORS.

DUKES OF KIEV.

- 862. Rurik.
- 878. Igor.
- 935. { Olega, regent.
- } Swiatoslaw or Spendoblos.
- 972. Jaropalk I.
- 980. Vladimir, Wladimir, or Waldimir I., styled the Great.
- 1015. Jaraslaw, or Jaroslaw I.
- 1051. Isjialaw I.
- 1078. Wsewolod I.
- 1093. Swiatopalk.
- 1114. Vladimir II.
- 1125. Mtislaw or Michael I.
- 1132. Jaropalk II.
- 1138. { Wiatschelaw.
- 1139. { Wsewolod II.
- 1146. { Isjialaw II.
- 1154. { Rostislaw.

- 1155. Jurie or George I.: the city of Moscow was built by this duke.

GRAND-DUKES OF WLADIMIR.

- 1157. { Andrew I. until 1175; first grand-duke.
- } Michael II.
- 1177. Wsewolod III.
- 1213. { Jurie or George II.
- } Constantine, until 1218.
- 1238. Jaraslaw II.; succeeded by his son.
- 1245. Alexander-Nevski or Newski, the Saint.
- 1263. Jaraslaw III.
- 1270. Vasali or Basil I.
- 1277. *Dimitri or Demetrius I.
- 1284. *Andrew II.
- 1294. *Daniel-Alexandrovitz.
- 1302. *Jurie or George III.: deposed.
- 1305. *Michael III.
- 1320. *Vasali or Basil II.
- 1325. *Jurie or George III.: restored.

GRAND-DUKES OF MOSCOW.

- 1328. Ivan or John I.
- 1340. Simon, surnamed the Proud.
- 1353. Ivan or John II.
- 1359. Demetrius II., prince of Susdal.
- 1362. Demetrius III. Donskoi.
- 1389. *Vasali or Basil III. Temnoi.
- 1425. Vasali or Basil IV.
- 1462. Ivan (Basilovitz) or John III.
- 1505. Vasali or Basil V.: obtained the title of emperor from Maximilian I.

CZARS OF MUSCOVY.

- 1533. Ivan (Basilovitz) IV.; first czar or czar ('great king') in 1547.
- 1584. Feodor or Theodore I.: supposed to have been poisoned, and his son, Demetrius, murdered by his successor.
- 1598. Boris Godonoff, who usurped the throne.
- 1606. Demetrius, the Impostor, a young Polish monk: pretended to be the murdered prince Demetrius: put to death.
- 1686. Vasali-Chouiski, or Zouinski.
- 1610. [Interregnum.]
- 1613. Michael-Fedorovitz, of the house of Romanoff.
- 1645. Alexis, son of the preceding, styled the father of his country.
- 1676. Feodor or Theodore II.
- 1682. { Ivan V. and
- } Peter I. brothers of the preceding.

EMPERORS.

- 1684. Peter I., the Great, alone; took the title of emperor in 1728.
- 1725. Catharine I., his consort: at first the wife of a Swedish dragoon, who is said to have been killed on the day of marriage.
- 1727. Peter II., son of Alexis-Petrovitz, and grandson of Peter the Great: deposed.
- 1730. Anne, Duchess of Courland, daughter of the Czar Ivan.
- 1740. Ivan VI., an infant, grand-nephew to Peter the Great: immured in a dungeon for eighteen years; murdered in 1762.
- 1741. Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the Great, reigned during Ivan's captivity.

1762. Peter III., son of Anne and of Charles-Frederick, Duke of Holstein-Gottorp: deposed, and died soon after, supposed to have been murdered.
1762. Catharine II., his consort: died in 1796.
1796. Paul, her son: found dead in his chamber: supposed to have been murdered.
1801. Alexander, his son.
1825. Nicholas, brother to Alexander; succeeded, Dec. 1st, 1825.
1855. Alexander II., son of Nicholas, succeeded at his father's death, March 2d, 1855.

RUTLEDGE, EDWARD, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Charleston, S. C., November, 1749. He chose the profession of the law, and finished his legal education in England. He was a member of the continental congress from 1774 till 1777. In 1779 Mr. Rutledge was re-appointed to congress, but relinquished his seat from ill health. However, he soon took the field at the head of a company, but was taken prisoner at the surrender of Charleston, and remained in the hands of the British nearly a year. In 1798, having retired from the practice of law, he was elected governor of South Carolina, but died Jan. 23d, 1800.

RUTLEDGE, JOHN, a native of South Carolina, and elder brother of Edward, distinguished himself by his manly eloquence in the first congress, and was appointed president and commander-in-chief of South Carolina, in 1776. In 1779 he was chosen governor. He died in July, 1800.

RUYTER, MICHAEL ADRIAN DE, a great Dutch admiral, was born at Flushing in 1607. In the war with England which broke out in 1652, he convoyed a rich fleet through the channel, and brought the whole into port, after an engagement which lasted two days. He was next joined in command with Van Tromp, and distinguished himself as well in the great battle of three days, fought in February, 1653, as in that off the Texel, where

Van Tromp fell, in the July following. In 1658 he defeated the Swedes, for which the King of Denmark gave him a patent of nobility. At the renewal of hostilities with England, in the reign of Charles II., De Ruyter gained an advantage over Prince Rupert and Monk; but, two months afterward, another battle was fought, and the Dutch were defeated. The following year, however, he avenged himself, by riding triumphantly in the Thames, and destroying several English men-of-war at Sheerness and Chatham; the roar of his guns spread consternation in London. In 1672 he attacked the combined English and French fleets; and though the battle was undecided, De Ruyter kept the sea, and convoyed home a fleet of merchantmen. The gallant commander was mortally wounded in an engagement with the French, off Messina, and died at Syracuse, April 11th, 1676. His remains were interred at Amsterdam, and a monument erected to his memory.

RYE-HOUSE PLOT. A real, or more probably a pretended, conspiracy to assassinate Charles II. and his brother the Duke of York (afterward James II.), at a place called Rye-house, on the way to London from Newmarket. This design was said to have been frustrated by the king's house at Newmarket accidentally taking fire, which hastened the royal party away eight days before the plot was to take place, March 22d, 1683. The plot was discovered June 12th following. Algernon Sidney and Lord William Russell suffered death on a false charge of being concerned in this conspiracy.

RYSWICK, PEACE OF, concluded between England, France, Spain, and Holland, to establish the peace of Europe; signed Sept. 20th, and by the Emperor of Germany, Oct. 30th, 1697.

S.

SABINES, an ancient people of Italy, reckoned among the aborigines, or those inhabitants whose origin was not known. Some suppose that they were originally a Lacedæmonian colony, who settled in that part of the country. The possessions of the Sabines were situated in the neighborhood of Rome, between the river Nar and the Anio, and bounded on the north by the Apennines and Umbria, south by Latium, east by the Æqui, and by Etruria on the west. The greatest part of the contiguous nations were descended from them, such as the Umbrians, the Campanians, the Sabelli, the Osci, Samnites, Hernici, Æqui, Marsi, Brutii, &c. The Sabines are celebrated in ancient history as being the first who took up arms against the Romans, to avenge the rape of their females at a spectacle where they had been invited. After some engagements, a peace was struck, and the greatest part of the Sabines left their ancient possessions, and migrated to Rome, where they settled with their new allies. They were at last totally subdued about the year of Rome 373, and ranked as Roman citizens. Their chief cities were Cures, Fidenæ, Reate, Crustumium, Corniculum, Nomentum, Collatia, &c.

SACHEVEREL, HENRY, was the son of a clergyman at Marlborough, where he had his education and afterward became demy of Magdalen College, Oxford. Sacheverel obtained a fellowship, and in 1708 took his doctor's degree. The following year he preached two harangues, one at the assizes at Derby, and the other at St. Paul's, in both of which he asserted that the church was in imminent danger. For these discourses, which were considered as inflammatory, he was impeached by the House of Commons, and tried before the Lords, in 1710; when being found guilty of a misdemeanor, he was suspended from preaching for three years. This only increased his popularity, and brought the Godolphin ministry into such contempt, that they were obliged to resign their places. At the expiration of the sentence the doctor was presented to the rich

rectory of St. Andrew, Holborn. He died in 1724.

SACKVILLE, Lord GEORGE, the third son of the first Duke of Dorset, was born in 1716. He obtained a commission in the army, and distinguished himself in the battles of Dettingen and Fontenoy. In 1758 he was made a lieutenant-general; but in the year following fell into disgrace for his conduct at the battle of Minden. He was tried by a court-martial, and dismissed the service; but was restored in the next reign. In 1775 he was appointed secretary of state for the American colonies; but in 1783 he went out of office, and was created a viscount. He died in 1785.

SADLER, Sir RALPH, an English statesman, was born in 1507, at Hackney, in Middlesex. In early life he was taken into the family of Cromwell, Earl of Essex, who introduced him to Henry VIII., in consequence of which he had a share in the dissolution of the monasteries, and partook of the spoil. He was also sent on an embassy to Scotland, to negotiate a marriage between Prince Edward and Queen Mary, but without effect. In the war which followed, Sir Ralph distinguished himself greatly, and was made a knight banneret on the field after the battle of Pinkie. At the accession of Elizabeth he was again sent to Scotland; and when the unfortunate Mary went to England, she was committed to his care. He died in 1587.

ST. ARNAUD, JACQUES LEROY DE, born at Paris in 1801, entered the army in youth. He saw service and won laurels in Algiers, rising to the rank of marshal by the rapid promotion his energy and bravery obtained. Returning to France, Louis Napoleon made him minister of war for the republic, and St. Arnaud was the usurper's chief confederate in the *coup d'état* for absolute power. He was dispatched to Turkey to command the French troops in the war with Russia. Disease was then lurking about his heart, and he died shortly after the victory of the Alma, Sept. 29th, 1854.

ST. CLAIR, ARTHUR, a native of Edinburgh, came to America with Admiral Bos-

cawen in 1755, and served as a lieutenant under Wolfe in Canada. He adopted the popular cause in the revolution, was early made a brigadier, in 1777 major-general, and served with honor through the struggle. In 1787 he was president of Congress, and from 1788 to 1802 he was governor of the North-western territory. His army was disastrously defeated in an engagement with the Indians near Miami village, Nov. 3d, 1791. He retired from office with a shattered fortune, and died almost penniless near Philadelphia, Aug. 31st, 1818, at the age of eighty-four.

SAINT HELENA, an island in the South Atlantic, 1,200 miles west of the continent of Africa, and 1,800 east of South America. The island is a rock about twenty-one miles in circumference, very high and very steep, and only accessible at the landing-place, in a small valley at the east side of it. St. Helena is said to have been first discovered by the Portuguese in 1502, on the festival of the Empress Helena, mother of the Emperor Constantine the Great, whose name it still bears. The English East India Company took possession of it in 1600, and held it without interruption till the year 1673, when the Dutch took it by surprise. The English, under the command of Captain Munden, recovered it again within the space of a year, and at the same time took three Dutch East India ships that lay in the road. This island is celebrated in modern history, as the place to which Napoleon was exiled by the confederate powers in August, 1815, and where he died in 1821.

ST. PIERRE, **BERNARDIN**, the author of that exquisite tale, "Paul and Virginia," born at Havre, was for a time an officer in the Russian service, then in the French corps of engineers; and finally retiring from military life, he devoted his days to literature. He died in 1814, aged seventy-seven.

ST. SEBASTIAN, a town on the northern coast of Spain, containing 13,000 inhabitants. It has been repeatedly taken by the French; it fell into their hands in the short war of 1719, in the revolutionary contest of 1794, and in Bonaparte's invasion in 1808. On the last occasion it remained five years in their possession, and when the victory of Vittoria, by the British, June 21st, 1813, opened a prospect of its recapture, the French had time

to throw into it a garrison capable of making a very obstinate defense. An attempt on the part of the British to take it by assault, on the 25th of July, was repulsed with heavy loss. It became necessary to make approaches with great caution, and even to incur a severe sacrifice of lives in the final attack, on the 31st of August, when it was stormed and carried.

ST. VINCENT, Cape, the south-west point of Portugal, noted for the naval victory gained off it on the 14th of February, 1797, by a British fleet over a far heavier Spanish force. Sir John Jervis, the British admiral, was rewarded by elevation to the peerage with the title of Earl St. Vincent. Admirals Rooke and Rodney also gained victories in the same waters, in 1693 and 1780, respectively.

SALADIN, or **SALAH-ED-DEEN YUSEF BEN AYUB**, was at first general of the army of Noureddin, sultan of Damascus. In 1164, he conquered Egypt, and married the widow of the prince of Grand Cairo. After the death of Noureddin, he was called to the government during the minority of the prince his son. Being advanced to this power, he resolved to attack the Christians in Palestine, to punish their arrogance and injustice; and accordingly, in 1177, having raised an army, he endeavored to surprise Jerusalem, but was defeated with great slaughter, on the 25th of November. This loss inspiring him with revenge, in 1180 he passed the Euphrates, took several cities, as far as Nisibis, and made himself formidable to all his neighbors. He took Aleppo in 1184. But not long after, the Christians put a stop to his conquests, by a cessation of arms. The Count of Tripoli being jealous of Guy, King of Jerusalem, persuaded Saladin to break the truce; who, following his counsel, defeated the Christians, the 1st of May, 1187, and having obtained a second victory over them, took Guy in the flight, made himself master of Acre, Beirut, Giblet, Saide, and divers other places, and at last of Jerusalem. Though he put the Templars and knights of St. John to the sword, in revenge for past grievances, he treated the other captives with forbearance. Pope Urban II., upon hearing of this loss, died of grief. Saladin several times stormed the city of Tyre, but was often repulsed; and after some other losses sustained from the Christians,

he died in 1193, in the fifty-seventh year of his age, having reigned over Egypt twenty-two years, and nineteen as absolute master of Syria. No Asiatic monarch has filled so large a space in the eyes of Europe, as this chivalrous antagonist of Cœur de Lion. As the Moslem hero of the third holy war, he proved himself a skillful general and a valiant soldier. He hated the crusaders, for he was a zealous Mussulman, and they were invaders. Though ambitious he was not tyrannical; he was mild in his government; the friend and dispenser of justice. Three of his numerous progeny became sovereigns of Aleppo, Damascus, and Egypt: others had similar possessions; and the emirs and atabaks of Syria again struggled for independence. [See CRUSADES.]

SALAMANCA, the capital of a Spanish province of the same name in the southern part of the ancient kingdom of Leon, contains 13,000 inhabitants. Its once celebrated university was founded in the thirteenth century by Alphonso IX. of Leon. A memorable battle was fought here on the 22d of July, 1812, between the British and allies, under Wellington, and the French, under Marmont. The French were overthrown, and driven in confusion from the field. The pursuit was continued till night, when the French guard was overtaken, attacked, and put to flight, the cavalry leaving the infantry to their fate. Three whole battalions surrendered, and large quantities of stores, baggage, and ammunition fell into the conquerors' hands. Eleven pieces of cannon, two eagles, and six colors, were also taken; five generals, three colonels, three lieutenant-colonels, 150 officers, and 7,000 soldiers, were made prisoners. The loss of the victors, in killed, wounded, and missing, amounted to nearly 6,000 men. This bloody victory opened the way for the capture of Madrid. Marmont was the seventh French marshal whom Wellington had defeated within four years.

SALAMIS, now Koluri, an island in the Saronic gulf, on the southern coast of Attica opposite Eleusis, at the distance of about a league, with a town and harbor of the same name. It was originally peopled by a colony of Ionians, and afterward by Greeks from adjacent islands and countries. It is celebrated for a battle between the fleet of the

Greeks and that of the Persians, when Xerxes invaded Greece. The Persian ships amounted to above 2,000, and those of the Greeks to about 380. In this engagement, which was fought on the 20th of October, B.C. 480, the Greeks lost forty ships, and the Persians about two hundred, besides an immense number which were taken with all the ammunition they contained. Themistocles commanded the Greeks. Xerxes retired into Asia, leaving Mardonius to carry on the disastrous war.

SALLUST. Caius Sallustius Crispus was born at Amiternum, B.C. 86. He received his education at Rome, and made himself known as a public magistrate in the office of quaestor and consul. His licentiousness, and the depravity of his manners, however, did not escape censure, and he was degraded from the dignity of a senator, B.C. 50. A continuation of extravagance could not long be supported by the income of Sallust, but he extricated himself from difficulties by embracing the cause of Cæsar. He was restored to the rank of senator, and made governor of Numidia. In the administration of his province, Sallust behaved with unusual tyranny; he enriched himself by plundering the Africans, and at his return to Rome he built himself a magnificent house, and formed splendid gardens, which, from their delightful and pleasant situation, still preserve the name of the gardens of Sallust. In this luxurious retirement, he wrote the history of Catiline's conspiracy, and that of the Jugurthine war, which give him a classic name in Latin letters. He died in the fifty-first year of his age, B.C. 55.

SALSETTE, an island on the western coast of Hindostan, just north of Bombay. The first account we have of this island, is dated 1330; it was then governed by a Mahometan judge. It was taken possession of by the Portuguese in the sixteenth century, and by the Mahrattas in 1750. In 1773, during a rupture with the Mahrattas, it was occupied by the British, and has ever since remained in their possession. Its temple caves, hewn in the rock on a mountain side, are objects of great curiosity.

SAMOS, an island in the Ægean Sea, on the coast of Asia Minor (from which it is divided by a narrow strait), with a city of the same name, built B.C. 986. It was first

in the possession of the Leleges, and afterward of the Ionians. The people of Samos were at first governed by kings, and afterward the form of their government became democratical and oligarchical. Samos was in its most flourishing situation under Polycrates, who had made himself absolute there. The Samians assisted the Greeks against the Persians, when Xerxes invaded Europe, and were reduced under the power of Athens, after a revolt, by Pericles, B.C. 441. They were afterward subdued by Eumenes, King of Pergamos, and were restored to their ancient liberty by Augustus. Under Vespasian, Samos became a Roman province. It now belongs to Turkey, and has some 30,000 inhabitants, chiefly Greeks.

SANCTUARIES. Cities of refuge had their origin in early ages. They were instituted by the Jews immediately after their establishment in Palestine. Such use, or rather abuse, was made of the heathen temples, particularly those of Hercules. Christian churches long screened criminals from seizure. Abolished in England, 1534, and generally at the time of the Reformation. Several districts in London continued to be privileged against arrest for debt till 1696. The precincts of Holyrood Abbey at Edinburgh, including Arthur's Seat and Salisbury Crags, are still a sanctuary for insolvent debtors.

SANDWICH ISLANDS, a group in the North Pacific Ocean, covering about 6,000 square miles, and containing 71,000 inhabitants, were discovered by Captains Cook and King in 1778, and were named by them after Lord Sandwich. Captain Cook was murdered by the natives of Owhyhee in 1779. The principal islands are Hawaii (Owhyhee), Maui (Mowee), Oahu (Woahoo), Taui (Atooi), and Nihau (Onechow). The climate is warm, but healthy: many of the islands are volcanic. The natives, were formerly sunk in idolatry, sacrificing human victims upon their altars. The missions established by the American Board of Foreign Missions, have been very successful. The situation of the Sandwich Islands causes them to be visited by many vessels for repairs and provisions, while, in a commercial point of view, they are by no means to be overlooked. Inter-course with Christendom has introduced its vices as well as its enlightenment. The

number of the natives was once very much larger. Idolatry was abolished in 1819. Formerly each island had its separate chieftains, and desolating wars were common. In the early years of this century Tamehameha united them all under one rule, and a constitutional monarchy resembling that of England is the form of government. Honolulu, on Oahu, is the seat of government and commerce.

SAN MARINO. Within the papal province of Urbino in Italy, this little republic lies, about ten miles from the Adriatic coast. It consists chiefly of a steep mountain, with its offshoots and valleys, covering an area of about twenty-one square miles, and containing 7,600 inhabitants. On the upper part of the mountain stands the ill-built town of San Marino, its steep and rough streets practicable for only men and mules. The summit above is crowned by the towers of an ancient castle, on which the standard of the republic waves. There are two or three other towns, or rather villages. Every slip of ground that can be made productive is tilled. Good wine is trodden out; there are olives enough to yield some oil; and silk-worms are reared. For grain the people rely on their neighbors. This little district has curiously kept its independence from the tenth century.

SAPPHO, a lyric poet of Greece, born at Mytilene in Lesbos, about B.C. 610. Only fragments of her verse are extant, and little is known of her life. The tradition is that she was a woman of beauty and amorous morals, who, after the death of her husband, became enamored of Phaon, and, in consequence of the youth's neglect, threw herself into the sea. She is the reputed inventor of the Sapphic verse. The Lesbians paid religious honors to her memory, and called her the tenth muse.

SARAGOSSA (in Spanish, **ZARAGOZA**), capital of the ancient kingdom of Aragon, stands on the south bank of the Ebro, 180 miles north-east of Madrid. The name is a corruption of *Cesarea Augusta*, a Roman colony on the site of which the modern city is built. The population is 40,000. It is famous in history for its dreadful sieges in 1808 and 1809; contests in which was displayed the unyielding fortitude of the inhabitants, of both sexes. The French, having

obtained possession of Navarre in June, 1808, advanced to Saragossa, and attempting to take the city by assault, were repulsed with loss. Returning with augmented numbers, they occupied the best positions, and invested nearly half the town, keeping up a fire from mortars and battering cannon. On the 4th of August they entered the central street, but they were met with furious opposition, and, discouraged by intelligence from the south of Spain, retired at last, on the 14th. The second siege was no less obstinate and sanguinary. The French, with great re-enforcements, marched, in the end of November, 1808, once more against Saragossa. Their first great attack gave them possession of some important posts, but with heavy loss. On the 10th of January began the bombardment, which, violent as it was, caused less injury than a contagious fever and a famine among the garrison. The Spaniards, however, continued to make, under the brave Palafox, a most determined resistance, and it was not till after a bombardment of six weeks, and a very unequal contest in mining, that Saragossa surrendered, Feb. 13th, 1809. The defenders struggled to the last, yielding only house by house.

SARATOGA, a town in New York, whose mineral springs have made it a celebrated watering place. Here the British army under Gen. Burgoyne surrendered to the Americans under Gen. Gates, Oct. 17th, 1777. Burgoyne invaded New York from Canada with a force of more than 7,000. The design was to establish a line of communication with the British troops in the middle states, and thus cut off New England. Burgoyne's ill success and surrender was the severest blow that the British received during the war. The news of it had great effect in deciding France to espouse the cause of the colonies.

SARDANAPALUS, the last king of Assyria, celebrated for his luxury and voluptuousness. His effeminacy irritated his officers; Belesis and Arbaces conspired against him, and collected a numerous force to dethrone him. Sardanapalus quitted his wine and women for a while, and appeared at the head of his armies. The rebels were defeated in three successive battles, but at last Sardanapalus was beaten and besieged in the city of Ninus for two years and more. When he

despaired of success, he burned himself in his palace, with his eunuchs, concubines, and all his treasures, and the empire of Assyria was divided among the conspirators. This famous event happened B.C. 820, according to Eusebius. The riches destroyed in the conflagration have been estimated at \$700,000,000!

SARDINIA (SARDEGNA), an island in the Mediterranean, has an area of 9,100 square miles, and 547,000 inhabitants. The capital is Cagliari, and the most important town Sassari. Its productions consist of grain, oil, citrons, oranges, and other fruits; while wine and cattle are abundant. There are mines of lead and silver. The Catholic is the prevailing religion of the island.

The Sardinian monarchy is composed in part of the island of Sardinia, but in much greater proportion of Piedmont, Savoy, and the territory of Genoa. Turin (Torino), in Piedmont, is the capital of the kingdom; population 140,000. The monarchy has an area of 29,075 square miles; population, 5,000,000. In 1720, Victor Amadeus II. exchanged the island of Sicily for Sardinia, and assumed the present royal title. After a peace of twenty years, this state became involved in the war between France and Austria, which was closed by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. The contest occasioned by the part which Sardinia took in the French revolution, began in 1792, and was maintained until 1796, when the assumption of the command by Bonaparte, led to the overthrow of the allied forces in the course of a few weeks, and to the conclusion of an unfavorable treaty of peace.

This treaty was followed in two years by the removal of the royal family to Sardinia, and the incorporation of their continental states with the French territory. The prospect of reinstatement opened by the progress of the allies in 1799, was completely overcast by the battle of Marengo. The continental territories were not restored to the legitimate sovereign until the overthrow of Bonaparte in 1814. [See SAVOY.]

The island of Sardinia is unknown in history until the time of its occupancy by the Carthaginians, who doubtless confined themselves to a few marine stations, from which they were expelled by the Romans in the Punic wars. The Romans continued in pos-

session of the island until the decline of the empire. It was invaded by the Saracens. The sovereignty of the island was acquired in the fourteenth century by the King of Arragon, and retained by the crown of Spain until the eighteenth century. In 1720 it was given to the Duke of Savoy. In 1794 the inhabitants of Cagliari, encouraged by the progress of the French revolution, rose in insurrection, and caused the Piedmontese viceroy, with all the individuals of his country, to be sent out of the island. The other towns followed the example; and the result was, that after two years of contention, the king granted a general pardon, declared that the cortes, or representative body, should assemble at least once in ten years, and confirmed all the ancient laws, customs, and privileges of the inhabitants. [See SAVOY.]

SARDIS, an ancient city of Lydia, formerly its capital. Cyrus took this city in the 59th Olympiad, and subdued the whole kingdom of Lydia, taking Croesus the king, prisoner. In the 69th Olympiad, Aristagoras having got twenty ships from the Athenians, persuaded the people to rebel against the Persians, and some time after took the city and burnt it, which occasioned the wars between the Persians and the Greeks. Antiochus Magnus took this city from Achæus by treason, after a year's siege. Tamerlane likewise besieged this city six years, and ruined it about 1398. The city stood on the edge of a spacious and fruitful plain, and has still many marks of its antiquity to be found amongst its ruins. It was anciently one of the strongest inland cities of Asia, especially when besieged by Antiochus Magnus. In this city Antigonus caused Cleopatra, the sister of Alexander the Great, to be put to death.

SARMATIA was the name given by the Romans to the regions between the Vistula and the Caspian. The Sarmatians were a savage, uncivilized nation, often confounded with the Scythians, naturally warlike, and famous for painting their bodies to appear more terrible in the field of battle. They were well known for their lewdness, and they passed among the Greeks and Latins by the name of barbarians. In the time of the emperors they became very powerful; they disturbed the peace of Rome by their frequent incursions; till at last, increased by the

savage hordes of Scythians, under the barbarous names of Huns, Vandals, Goths, Alans, &c., they successfully invaded and ruined the empire in the third and fourth centuries of the Christian era.

SATURN, the *Æronos* of the Grecian mythology, father of the gods. As destiny had foretold that he would be dethroned by one of his sons, he devoured all that were born, with the exception of Jupiter, Neptune, and Pluto, whom their mother Rhea saved. He was dethroned by Jupiter, and sought refuge with Janus in Italy, where he occupied himself with agriculture. He is represented as an old man, with a scythe in one hand, and an hour-glass in the other, to show that time destroys everything, and rolls onward without interruption.

SAVAGE, RICHARD, an unfortunate English poet, died in jail in 1743. He was the son of the inhuman Countess of Macclesfield, by the Earl of Rivers.

SAVARY, RENE, a French general under Napoleon, was intrusted with the execution of the doom decreed against the Duc d'Enghien. He was made Duke of Rovigo, and succeeded Fouche as minister of police. He died in 1833, aged fifty-nine.

SAVOY, an Italian duchy belonging to the Sardinian monarchy, bordering on France, Switzerland, and Piedmont, contains 584,000 inhabitants. It consists of valleys formed by offsets of the Alps, and much of the land is rocky and barren. The origin of the ducal house of Savoy is obscure. From the year 1000 till 1580, a long list of princes governed. In 1580 Charles Emmanuel invaded the marquisate of Saluzzo, which he wrested from France, and thereby gained a frontier for his capital of Turin. He was succeeded by Victor Amadeus I., who waged war against the Spaniards with equal success in 1635. To Charles Emmanuel II., Turin owes some of her magnificent structures; and he also caused the amazing passage through the rock Mount Visco to be cut. He was succeeded by his son Victor Amadeus II., in 1675, who persecuted his Protestant subjects, the Waldenses, with all the fury and malice of a bigot, and who was besieged in his capital, Turin, by the French, till the latter had lost fourteen thousand men before the place, and the ammunition of the besieged was

almost exhausted. The Duke of Savoy was soon after joined by Prince Eugene, whom he assisted in defeating the French, and driving them out of Lombardy. At the peace of Utrecht he obtained Sicily, which he afterward bartered for Sardinia; and thus the Sardinian monarchy began. He formally resigned his crown in 1730, to Charles Emmanuel, his son, reserving for himself a yearly income of one hundred thousand pounds. Accordingly, Charles Emmanuel III. succeeded in the government; but being persuaded by an interested minister, that his father was endeavoring to gain over the troops and remount the throne, he caused him to be dragged from his bed, and carried to a house with latticed windows, which in everything resembled a prison, in 1732. The old man died soon after. Some years after the commencement of the French revolution, Savoy was ceded by Charles Emmanuel IV. to France, and constituted the department of Mont Blanc. In this state it continued till the general peace, in 1814, when Savoy was restored to the family of its former possessors, in the person of Victor Emmanuel, King of Sardinia.

Charles Albert oscillated curiously between grasps at absolute power and spasms of political freedom for his subjects. A fit of the latter sort threw him into collision with Austria in 1848. The army of the latter, led by Marshal Radetzky, was victorious, and Charles abdicated in favor of his son, Victor Emmanuel II., who, under the lead of Cavour, joined the alliance against Russia in 1855, and became king of Italy in 1860.

DUKES OF SAVOY.

- 1391. Amadeus VIII., the Pacific; abdicated.
- 1440. Ludovic, his son.
- 1465. Amadeus IX., the Saint, his son.
- 1472. Philibert I., the Hunter, his son.
- 1482. Charles I., the Warlike, his brother.
- 1489. Charles II., his son; died while young.
- 1496. Philip Lackland, a son of Ludovic.
- 1497. Philibert II., the Fair, his son.
- 1504. Charles III., the Good, half-brother of Philibert.
- 1553. Emmanuel Philibert, Iron Hand, his son.
- 1580. Charles Emmanuel I., the Great, his son.
- 1630. Victor Amadeus I., his son.
- 1637. Francis Hyacinthus, an infant son of Victor.
- 1638. Charles Emmanuel II., his infant brother.
- 1675. Victor Amadeus II., his son. In 1713, the house of Savoy became regal, by the

accession of Victor Amadeus to the crown of Sicily, which, in 1718, he exchanged with the emperor for Sardinia.

KINGS OF SARDINIA AND DUKES OF SAVOY.

- 1718. Victor Amadeus II.; abdicated in favor of
- 1730. Charles Emmanuel III., his son.
- 1773. Victor Amadeus III., his son.
- 1796. Charles Emmanuel IV., abdicated in favor of

KINGS OF SARDINIA.

- 1802. Victor Emmanuel I., his brother, who abdicated in favor of
- 1821. Charles Felix, a third brother.
- 1831. Charles Albert, a descendant of Prince Thomas, brother of Victor Amadeus I. He abdicated in favor of his son.
- 1849. Victor Emmanuel II.

SAXE, MAURICE, Count de, a celebrated general, was born in 1696, at Dresden, being the natural son of Frederick Augustus, Elector of Saxony and King of Poland, by the Countess of Konigsmark. At the age of twelve years he was at the siege of Lisle, where he displayed signal courage; as he did the following year at that of Tournay. He bore a part in the battle of Malplaquet, and in 1711 accompanied the King of Poland to Stralsund, where he swam over the river, with a pistol in his hand, in sight of the enemy. He continued to distinguish himself in the war with Sweden; and in 1717 served against the Turks. In 1720 he obtained the rank of marshal de camp in the French army. In 1726 he was chosen Duke of Courland; but the election being set aside, he returned to France, where he was made lieutenant-general in 1734. In 1741 he took Prague by assault; in 1744 he was appointed a marshal of France; and the next year he gained the battle of Fontenoy. This was followed by the capture of Brussels, and the battle of Raucaux, for which the King of France made him marshal-general of his camps and armies. In 1747 he achieved the victory of Lahfeldt; and in 1748 took Maestricht. He died Nov. 30th, 1750.

SAXONY, the kingdom of, is bounded north and east by Prussia, south by Bohemia, west by the Saxon principalities and Bavaria. It contains 5,752 square miles, and a population of 2,000,000. Dresden is the capital. [See DRESDEN.] Leipsic is the centre of trade. The country is hilly and in some sections mountainous. Forests mantle

the hills, and the valleys are carefully tilled. The sheep of Saxony are noted for fineness of fleece, and the woolen manufactures, as well as those of linen and porcelain, are very important. The kingdom occupies only a small portion of that tract in the north of Germany formerly designated as Saxony, which extended from the Weser to the frontiers of Poland.

The Saxons are supposed by most authors to be the ancient Catti described by Tacitus. The government of the whole Saxon nation was vested in twelve chieftains, who were chosen annually, and who elected from among themselves a chief judge. In time of war they chose a king, whose power ceased on the return of peace. Charlemagne, on succeeding his father Pepin, in 772, resolved to compel the Saxons to change their religion, and embrace Christianity. Accordingly, he attacked and defeated them, and obliged their king, Wittekind, to fly into Denmark. Finding himself totally unable to resist the forces of the victorious Charlemagne, Wittekind accepted the conditions offered him, and was baptized with his whole family, by Lullo, Bishop of Mentz. In 804, after a calamitous war of thirty years, the Saxons were entirely subdued, when Charles had defeated them in numerous battles, and transported many thousands to Flanders, Brabant, and other countries.

The subsequent sovereigns of Saxony have uniformly asserted themselves to be descended from the illustrious Wittekind; and the reigning family still pride themselves on the same origin. They reckon among their progenitors several great men who were honored with the surnames of the Grave, the Pacific, the Constant, the Pious, the Magnanimous, and some of whom wore crowns, whilst others declined them.

The Saxons remained neutral in the war of 1740, between Russia and Austria. In 1756 they were tempted to take a part by the flattering promises of Austria, but they soon had cause to repent. In the war of 1793, the contingent furnished by Saxony against France was not large, and no decided part was taken in the war until 1806, when the elector sent all his troops to the field in support of Prussia. The overthrow of that power enabled Bonaparte to attach the Saxons to his cause

by the most substantial advantages. For although the elector was under the necessity of making his peace with the conqueror, upon any terms which the latter might choose to dictate to the vanquished party, yet in order to separate him from the interests of the Prussian monarch, the emperor treated him with great lenity, induced him to accede to the confederation of the Rhine, and gave him the title of king, with considerable accessions of territory. Further additions were made to the kingdom of Saxony in 1809; but these acquisitions were only temporary.

On the irruption of the allied armies into Saxony, in 1813, the king quitted Dresden, and identified his interests with the interests of France. After the battle of Leipsic, that city was taken by assault; and the king was made prisoner with his whole court. This country was afterward placed under the provisional occupation of Prussia; and Frederic William made known his intention of uniting Saxony to Prussia. However, the energetic conduct of the king of Saxony preserved him from total ruin. By the treaty of Vienna, in 1815, that sovereign ceded to Prussia certain districts and territories belonging to the kingdom of Saxony; and half the Saxon people, to whom the paternal sway of their king had endeared him, passed under the government of Prussia with extreme reluctance.

KINGS OF SAXONY.

- 1806. Frederick Augustus, formerly elector.
- 1827. Anthony, his brother.
- 1836. Frederick Augustus II.; nephew of Anthony; killed by a kick from a horse, Aug. 9th, 1854. *
- 1854. John, his brother; born Dec. 12th, 1801.

SAY, THOMAS. This distinguished naturalist died at New Harmony, Indiana, on the 10th October, 1834, aged forty-seven. Few individuals in this country have contributed so extensively to enlarge the boundaries of natural science. He was one of the founders of the Philadelphia academy of natural sciences. His original communications to the society, in the most abstruse departments of zoology, crustacea, insects, &c., of the United States, occupy more than eight hundred printed pages of their journal. His contributions to the "Encyclopædia Americana" were highly valuable. His work on American Entomology, and another on Conchology, met

with deserved approbation. He was the naturalist to the two western expeditions sent out by the United States government under Major Long. Some years previously he made a scientific excursion to the Floridas.

SCANDERBEG, the name given by the Turks to GEORGE CASTRIOTTO, Prince of Albania. His father, John, being reduced to extremity by Amurath II., was forced to put five of his sons into his hands, of whom Scanderbeg was the youngest. He pleased the tyrant, who poisoned his brothers, but spared him, and finding him endowed with very extraordinary qualities, had him educated in the Mohammedan faith. Having given several instances of his courage in Amurath's service, who was the usurper of his estates, Scanderbeg thought it was high time to think of making use of his valor for himself against the tyrant. In this design he so dexterously deceived the governor of Croya, the chief city of Albania, that he made himself master of that and several other places; in 1433 he took possession of his hereditary dominion, and upon his being admitted to the crown declared himself a Christian. He compelled the Turks to raise the siege of Croya, and cut to pieces the forces that were sent against him. Amurath himself having laid a second siege to this place, died before the walls, without being able to take it, though he was extremely desirous of being revenged on Scanderbeg. Under Mahomet II., he had seven or eight armies to contest with, but the victory was still on his side. It is said, that though he had killed above two thousand Turks with his own hand, yet was he never wounded. Mahomet, compelled by his valor and success, made peace with him, while Scanderbeg took a journey to the kingdom of Naples. The Turks, seeing the truce expired, laid siege again to Croya, but to no purpose; for Scanderbeg was soon with them, and forced them to raise the siege twice. He died at Lissa, a city belonging to the Venetians, Jan. 27th, 1467, in the sixty-third year of his age.

SCAURUS, M. ÆMILIUS, a Roman consul, who distinguished himself by his eloquence at the bar, and by his martial successes in Spain. He was sent against Jugurtha, and some time after was accused of suffering himself to be bribed by the Numidian prince.

Scaurus conquered the Ligurians, and during his censorship built the Milvian bridge at Rome, and began to pave the road which from him was called the Æmilian. He was originally very poor. He wrote some books, and among these a history of his own life, all now lost.

His son, of the same name, made himself known by the large theatre which he built during his edileship. This theatre, which could contain 30,000 spectators, was supported by 300 columns of marble, thirty-eight feet in height, and adorned with three thousand brazen statues. This celebrated edifice, according to Pliny, proved more fatal to the manners and the simplicity of the Romans, than the proscriptions and wars of Sylla had done.

SHELLING, FREDERICK WILLIAM JOSEPH, a distinguished name in German philosophy, was born at Leonburg in Wirtemberg, Jan. 27th, 1775. He died in 1854.

SCHILLER, FRIEDRICH, a German poet of great reputation, was born at Mannheim, a small town of Wirtemberg, Nov. 10th, 1759, and was the son of a gentleman who, having served in the army as a surgeon and officer, had retired to private life, and, at the date of the birth of the poet, was holding an considerable post under the Duke of Wirtemberg. Both the parents of the poet appear to have been persons possessed of estimable moral qualities, and no inconsiderable share of literary taste and talent. Schiller was not destitute of filial gratitude, and may be supposed to have expressed his own feelings in the following passage from one of his historical dramas. Don Carlos is addressing his father Philip:—

“How sweet and rapturous it is to feel
Ourselves exalted in a lovely soul,—
To know our joys make glow another's cheek,
Our fears to tremble in another's heart,
Our sufferings bedew another's eye!
How beautiful and grand 'tis, hand in hand
With a dear son, to tread youth's rosy path,
Again to dream once more the dream of life!
How sweet and great, imperishable, is
The virtue of a child, to live for ages,
Transmitting good unceasingly! How sweet
To plant what a dear son will one day reap;
To gather what will make him rich; to feel
How deep one day will be his gratitude!”

Schiller was placed in the school of Stuttgart, where he may be said to have educated

himself, for literature and the fine arts were under the ban of the Duke of Wirtemberg, whose pedantic pedagogues vainly endeavored to turn the gigantic mind of Schiller from its natural inclination. Knowing nothing of the world but from books; forbidden to mingle in female society; and seeing in his fellow-students but multiplied copies of a certain severe and soulless model, which their preceptors continually held up for admiration and imitation,—the poet turned to his own fancy for relief, and to beguile the tedium of his unnatural life, wrote the tragedy of "The Robbers," an extraordinary performance, full of imagination and energy, brilliant with the light of genius and youth, but, to use the deliberate criticism of its author, "a monster, for which by good fortune the world has no original, and which I would not wish to be immortal, except to perpetuate an example of the offspring which Genius, in its unnatural union with Thralldom, may give to the world."

The tragedy, although written before the completion of Schiller's college course, did not appear until he had attained the age of twenty-one, and was beginning to discharge the duties of surgeon in the army. The spirit and popularity of the poet's performance were highly displeasing to the despotic Duke of Wirtemberg, who issued an order for Schiller to confine himself to the studies peculiar to his profession. The youthful poet was compelled to suffer a week's confinement for the crime of having gone to Mannheim to attend the representation of his drama, and fearing a severer punishment for the repetition of the offense, he fled to Mannheim, and thence to the hospitable dwelling of Madam von Wollzogen, near Meiningen. Protected by this lady, he sent forth two new plays, "Fiesco," and "Court Intrigue and Love." He was next appointed poet to the theatre at Mannheim, a post of honor and profit. At the expiration of eighteen months, Schiller growing dissatisfied with his situation, went from Mannheim to Leipsic, and thence to Dresden. At the latter place he concluded his famous tragedy of "Don Carlos," the first of his plays that bears the stamp of anything like full maturity. The opportunities he had enjoyed for extending his knowledge of men and things, the sedulous practice of the art

of composition, the study of purer morals, had not been without their full effect. Increase of years had done something for him; diligence had done much more. The ebullience of youth is now chastened into the steadfast energy of manhood; the wild enthusiast, that spurned at the errors of the world, has now become the enlightened moralist, that laments their necessity, or endeavors to find out their remedy. A corresponding alteration is visible in the external form of the work, in its plot and diction. The plot is contrived with great ingenuity, embodying the result of much study, both dramatic and historical. The language is blank verse,—not prose, as in the former works; it is more careful and regular, less ambitious in its object, but more certain of attaining it. Schiller's mind had now reached its full stature: he felt and thought more justly; he could better express what he felt and thought.

"Don Carlos" was received with immediate and universal approbation, in the closet and on the stage. Schiller's expectations had not been so high; he knew both the excellences and the faults of his work: but he had not anticipated that the former would be recognized so instantaneously. The pleasure of this new celebrity came upon him, therefore, heightened by surprise. Had dramatic eminence been his sole object, he might now have slackened his exertions; the public had already ranked him as the first of their writers in that favorite department. But this limited ambition was not his moving principle; nor was his mind of that sort for which rest is provided in this world. The primary disposition of his nature urged him to perpetual toil: the great aim of his life, the unfolding of his mental powers, was one of those which admit but a relative not an absolute progress. New ideas of perfection arise as the former have been reached; the student is always attaining,—never has attained.

Schiller's worldly circumstances, too, were of a kind well calculated to prevent excess of quietism. He was still drifting at large on the tide of life: he was crowned with laurels, but without a home. His heart, warm and affectionate, fitted to enjoy the domestic blessings which it longed for, was allowed to form no permanent attachment; he felt that he was unconnected, solitary in the world, cut off

from the exercise of his kindlier sympathies; or if tasting such pleasures, it was 'snatching them rather than partaking of them calmly.' The vulgar desire of wealth and station never entered his mind for an instant; but as years were added to his age, the delights of peace and continuous comfort were fast becoming more acceptable than any other; and he looked with anxiety to have a resting-place amid his wanderings,—to be a man among his fellow-men.

For all these wishes Schiller saw that the only chance of fulfillment depended on unwearied perseverance in his literary occupations. Yet though his activity was unabated, and the calls on it were increasing rather than diminished, its direction was gradually changing. The drama had long been stationary, and of late had been falling in his estimation; the difficulties of the art, as he viewed it at present, had been overcome, and new conquests invited him in other quarters. The latter part of "Carlos" he had written as a task rather than a pleasure; he contemplated no farther undertaking connected with the stage. For a time, indeed, he seems to have wavered among a multiplicity of enterprises; now solicited to this, and now to that, without being able to fix decidedly on any. The restless ardor of his mind is evinced by the number and variety of his attempts; its fluctuation by the circumstance that all of them are short in extent, or left in the state of fragments. Of the former kind are his lyrical productions, many of which were composed about this period, during intervals from more serious labors. The character of these performances is such as his former writings give us reason to expect. With a deep insight into life, and a keen and comprehensive sympathy with its sorrows and enjoyments, there is combined that impetuosity of feeling, that pomp of thought and imagery, which belong peculiarly to Schiller. If he had left the drama, his mind was still overflowing with the elements of poetry; dwelling among the grandest conceptions, and the boldest or finest emotions; thinking intensely and profoundly, but decorating its thoughts with those graces, which other faculties than the understanding are required to afford. With these smaller pieces, Schiller occupied himself at intervals of leisure throughout the

remainder of his life. Some of them are to be classed among the finest efforts of his genius. The "Walk to the Forge," the "Song of the Bell," contain exquisite delineations of the fortunes and the history of man; his "Ritter von Toggenburg," his "Cranes of Ibycus," his "Hero and Leander," are among the most poetical and moving ballads to be found in any language.

Schiller now turned his attention to history, his first performance in this department being "The Revolt of the Netherlands," unfortunately a fragment, but written in an exceedingly pure style, and displaying throughout a most penetrating and philosophical spirit.

He wrote and thought with an impetuosity beyond what nature always could endure. His intolerance of interruptions first put him on the plan of studying by night; an alluring but pernicious practice, which began at Dresden, and was never afterward forsaken. His recreations breathed a similar spirit: he loved to be much alone, and strongly moved. The banks of the Elbe were the favorite resort of his mornings: here, wandering in solitude amid groves and lawns, and green and beautiful places, he abandoned his mind to delicious musings; watched the fitful current of his thoughts, as they came sweeping through his soul in their vague, fantastic, gorgeous forms; pleased himself with the transient images of memory and hope; or meditated on the cares and studies which had lately been employing, and were again soon to employ him. He might be seen floating on the river in a gondola, feasting himself with the loveliness of earth and sky. He delighted most to be there, when a tempest was abroad: his unquiet spirit found a solace in the expression of his own unrest on the face of Nature; danger lent a charm to his situation; he felt in harmony with the scene, when the rack was sweeping stormfully across the heavens, and the forests were sounding in the breeze, and the river rolled its chafed waters into wild, eddying heaps.

Yet before the darkness summoned him exclusively to his tasks, Schiller commonly devoted a portion of the day to the pleasures of society. Could he have found enjoyment in the flatteries of admiring hospitality, his fame would have procured them for him in abundance. But these things were not to

his taste. The idea of being a *lion* is offensive enough to any man, of not more than common vanity, and less than common understanding: it was doubly offensive to him. His pride and his modesty alike forbade it. The delicacy of his nature, aggravated into shyness by his education and his habits, rendered situations of display more than usually painful to him. In the circles of fashion, he appeared unwillingly, and seldom to advantage: their glitter and parade were foreign to his disposition: their strict ceremonial cramped the play of his mind. Hemmed in, as by invisible fences, among the intricate barriers of etiquette, so feeble, yet so inviolable, he felt constrained and helpless,—alternately chagrined and indignant. It was the giant among pigmies; Gulliver, in Lilliput, tied down by a thousand packthreads. But there were more congenial minds, with whom he could associate; more familiar scenes, in which he found the pleasures he was seeking. Here Schiller was himself; frank, unembarrassed, pliant to the humor of the hour. His conversation was delightful, abounding at once in rare and simple charms. Besides the intellectual riches which it carried with it, there was a flow of kindness and unaffected good humor, which can render dullness itself agreeable. Schiller had many friends in Dresden, who loved him as a man while they admired him as a writer. Their intercourse was of the kind he liked,—sober, as well as free and mirthful. It was the careless, calm, honest effusion of his feelings that he wanted; not the noisy tumults and coarse delirium of dissipation. For this, under any of its forms, he at no time showed the smallest relish.

A visit to Weimar gained him the acquaintance of Herder and Wieland, and afterward of Goethe. With the latter, he did not get on very well at first. Gradually they became cordial friends, and in 1789, Schiller, chiefly through the interest of Goethe, was appointed professor of history at the university of Jena, a few miles from the town of Weimar. He was then thirty years old, and married Mlle. von Lengefeldt of Rudolstadt, to whom he had been engaged some time before. In 1791 he published his "History of the Thirty Years' War." This great work suggested another and his greatest drama,—or rather a series of dramas, since it is in three

parts,—"*Wallenstein*," which cost him the labor of two years. It was followed speedily by "*Mary Stuart*," a work of great power, but not equaling that which preceded it. "*Mary Stuart*" was followed by the "*Maid of Orleans*," the "*Bride of Messina*," and "*William Tell*." Schiller died in the spring of 1805, at the age of forty-five, in the full vigor of his intellectual powers.

SCHOMBERG, CHARLES, who was so much esteemed by Louis XIII. for his many important services rendered in war to the crown of France, died in 1656, in the fifty-sixth year of his age.

SCHOMBERG, HENRY, Count of Nanteuil and Duretal, was the son of Gaspar Schomberg, a German, and succeeded his father as general field-marshal of the German troops in the French king's service. He was sent ambassador extraordinary to England, in 1615; at his return he had a command in the army of Piedmont, and contributed to the taking of several places in 1620. He served against the Huguenots in the civil wars. In 1627 he was present at the action of the Isle of Re, where the English were defeated. In 1630 he took Pignerol, and relieved Casal, and gained the battle of Castelnaudary against the rebels of Languedoc. He died at Bourdeaux in 1633, in the forty-ninth year of his age.

SCHOMBERG, FREDERIC, Duke of, an eminent general, was the son of Count Schomberg, by the daughter of Lord Dudley of England, and was born in 1619. He began his military career in the army of Gustavus Adolphus. He served in the army of the United Provinces; but in 1650 retired to France, where he was esteemed next to Conde and Turenne. In 1660 he visited England, whence he proceeded to Portugal, where he was created a grandee, and obtained a pension. On his return to France he commanded in Flanders, and obliged the Prince of Orange to raise the siege of Maestricht, for which he was made a marshal. On the revocation of the edict of Nantes, he went again to Portugal; but being obliged to quit the kingdom by the inquisition, he removed to Holland, and afterward entered into the service of the Elector of Brandenburg. In 1688 he accompanied William of Orange to England; and after the Revolution was created a duke, with

which title he received a grant of one hundred thousand pounds. In 1689 he commanded in Ireland, where he was killed at the battle of the Boyne, July 1st, 1690.

SCHUYLER, PHILIP, a general in the American Revolution, was born at Albany, N. Y., in 1731, and being appointed major-general in 1775, evinced great courage and ability. He was a member of the old congress, and with Rufus King represented New York in the first federal senate. He died Nov. 18th, 1804.

SCIO, or CHIOS, a fertile island in the Grecian Archipelago, containing 392 square miles. In 1822, the revolt of the Sciots was punished by the Turks, by the massacre of 40,000 persons without distinction of age or sex, while many women and children were borne away to slavery. Such was the ferocious spirit exercised toward them, that in 1823, the population had been reduced from 120,000 to 16,000!

SCIPIO. There were many illustrious Romans of this name, belonging to the Cornelii. CNEIUS, surnamed Asina, was consul, A. U. C. 494 and 500. He was conquered in his first consulship in a naval battle, and lost seventeen ships. The following year he took Aleria, in Corsica, and defeated Hanno, the Carthaginian general, in Sardinia. He also took two hundred of the enemy's ships, and the city of Panormum in Sicily. He was father to Publius and Cneius Scipio. PUBLIUS, in the beginning of the second Punic war, was sent with an army to Spain to oppose Hannibal; but when he heard that his enemy had passed over into Italy, he attempted by his quick marches and secret evolutions to stop his progress. He was vanquished by Hannibal near the Ticinus, where he would have lost his life, had not his son, who was afterward surnamed Africanus, courageously defended him. He again passed into Spain, where he obtained some memorable victories over the Carthaginians, and the inhabitants of the country.

His brother CNEIUS shared the supreme command with him, but their great confidence proved their ruin. They separated their armies, and soon after Publius was furiously attacked by the two Hasdrubals and Mago, who commanded the Carthaginian armies. The forces of Publius were too few

to resist with success the three Carthaginian generals. The Romans were cut to pieces, and their commander was left on the field of battle. No sooner had the enemy obtained this victory, than they immediately marched to meet Cneius Scipio, whom the revolt of 30,000 Celtiberians had weakened and alarmed. That general, who was already apprised of his brother's death, secured an eminence, where he was soon surrounded on all sides. After desperate acts of valor, he was left among the slain; or, according to some, he fled into a tower, where he was burnt with some of his friends by the victorious enemy.

PUBLIUS CORNELIUS SCIPIO, whose successes won him the surname of Africanus, was the son of the Publius Scipio who was killed in Spain. He first distinguished himself at the battle of Ticinus, where he saved his father's life by deeds of unexampled valor and boldness. The battle of Cannæ, which proved so fatal to the Roman arms, instead of disheartening Scipio, raised his expectations, and he no sooner heard that some of his desperate countrymen wished to abandon Italy, and to fly from the insolence of the conqueror, than with his sword in his hand, and by his firmness and example, he obliged them to swear eternal fidelity to Rome, and to put to immediate death the first man who attempted to retire from his country. It was soon known how able he was to be at the head of an army: the various nations of Spain were conquered, and in four years the Carthaginians were banished from that part of the continent; the whole province became tributary to Rome; New Carthage submitted in one day, and in a battle 54,000 of the enemy were left dead on the field. After these signal victories, Scipio was recalled to Rome, which still trembled at the continual alarms of Hannibal, who was at her gates. The conqueror of the Carthaginians in Spain was looked upon as a proper general to encounter Hannibal in Italy; but Scipio opposed the measures which his countrymen wished to pursue, and he declared in the senate that if Hannibal was to be conquered he must be conquered in Africa. These bold measures were immediately adopted, though opposed by the eloquence, age, and experience of the great Fabius, and Scipio was empowered to conduct the war on the coast of Africa. With the dignity of consul

he embarked for Carthage. Hannibal, who was victorious at the gates of Rome, was instantly recalled to defend the walls of his country, and the two greatest generals of the age met each other in the field. Terms of accommodation were proposed; but in the parley which the two commanders had together, nothing satisfactory was offered, and while the one enlarged on the vicissitudes of human affairs, the other wished to dictate like a conqueror, and recommended the decision of the controversy to the sword.

The eventful battle was fought near Zama, B.C. 202. Both generals displayed their military knowledge in drawing up their armies and in choosing their ground. Their courage and intrepidity were not less conspicuous in charging the enemy; a thousand acts of valor were performed on both sides; and though the Carthaginians fought in their own defense, and the Romans for fame and glory, yet the conqueror of Italy was vanquished. About 20,000 Carthaginians were slain, and the same number made prisoners of war. Only 2,000 of the Romans were killed. This battle was decisive; the Carthaginians sued for peace, which Scipio at last granted on the most severe and humiliating terms.

The conqueror returned to Rome, where he was received with the most unbounded applause, honored with a triumph, and dignified with the appellation of *Africanus*. Here he enjoyed for some time the tranquillity and the honors which his exploits merited, but to him also as in other great men, Fortune showed herself inconstant. Scipio offended the populace in wishing to distinguish the senators from the rest of the people at the public exhibitions; and when he canvassed for the consulship for two of his friends, he had the mortification to see his application slighted, and the honors which he claimed, bestowed on a man of no character, recommended by neither abilities nor meritorious actions.

He retired from Rome, no longer to be a spectator of the ingratitude of his countrymen, and in the capacity of lieutenant, accompanied his brother Lucius against Antiochus, King of Syria. In this expedition his arms were attended with usual success, and the Asiatic monarch submitted to the conditions which the conquerors dictated. At his

return to Rome, Africanus found the malevolence of his enemies still unabated. Cato, his inveterate rival, raised seditions against him, and the Petili, two tribunes of the people, accused the conqueror of extortion in the provinces of Asia, and of living in an indolent and luxurious manner.

Scipio condescended to answer to the accusation of his calumniators; the first day was spent in hearing the different charges, but when he again appeared on the second day of his trial, the accused interrupted his judges, and exclaimed, "Tribunes and fellow-citizens, on this day, this very day, did I conquer Hannibal and the Carthaginians: come, therefore, with me, Romans; let us go to the capitol, and there return our thanks to the immortal gods for the victories which have attended our arms." The tribes and all the assembly followed Scipio; the court was deserted, and the tribunes were left alone in the seat of judgment.

Yet when this memorable day was past and forgotten, Africanus was a third time summoned to appear; but he had fled before the impending storm, and retired to his country-house at Liternum. The accusation was therefore stopped, and the accusers silenced, when one of the tribunes, Ti. Sempronius Gracchus, formerly distinguished for his malevolence against Scipio, rose to defend him, and declared in the assembly, that it reflected the highest disgrace on the Roman people, that the conqueror of Hannibal should become the sport of the populace, and be exposed to the malice and envy of disappointed ambition.

Some time after, Scipio died in the place of his retreat, about B.C. 184, in the forty-eighth year of his age; and so great an aversion did he express, as he expired, for the depravity of the Romans, and the ingratitude of their senators, that he ordered his bones not to be conveyed to Rome. They were accordingly inhumated at Liternum, where his wife Æmilia, the daughter of Paulus Æmilius, who fell at the battle of Cannæ, raised a mausoleum on his tomb, and placed upon it his statue, with that of the poet Ennius, who had been the companion of his peace and of his retirement. In the same year died his great opponent, Hannibal, in exile likewise.

LUCIUS CORNELIUS SCIPIO, surnamed *Asiaticus*, accompanied his brother Africanus in his expeditions in Spain and Africa. He was rewarded with the consulship, B.C. 189, and was empowered to attack Antiochus, King of Syria, who had declared war against the Romans. Lucius was accompanied in this campaign by his brother Africanus; and by his own valor, and by the advice of the conqueror of Hannibal, he soon routed the enemy, and in a battle near the city of Sardis his soldiers, with scant loss, slew 50,000 foot and 4,000 horse.

Peace was soon after settled by the submission of Antiochus, and the conqueror, at his return home, obtained a triumph, and the surname of *Asiaticus*. He did not, however, long enjoy his prosperity; Cato, after the death of Africanus, turned his fury against Asiaticus, and the two Petillii, his devoted favorites, presented a petition to the people, in which they prayed that an inquiry might be made to know what money had been received from Antiochus and his allies. The petition was instantly received, and Asiaticus, charged to have suffered himself to be corrupted by Antiochus, was summoned to appear before the tribunal of Terentius Culeo, who was on this occasion created prætor.

The judge, who was an inveterate enemy to the family of the Scipios, soon found Asiaticus, with his two lieutenants and his quaestor, guilty of having received, the first 6,000 pounds weight of gold and 480 pounds weight of silver, and the others nearly an equal sum, from the monarch against whom, in the name of the Roman people, they were enjoined to make war. Immediately they were condemned to pay large fines; but while the others gave security, Scipio declared that he had accounted to the public for all the money which he had brought from Asia, and therefore that he was innocent.

For this obstinacy Scipio was dragged to prison, but his cousin Nasica pleaded his cause before the people, and the prætor instantly ordered the goods of the prisoner to be seized and confiscated. The sentence was executed, but the effects of Scipio were insufficient to pay the fine; and it was the greatest justification of his innocence, that whatever was found in his house had never been in the possession of Antiochus or his

subjects. This, however, did not totally liberate him; he was reduced to poverty and refused to accept the aid of his friends and of his clients. Some time after, he was appointed to settle the disputes between Eumenes and Seleucus; and at his return, the Romans, ashamed of their severity toward him, rewarded his merit with such uncommon liberality, that Asiaticus was enabled to celebrate games in honor of his victory over Antiochus, for ten successive days, at his own expence.

PUBLIUS CORNELIUS SCIPIO, surnamed *Nasica*, was the son of Cneius Scipio, and cousin to Africanus and Asiaticus. He was refused the consulship, though supported by the interest and fame of the conqueror of Hannibal; but he afterward obtained it, and in that honorable office conquered the Boii, and gained a triumph. He was also successful in an expedition which he undertook in Spain. When the statue of Cybele was brought to Rome from Phrygia, the Roman senate delegated that one of their body who should be declared the most remarkable for the purity of his manners and the innocence of his life, to go and meet the goddess in the harbor of Ostia. Nasica was the object of their choice, and as such he was enjoined to bring the statue of the goddess to Rome with the greatest pomp and solemnity. Nasica also distinguished himself by the active part which he took in confuting the accusations laid against the two Scipios, Africanus and Asiaticus. His son of the same name distinguished himself by his enmity against the Gracchi, to whom he was nearly related.

PUBLIUS CORNELIUS SCIPIO ÆMILIANUS, son of L. Æmilius Paulus, the conqueror of Perseus, was adopted by the elder son of Scipio Africanus. He first appeared in the Roman armies under his father, and afterward distinguished himself as a legionary tribune in the Spanish provinces, where he killed a Spaniard of gigantic stature, and obtained a mural crown at the siege of Intercatia. He passed into Africa to demand a reinforcement from Masinissa, the ally of Rome, and he was the spectator of a long and bloody battle which was fought between that monarch and the Carthaginians, and which soon produced the third Punic war. Some time after Æmilianus was made edile, and next appointed

consul, though under the age required for that important office.

He was empowered to finish the war with Carthage, and as he was permitted by the senate to choose his colleague, he took with him his friend Lælius, whose father, of the same name, had formerly enjoyed the confidence and shared the victories of the first Africanus. The siege of Carthage was already begun, but the operations of the Romans were not continued with vigor. Scipio had no sooner appeared before the walls of the enemy, than every communication with the land was cut off, and that they might not have the command of the sea, a stupendous mole was thrown across the harbor, with immense labor and expense. This, which might have disheartened the most active enemy, rendered the Carthaginians more eager in the cause of freedom and independence. All the inhabitants, without distinction of rank, age, or sex, employed themselves without cessation to dig another harbor, and to build and equip another fleet. In a short time, in spite of the vigilance and activity of Æmilianus, the Romans were astonished to see another harbor formed, and fifty galleys suddenly issuing under sail, ready for the engagement.

This unexpected fleet, by immediately attacking the Roman ships, might have gained the victory; but the delay of the Carthaginians proved fatal to their cause, and the enemy had sufficient time to prepare themselves. Scipio soon got possession of a small eminence in the harbor; and, by the success of his subsequent operations, he broke open one of the gates of the city, and entered the streets, where he made his way by fire and sword. The surrender of above 50,000 men was followed by the reduction of the citadel, and the total submission of Carthage, B.C. 147.

The captive city was set on fire; and though Scipio was obliged to demolish its very walls, to obey the orders of the Romans, yet he wept bitterly over the melancholy and tragical scene; and in bewailing the miseries of Carthage, he expressed his fears lest Rome, in her turn, in some future age, should exhibit such a dreadful conflagration. The return of Æmilianus to Rome was that of another conqueror of Hannibal,

and like his grandfather by adoption, he was honored with a magnificent triumph, and received the surname of *Africanus*. He was chosen consul a second time and appointed to finish the war which the Romans had hitherto carried on without success or vigorous exertions, against Numantia, in Spain. The fall of Numantia was more noble than that of the capital of Africa, and the conqueror of Carthage obtained the victory only when the Numantines had been consumed by famine or by self-destruction, B.C. 133.

For his conquests in Spain, Æmilianus was honored with a second triumph, and with the surname of *Numantinus*. Yet his popularity was short; and by telling the people that the murder of their favorite, his brother-in-law, Tiberius Gracchus, was lawful, since he was turbulent, and inimical to the peace of the republic, Scipio incurred the displeasure of the assembly, and was received with hisses. His authority for a moment quelled their sedition, when he reproached them for their cowardice, and exclaimed, "Factionous wretches, do you think that your clamors can intimidate me,—me, whom the fury of your enemies never daunted? Is this the gratitude that you owe to my father, Paulus, who conquered Macedonia, and to me? Without my family, you were slaves. Is this the respect you owe to your deliverers? Is this your affection?" This firmness silenced the murmurs of the assembly, and some time after, Scipio retired from the clamors of Rome to Caieta, where, with his friend Lælius, he passed the rest of his time in innocent pleasure and amusement, in diversions which had pleased them when children. He afterward returned to Rome, and again engaged in public affairs, strongly opposing the agrarian laws. One evening the senate, and a large throng of the citizens, the Latins, and other allies, conducted their illustrious friend and patron to his house. It seemed the wish that the troubles might be quieted by the election of Scipio to the dictatorship; and many presumed that that honor would be conferred upon him. In this, however, the expectations of Rome were frustrated: Scipio was found dead in his bed the next morning, and those who inquired for the cause of this

sudden death, perceived violent marks on his neck, and concluded that he had been strangled, B.C. 128.

SCOTLAND, a country of Europe forming the northern division of Great Britain, containing 31,324 square miles, and 2,888,742 inhabitants. It is divided by the Grampian Hills into the Highlands and Lowlands. The Highland counties are, Orkney and Shetland, Caithness, Sutherland, Nairn, Elgin or Moray, Banff, Ross, Cromarty, Inverness, Argyle, Bute, Aberdeen, Kincardine, Angus or Forfar, Perth, and Fife. The Lowland counties are, Kinross, Clackmannan, Stirling, Dumbarton, Linlithgow or West Lothian, Edinburgh or Mid Lothian, Haddington or East Lothian, Berwick, Renfrew, Ayr, Wigton, Lanark, Peebles, Selkirk, Roxburgh, Dumfries, and Kirkcudbright. The surface of the country is distinguished for variety, and often rugged and mountainous. With the exception of a few tracts of rich alluvial land along the courses of the larger rivers, Scotland has no extensive tracts of level ground, the country being a succession of hill and dale. Ben Nevis, the highest of the mountains, attains an elevation of 4,406 feet, and there are many peaks which nearly rival its eminence. The fine scenery of the Highlands is enhanced by the many lakes, in whose clear depths inverted summits cast their bold outlines against a reflected sky. The largest is Loch Lomond. The minerals are numerous and valuable; a great coal-field stretches across the Lowlands; iron and lead are mined. The agriculture of Scotland does not equal that of England; the climate is more variable, and the soil is inferior, so that notwithstanding the advanced state of tillage in many districts, the crops are not reaped with the same certainty as in England, nor do the ordinary kinds of grain arrive at the same perfection. The manufactures, especially those of linen and cotton, are extensive and flourishing. The making of steam-engines, and every description of machinery, as also the building of steamers, both of wood and iron, is largely carried on along the Clyde. Foreign commerce also has increased very largely of late years. The general religion is Presbyterianism; and besides the established church, there is the large body known as the free church, which separated from the

former in 1843. If in earth-culture Scotland is inferior to England, in mind-culture she as much surpasses. There are excellent universities at Edinburgh, Glasgow, and Aberdeen, but the superiority of which we speak is in education for the mass of the people. Each parish has at least one school, in which the ordinary branches of education are taught; and private schools are frequent. There is a wide difference between the stupid clowns of England, and the shrewd, intelligent peasantry of Scotland.

Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, is situated about two miles from the Frith of Forth. In panoramic splendor its site is unsurpassed by any city in Europe. A deep ravine divides the Old Town from the New. The latter, which has been built within the last hundred years, displays great elegance of architecture and symmetry of plan. The Old Town has changed but little since the days of John Knox and Queen Mary. Its houses often rise to the lofty height of a dozen stories, and the abodes of nobles in ruder times still stand, though now the dwellings of poverty. From the high chimneys curl the thin vapors of smoke which have stood sponsors to the name "Auld Reekie." There is much similarity between the position of Edinburgh and Athens: Calton Hill serves for an Acropolis, the Frith of Forth for the Ægean Sea; and this resemblance, with literary eminence, has given the city the title of the 'Modern Athens.' Like a couchant lion, Salisbury Crags watch the town, and above them rises the solitary grandeur of Arthur's Seat. Edinburgh has no very extensive manufactures: printing and publishing are largely carried on; but its prosperity depends upon its universities and schools, the presence of the courts of judicature for Scotland, and its lingering importance as the ancient capital of the land. Leith, which may be called the port of Edinburgh, two miles distant, has a fine harbor and docks, and a busy trade, principally with the north of Europe and the Baltic. The population of Edinburgh and its suburbs is 161,000. Edinburgh became the royal residence in 1437.

The commercial metropolis of Scotland is Glasgow, at the head of navigation on the Clyde, and in wealth, population, manufac-

tures, and commerce, it is the third city in the united kingdom; population 400,000. It is among the most ancient towns of Scotland, its origin being attributed to St. Mungo, somewhere about 560. In the last century Glasgow was the seat of a great tobacco trade, that absorbed almost all its capital and enterprise, and laid in return foundations of many and great fortunes. With this the American Revolution interfered, and attention was turned to cotton manufactures, to which Glasgow chiefly owes her pre-eminence as a commercial and manufacturing city. Of late years the iron trade has advanced toward colossal proportions, and the 'iron lords' threaten to eclipse the 'cotton lords,' as the latter, years ago, eclipsed the 'tobacco lords.' It was here that Watt commenced his labors upon the steam-engine, and here was the dawn of steam navigation in Great Britain. Glasgow, among many striking public buildings, has a fine cathedral, erected early in the twelfth century. Its ancient university is still high in repute.

We can only mention other prominent towns in Scotland, as Paisley, Aberdeen, Dundee, Greenock, Inverness, Perth, and Dumfries.

This part of Great Britain was originally called Caledonia. The ancient inhabitants appear to have been the Caledonians and Picts, Celtic tribes who passed over from the opposite coast of Gaul. We first hear of the Scots in Ireland, which island they in the fifth century divided with the Hiberni, the previous inhabitants; over whom, however, they got so decided a superiority, that the country was called Scotia till the tenth century. In the beginning of the sixth century, a colony of these Scots settled in Argyleshire, which they called Daldriada. The rest of the land north of the Friths of Forth and Clyde formed the kingdom of the Picts. In 843 the whole of North Britain was united under the rule of Kenneth MacAlpine, originally king of the Scots of Daldriada, but thenceforth styled king of the Picts. Throughout the tenth century, North Britain, ruled as one kingdom by his successors, was known by the name of Albania, undoubtedly the same with Albion, or Albin, which is the most ancient name attributed to the island, and that by which the Gael of Scotland distinguish it to

this day. About the middle of this century, the name Scotland began to be used, and soon the people were known simply as Scots.

Donald, brother to Kenneth, was succeeded by Constantine, his nephew, son of Kenneth, who being made prisoner by a party of Danes, was beheaded by the enemy in a cave, afterward called the Devil's Cave. He was succeeded by his brother Eth, who after a sensual reign of one year, was followed by Gregory, surnamed the Great. The king of Ireland being a minor, his authority was usurped by two factious noblemen. Gregory therefore passed over into that country as guardian of the young king, and after appointing a regency, he returned into Scotland, where he finished a life of action and of glory at Dun-deer, in the Garioch, in 892, and was buried with his ancestors at Icolmkill.

Donald VI., the worthy successor of Gregory, rendered considerable service to Alfred, king of England, in his wars with the Danes. He was succeeded by Constantine III., son of Eth, who, departing from the policy of his predecessors, entered into an alliance with the Danes, in the hope of being able to extend his dominions by their help. But he was disappointed. After failing in an expedition against England, he resigned his crown to Malcolm, son of Donald VI., and spent the remainder of his life in the solitude of the cloister. The connection of the English and Scots against the Danes, was continued under Indulf, who defeated these freebooters in many bloody engagements, and was at last slain by them in an ambuscade. His successor Duff, son of Malcolm, resigned his principality of Cumberland to Colin, the son of Indulf; but the latter, not contented with his domain, excited various insurrections in the kingdom, and at last Duff was either slain or driven into exile.

Colin indulged in the greatest licentiousness, and was assassinated by a thane whose daughter he had dishonored, and was succeeded by Kenneth III., the son of Malcolm, who vigorously prosecuted the war against the Britons of Strathclyud, till at last their principality was finally subjected to the dominion of the Scots. However, Kenneth was assassinated, and the throne was usurped by Constantine the Bold, who fell in an engagement with Grime, the son of Duff, in 993.

Grime, regardless of the claims of Malcolm, son of Kenneth, and prince of Cumberland, caused himself to be crowned at Scone, but was defeated and slain after a reign of eight years.

In 1004 Malcolm, having convened the nobility, was acknowledged sovereign, and invested with the royal dignity. He defeated in three different engagements the Danes, who had effected a settlement in Cambria; and these successes gained him the title of the most victorious king. He was murdered after a reign of thirty years, and left no issue to succeed him except Duncan, a grandson by his daughter Bethoc. Duncan was cut off by the hand of domestic treachery in the seventh year of his reign, and the throne was usurped by his murderer, Macbeth. Malcolm, son of Duncan, had escaped to the English court. Obtaining assistance thence, he made war on the usurper, and finally conquered and slew him. The victor mounted the throne, and wedded Margaret of England, who had fled to Scotland for her life. He was surnamed Canmore, or 'great head.' His reign ended in 1093, by his death at the siege of Alnwick Castle.

The people of the Lowlands, now to a great extent Saxon, supported the claim of Canmore's son Duncan as his successor; the Celtic tribes of the north asserted the right of Donald Bane, a brother of Canmore, in conformity with the old custom of tanistry. Donald Bane was assisted by Magnus Barefoot, King of Norway, to whom at this time belonged the Western Islands, and was thus able to carry all before him. He drove out the Saxons who had settled in the Lowlands during the late reign. After a few months Duncan came with a numerous army from England, which he had raised by consent of William Rufus, and Donald was forced to give way. Duncan was not able to protect the Saxon settlers who had returned with him: he found it necessary to drive them forth; and when he had thus deprived himself of foreign protection, his subjects put him to death and restored his uncle. Two years afterward another English army, conducted by Edgar Atheling, overpowered Donald, and set the crown on the head of Edgar, a brother of Duncan. That result decided the contest between the two principles of succession, and

also the struggle for supremacy between Celtic and Saxon Scotland. Edgar was succeeded by his brother Alexander, and he by David, another brother. On the accession of Malcolm IV., grandson of David, a child only in his eleventh year, unsuccessful attempts were made by the Highlanders to maintain the claim of William, a grandson of Malcolm Canmore's eldest son Duncan.

It was not, however, till full two centuries later that the rule of the Scottish king was established over the whole of Scotland. Native chiefs appear to have retained possession of the districts in the extreme north. The Saxon inhabitants perfected their Saxon institutions: the country was divided into earldoms, and sheriffs and county courts were established. From the reign of David I. (1124-1153), we date the introduction of Norman institutions. Of the great Highland chiefs, the Earls of Moray continued the most formidable till 1161, when that ancient line was stripped of its power and its possessions by Malcolm IV., and the title it had enjoyed was transferred to the Earls of Mar. After the cession of the Hebrides by the Norwegians in 1266, the most potent family of the north came to be that of the Macdonalds, the Celtic chiefs of these islands, who styled themselves Lords of the Isles. Their strength was broken by the defeat of Donald, Lord of the Isles, at the battle of Harlaw in 1411, and destroyed by the effective measures taken by James I. to curb the Highland chiefs. From this epoch may be dated the complete reduction of Celtic Scotland under the sceptre of the Saxon king of the Lowlands. The lordship of the isles was finally extinguished by the forfeiture of the last lord in 1493.

Malcolm IV., the successor of David I., ceded the counties of Northumberland and Cumberland to Henry II. of England, did homage for the earldom of Huntingdon, and meeting that monarch at Carlisle, followed him in his expedition against Toulouse in France. On his return he was continually disturbed with insurrections, and was saved only by the intervention of the clergy. He died unmarried at the age of twenty-five years.

William was crowned immediately after his brother's death, in 1165, and entering into a confederacy against Henry of England, was defeated and taken prisoner. He accept-

ed his liberation on the most humiliating terms; five castles being delivered up to the English as sureties, and the king's brother and twenty nobles as hostages. The accession of Richard to the English throne was, however, fortunate for Scotland. He released William and his kingdom from that feudal dependency on England which had been unjustly extorted during his captivity, and engaged to restore his fortresses. William reigned forty-nine years, and died in the seventy-second year of his age.

His son and successor, Alexander II., married Joan, daughter of John of England, settled by treaty the claims which had been the subjects of contest between the two crowns, and procured for himself a reign as peaceable as could be expected in a nation full of turbulent nobles. Alexander III. was only nine years of age when he was crowned. Ambassadors were sent to London to demand Margaret, daughter of Henry III., in marriage; and this being easily granted, both courts met at York, and the ceremony was performed with great pomp. Alexander did homage to Henry for his English possessions, which the latter confirmed by a charter.

The king saw himself bereft of all his children, except Margaret, who was married to Eric of Norway; and in the third year after her marriage she also died, leaving only an infant daughter, on whom the crown of Scotland was settled. Alexander was thrown from his horse over a precipice, and perished in the fall. Edward I., who was one of the most valiant and politic monarchs that ever sat on the English throne, being ambitious of adding Scotland to the dominions of his crown, applied to the court of Rome to authorize a marriage between his son and his grand-niece, and having gained the consent of Eric, he intrigued with the Scottish nobles to obtain their concurrence. Everything seemed to favor his views, when the child was taken ill on the passage from Norway, and died at Orkney.

The Scots saw before them the unhappy prospect of a disputed succession, war with England, and intestine discord. In order to avoid the miseries of a civil war, both parties made choice of Edward as umpire, and agreed to acquiesce in his decree. The chief competitors for the crown were Edward Bruce and

John Baliol, both descendants of David, Earl of Huntingdon, who was brother to the two kings, Malcolm and William. Edward advanced with a great army to the frontiers of Scotland, whither he invited the nobility and all the competitors to attend him. In the character of umpire, he arrogated to himself the feudal sovereignty of the kingdom, compelled all the barons to swear allegiance to him, and took possession of all the fortresses with his troops. One hundred and four commissioners being appointed to examine the several claims, gave their verdict in favor of Baliol, who was crowned accordingly in 1292.

But Baliol renouncing his allegiance soon after, the indignant Edward invaded Scotland with an immense army, and compelled this weak prince to submit and make a solemn and irrevocable resignation of his crown into the hands of the king of England. National animosities, and the insolence of victory, conspired to render the English government intolerable to the Scots, who bore with the utmost impatience a yoke, to which, from the earliest period of their monarchy, they had always been unaccustomed.

In 1296, Sir William Wallace, whose magnanimous soul could no longer brook to see his country torn by factions, deserted by its chiefs, and oppressed by foreigners, bravely stepped forth to reunite the friends of liberty under his banner. His enterprises added to the glory of his name, and to the number of his followers, till at length he obtained a numerous army. The Scots were forced to the cruel expedient of putting to the sword every Englishman they found in arms. King Edward, who was then in France, ordered the Earl of Surrey to suppress this daring insurrection; and Lord Henry Percy marched at the head of an army of forty thousand men against Wallace. The latter retreated northward, where he was joined by new adherents; and when Warrene advanced to Stirling, he found Wallace encamped in excellent order on the opposite bank of the Forth. A desperate engagement ensued, in which the English were utterly defeated and obliged to evacuate the kingdom. This success procured Wallace the title of guardian; but he still acknowledged the captive king, Baliol. The cause was ruined, however, by the jeal-

ousy of the nobles. The English monarch returned from France, and marched into Scotland at the head of seventy thousand men. Wallace now voluntarily resigned his authority, and retained only one corps that refused to fight under any other leader. The English army came up with the enemy near Falkirk, and defeated and dispersed the Scots with great slaughter. With much difficulty Edward completed the conquest of Scotland, without being able to seize or subdue the patriotic Wallace. Disappointed in all his schemes for that purpose, he did not disdain to stoop to treachery; and Sir William was basely betrayed by a traitor, and sent to London, where he was tried and barbarously put to death as a rebel in 1305.

Robert Bruce, the restorer of the Scottish throne, and father of a new race of kings, was the grandson of the competitor of Baliol for the crown. Having resolved to quit the court of Edward, to whom his father and grandfather had mealy sworn allegiance, he contrived to escape, and to join the Scotch patriots. After collecting what forces he could, in 1306 he attacked the English, who were unprepared, and having gained possession of several castles, he was solemnly crowned at Scone. King Edward immediately dispatched Aymer de Valence into Scotland, who, falling in with Bruce at Methven, attacked him, and notwithstanding a most vigorous resistance, totally defeated the Scottish army.

Bruce fled almost unattended to the Western Isles, where he wandered about for some time in distress; but Edward dying on his way to Scotland, Bruce was delivered from a powerful enemy, and his party daily increased. In 1314 he defeated Edward II. on the memorable field of Bannockburn, and the liberty of Scotland triumphed. It was not, however, till the deposition of Edward that Robert Bruce wrested from England a solemn renunciation of all claims on Scotland, and secured a peace by marrying his son David to Joan, sister of Edward III.

During the minority of David, Edward, son of John Baliol, being supported by the English, invaded Scotland in 1332, was proclaimed king, and, like his father, did homage as vassal of England. David, with his queen, found refuge in France; but Edward Baliol dismembering his kingdom in favor of

the English, lost the affections of his subjects. David returning from France, repulsed Baliol, and was himself taken prisoner near Durham. Baliol resigned his claims to Edward III., who, soon after, acknowledged David as king, and restored him to liberty on condition of his paying a great ransom.

David, leaving no progeny, was succeeded in 1371 by his nephew Robert II., the first king from the Stuart family. War with England was renewed, notwithstanding Robert's inclination for peace. The most memorable battle of this reign is that of Otterburn. The Scots had levied 30,000 men for the invasion of England. They divided their army into two parts; the greatest, commanded by the king's two sons, marched toward Carlisle; Douglas, with 300 horse and 2,000 foot, entered Northumberland. The great army carried all before them without opposition; and Douglas, having wasted the country as far as Durham, came before Newcastle, and threatened it with a siege. He staid before the town two days, which were spent in skirmishes; and at last the generals, Douglas and Percy, agreed upon a personal rencounter. Percy was dismounted and disarmed; but his men coming to his rescue, he was saved. Douglas now marched off with his men, and attacked Otterburn Castle. Percy, marching against him with 10,000 men, nearly surprised him at supper. The alarm being given, and the Scots advantageously posted, the battle began with great vigor. Douglas broke into the thick of the enemy, and made a terrible slaughter, but before his men came up, he had received three mortal wounds. The English at length were totally routed, 1,840 slain, 1,000 wounded, and 1,040 taken prisoners. The Scots carried off the Percies, with four hundred prisoners of note; dismissed the rest; took Douglas's corpse, with those of other great men, along with them, and buried them at Melrose. This victory was obtained July 31st, 1388, but Douglas was so deeply lamented, that both the Scots armies returned home as melancholy as if they had been conquered. On this battle the well known ballad of "Chevy Chase" is founded.

Robert II. died April 19th, 1390, in the nineteenth year of his reign. Robert III. refused to do homage for the crown to Henry

IV. He was the first who created dukes in Scotland; and his brother, the viceroy, was made Duke of Albany; but Douglas refused the new title. A war happened afterward with England, in which the Earl of March took part with the English, who invaded the kingdom and besieged Edinburgh castle; the English returning without having effected their purpose, the Scots invaded Northumberland, and were surprised and defeated on returning with their spoil; when Archibald Douglas gathered 10,000 men, but was defeated, taken prisoner, and many of the nobles slain, by Henry Percy of Northumberland, and George, Earl of March above-mentioned, May 7th, 1401.

In the mean time all things went to ruin in Scotland, by the tyranny of the Duke of Albany, who starved his nephew, Prince David, to death; so that the king was obliged to secure his youngest son, James, by sending him to France; but landing at Flamborough in Yorkshire, he was detained prisoner by the English, contrary to the truce, which so afflicted his father that he died Apr. 1st, 1406, and the government was settled upon his brother; during whose administration the English invaded Scotland, and overran the southern counties.

In 1419 auxiliaries were sent to France under the Earl of Buchan, who defeated the Duke of Clarence; for which the Earl of Buchan was made lord high constable of France. The Duke of Albany died in 1420, and his son Murdo succeeded him in the government; during whose regency more auxiliaries were sent to France, and Douglas was created Duke of Touraine in that kingdom; but they were twice defeated by the English, under John, Duke of Bedford, who carried James I. of Scotland with him, being still prisoner. James being prevailed upon to forbid his subjects to fight against that army where he was in person, they answered that they did not acknowledge him for their king while he was in the power of his enemy. But not long after, Murdo, the governor, being displeased with the insolence of his own sons, James I. was ransomed and brought home in 1423. After reigning thirteen years, he was barbarously assassinated. New broils attended the minority of James II., who was only seven years old at the time of his acces-

sion in 1437. At the age of fourteen the young king assumed the reins of government, but he was soon after killed by the bursting of a cannon at the siege of Roxburgh, 1460.

James III., after marrying Margaret of Denmark, gave himself up to astrology, and through jealousy made away with his own brother, the Earl of Mar, while the Duke of Albany, the other brother, escaped to France. Being invited to England, now again at war with her northern neighbor, the Duke of Albany took the title of Alexander, King of Scotland, by the gift of Edward, and marched to the borders. But a treaty being concluded, Albany returned to his allegiance and to his brother's favor. A fresh conspiracy being formed against James, the rebels prevailed on the king's son, the young Duke of Rothsay, to head their army. An engagement took place near Bannockburn, in which the rebels were successful, and the king, in his flight, was thrown from his horse, and carried to the first hovel, where he was stabbed to the heart by one of the insurgents.

James IV. succeeded his father in 1488. At the instigation of the French court, he rashly entered into a war against Henry VIII., brother of his queen, and, notwithstanding the advice of his best counselors, led an army into England, where, at the memorable battle of Flodden Field, he lost the flower of his nobility and his own life, 1513.

James V. being only two years old at the death of his father, his mother Margaret, sister to the King of England, was appointed regent and guardian by the will of her husband. The young king assumed the government at the age of thirteen, in 1513, with a council of eight; but he soon shook off the yoke of his council. Henry VIII. having proclaimed war against Scotland, an inroad was planned on the western borders; but James despising and distrusting his nobles, gave the command of the army to a man of less note. This insult provoked the troops, who refused to fight at the raid of Solway Moss, and ten thousand men laid down their arms before five hundred English, without striking a blow. These sad tidings broke the proud heart of James, who refused from that moment to take any sustenance, and, after languishing some days, he expired in the thirty-first year of his age.

Mary, Queen of Scots, was born a few days before the death of her father. The disasters of her reign began and ended only with her life. At an early age Mary was sent to France, where she was brought up at the court of Henry II., whose eldest son, Francis, was destined to be her husband. The minority of Mary Stuart was agitated by great disturbances; and the regency was claimed by different competitors as a privilege of blood or family appanage. The tempests excited by ambition and jealousy, were increased by the gusts of religious fanaticism. Popery struggled against the Reformation with an already evident disadvantage; and the vessel of state, buffeted by those storms, was every moment in imminent danger of sinking. At this critical situation of affairs, Mary returned to assume the sovereignty of her kingdom, the death of Francis II. having left her a widow at the age of eighteen years. By assuming the title of Queen of England, she excited the jealousy of Elizabeth, who never pardoned her cousin this assertion of her rights. The religious dissensions by which Scotland was divided, were effectually subservient to the views of Elizabeth, who gained the affections of the reformed party, and excited their suspicions against their sovereign, Mary being sprung from the blood of the Guises, and niece to the Cardinal de Lorraine, who was the scourge of the Protestants. To their religious and political opinions the young queen could not reconcile herself, and hence arose a decided aversion between the sovereign and her subjects. Her council induced her to remarry, and she gave her hand to her cousin Henry, Lord Darnley. This marriage displeased Elizabeth. Soon after Mary's marriage with Darnley, she became disgusted with his neglect and vices. Darnley, thinking this change of disposition was occasioned by a passion for some other man, suspected David Rizzio, her secretary, an Italian. He soon found a set of willing accomplices in the execution of vengeance against his wife; and, accordingly, one evening, while the queen was at supper with the Countess of Argyle, Rizzio, and others, the confederates entered by a private staircase into the queen's apartment, where they seized Rizzio, and after dragging him

into an adjoining room, dispatched him with fifty-six wounds.

Nothing could exceed the grief and indignation of Mary on this occasion. On the 19th of June, 1566, at Edinburgh Castle, she bore her only son, afterward James VI. of Scotland, and I. of England. At length, after a series of tragical disasters, Mary placed herself in the hands of Elizabeth, by whose order she was executed at Fotheringay Castle in 1587. [See STUART.]

When in 1567 Mary was deposed by the nobles, her infant son was crowned, and the Earl of Murray appointed regent. Upon the death of Elizabeth of England in 1603, the crown of that kingdom devolved upon James. Before he left Scotland to take possession of his new kingdom, he had with great zeal labored to civilize the northern and western Highlands. He was himself a scholar; and to his love of learning, the Scots are indebted for the parochial schools, which afford the common people so much advantage in point of education. He encouraged trade and the fisheries, and greatly promoted the industry of his subjects. By means of the king's accession to the English throne, the regal power in Scotland acquired additional strength; and James attempted to avail himself of this circumstance for the union of both the national churches and the kingdoms into one. After a reign and life of nearly fifty-nine years, James was seized with his last illness, which some affirm to have been caused by poison.

Charles I. entered Edinburgh with great magnificence, and was crowned at Holyrood Palace. By advice of Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury, and Spottiswood the historian, Archbishop of St. Andrews, Charles attempted to introduce a book of liturgy into the public worship of the Scottish churches. These measures excited the most general discontent, and produced the most violent commotion. A civil war at length became unavoidable; and the Covenanters prepared for it with vigor and resolution. They received arms, ammunition, and money, from France, and other countries; and no regularly established commonwealth could take wiser measures. Lesley, a soldier of experience and ability the Earl of Montrose, a youth of

heroic genius, with other leaders of the party, all of them men of sense and resolution, conducted the military affairs. After seizing and fortifying the most important places of strength in the kingdom, they invaded England, and compelled the royal forces to retreat to York.

At this period, the English rebels courted a closer union with their Scottish friends, and agreed to receive the solemn league and covenant, to preserve the reformed religion established in the church of Scotland, and to reform England and Ireland, according to the word of God, and the example of the purest churches. Accordingly a subsidiary army of 20,000 Scots hastened to join Lord Fairfax, and effectually assisted him in reducing the city of York. While the king's affairs declined in England, the brave Montrose had left the Scottish army, and raised the royal standard in the north. This active nobleman, having raised a supply of 1,200 troops from Ireland, hastened to take the command of this auxiliary force, and several more flocked to his standard. He attacked and defeated a party of the Covenanters, 6,000 in number, under Tullibardine; Perth opened its gates to the victor, and was laid under contribution. At Aberdeen, Montrose gained a second victory over the troops under Lord Burleigh, and laid waste the country of Argyre. Montrose gained in succession the victories of Auldearn, Alford, and Kilsyth, but his whole army was destroyed, at Philiphaugh, by the troops under Sir David Lesley, and he was never able afterward to bring a formidable force into the field, notwithstanding all the efforts he could make.

The fortunes of Charles being now ruined in England, he was reduced to the desperate expedient of seeking refuge in the heart of the Scotch army, though in open rebellion against him. The immediate consequences of this fatal step were orders to his adherents to lay down their arms. Montrose obeyed, and retired to France. The English parliament demanded of the Scottish army the person of the king; they preferred delivering him up rather than go to war in his defense. The kingdom was, however, divided into two parties, and the Duke of Hamilton and the majority in parliament, in opposition to the church, succeeded in raising a numerous

army to support the king against Cromwell and his adherents, who appeared to entertain designs totally hostile both to the king's person and government; with this army they set forward to invade England, and to restore the king to his ancient rights. But the violent party considered it the height of impiety to fight for an uncovenanted king.

The Scotch troops, not daring to unite themselves with the English royalists who had refused the covenant, both armies were easily destroyed by Cromwell, who, after exercising the severest vengeance against the friends of Charles in Scotland, returned in triumph to England, and brought Charles to public trial and execution. The Covenanters now declared for the young king, Charles II., then in Holland, on condition of his becoming the pupil of Presbyterianism, and taking the covenant. Montrose was dispatched to the Orkneys, to make an attempt for the king's restoration on better terms; but being attacked by a much superior force, he was defeated, and put to death in 1650.

Charles II. now sailed from Holland for the Scottish coast, and threw himself entirely into the hands of the Covenanters, who required him to sign the covenant, and exhorted him to be faithful to that holy confederacy. Cromwell marched into Scotland against the now royal Covenanters, whom he attacked, and defeated at Dunbar. Notwithstanding this defeat, the royalists in Scotland increased. Charles was crowned at Scone on the 1st of January, 1651; but he was obliged to take the covenant, and to undergo other mortifications. Cromwell, however, succeeded in an attempt to cut off the royalists from all their communications with the north and the Highlands; and when they invaded England, defeated them at Worcester. Charles escaped, and at last took shipping from the coast of Sussex, and arrived safe at Feschamp in Normandy. Cromwell conquered the land and added it to the English commonwealth.

After the restoration of Charles II. in 1660, the parliament was opened with unusual splendor at Edinburgh; and in the proceedings of this assembly, the royal prerogative was exalted to a pitch of despotism. Deprived at last of public worship, the persecuted Presbyterians rose in open rebellion.

On the Pentland Hills they were met by the king's forces, under Dalziel, and were routed with considerable slaughter, at the first onset. Commotions and insurrections multiplied during the whole reign of Charles II., who attempted, sometimes by gentle means, and sometimes by acts of severity, to crush Presbyterianism, and to induce the people to substitute another form of church government.

James VII. was not ignorant of the intrigues and ambition of his son-in-law, the Prince of Orange, with whom Monmouth, Argyle, Dalrymple, afterward Earl of Stair, Burnet, soon to be Bishop of Sarum, and other English and Scotch exiles, found refuge. The insurrections occasioned by Argyle and Monmouth widened the breach between the unfortunate monarch and his disaffected subjects. James proposed to his Scottish parliament a relaxation of the penal laws against the Roman Catholics; but the proposal was received with such coldness, that the chancellor thought it prudent to drop the bill entirely. However, the court issued declarations in favor of Presbyterians, of Quakers, of Roman Catholics, and at last "suspended all penal and sanguinary laws for nonconformity to the religion established by law." The Presbyterians of Edinburgh, and the ministers all over Scotland, gladly accepted of this toleration, and thanked the king for his protection.

In 1688 James fled; and his constrained flight was pronounced an abdication of the throne of Scotland. Indifferent as to the modes of religion, William of Orange treated with Presbyterians as well as Episcopalians. The throne was declared vacant by the convention; William accepted of the crown tendered to him by a deputation from the states, and, with his spouse, took a coronation oath. By a majority of the votes in parliament, William was reluctantly prevailed on to repeal the constitution of the lords of articles, to abandon the patronage and the supremacy over the church, and to re-establish Presbytery. William, after a fruitless attempt to gain the chieftains by pecuniary offers, issued a proclamation denouncing military execution against all who should not before the expiration of the year take an oath of fealty to him.

In 1702, the accession of Queen Anne gave new hopes to the Pretender, son of the

late king James, and his adherents. William had never dissolved the convention parliament. The members of this parliament assembled, and empowered the queen to nominate commissioners for treating of an union. The commissioners repaired to London, to treat with those appointed in England. At length, the whole of the articles of the union were completed and signed by all the Scottish commissioners excepting one, who was Lockhart of Carnwarth. Notwithstanding the strong opposition which this measure experienced, on Thursday the 16th of January, 1707, the whole articles of the union were, without any material alteration, approved by a legal majority in parliament; and the lord high commissioner, touching the act with the sceptre, sanctioned it with that consent of the crown which was requisite to give it in Scotland the force of a law. The treaty of union, thus finally ratified by the Scottish parliament, was immediately transmitted to London, where it was equally honored by the sanction of the parliament and the royal consent. On the 28th of April, the Scottish parliament was dissolved, never more to be assembled; and the Scots and English were henceforth to be one people.

The accession of the house of Hanover was resisted in Scotland in 1715 by the adherents of the exiled Stuarts, but unsuccessfully. Thirty years after, another insurrection was stirred up by the Jacobites, headed by Charles Edward, the young Pretender. For a brief time his arms were successful: then he sought safety in flight, and the attempt to regain the throne was never renewed. In consequence of these outbreaks, measures were taken by government to root out the system of clanship that had so long prevailed in the Highlands.

The annalists of Scotland, with a faith like that of the Welsh genealogists, trace a line of kings to remote ages before the Christian era. We commence our list where the accounts cease to be conflicting.

KINGS OF SCOTLAND.

- 1033. Duncan I: assassinated by his kinsman Macbeth.
- 1039. Macbeth, usurps the throne: slain by Maeduff, Thane of Fife, and the rightful heir succeeds.
- 1057. Malcolm III. (Cean-Mohr or Canmore), son of Duncan: killed while besieging Alnwick Castle.

1093. Donald VII., or Donald Bane, brother of Malcolm.
 1094. Duncan II., natural son of Malcolm.
 1094. Donald Bane again.
 1098. Edgar, son of Malcolm. Henry I. of England married his sister Maud.
 1107. Alexander, the Fierce, brother of Edgar.
 1124. David, brother of Edgar and Alexander.
 1153. Malcolm IV., the Maiden, David's grandson.
 1165. William, the Lion, brother of Malcolm.
 1214. Alexander II., son of William.
 1249. Alexander III.
 1285. Margaret, the Maiden of Norway, granddaughter of Alexander III.; "recognized by the states of Scotland, though a female, an infant, and a foreigner;" died on her passage to Scotland. A competition for the throne arose, which Edward I. of England decided in favor of.
 1292. John Baliol: he surrendered the crown and died in exile.
 1306. Robert I. (the brave Robert Bruce.)
 1329. David II., son of Robert.
 1332. Edward Baliol, son of John: resigned.
 1342. David II. again: eleven years a prisoner in England.
 1371. Robert (Stuart) II., nephew of David II.
 1390. Robert III., son of Robert II.: his proper name was John; he assumed that of Robert upon his accession.
 1406. James I., second son of Robert III.: eighteen years a captive in England.
 1437. James II., his son.
 1460. James III., his son.
 1488. James IV., married Margaret Tudor, daughter of Henry VII. of England.
 1513. James V., their son.
 1542. Mary, his daughter.
 1567. James VI., her son. In 1603 he succeeded to the English crown as James I.

SCOTT, THOMAS, a celebrated English commentator on the Bible, died 1821.

SCOTT, SIR WALTER, baronet, the eldest son of Walter Scott, a writer to the signet, was born in the city of Edinburgh, Scotland, Aug. 15th, 1771. His mother was a lady of talent, the friend of Burns and Ramsay, and the author of meritorious verses. Sir Walter was educated at the high school of Edinburgh, and at the university. At an early age, he was celebrated as a story-teller, "when the applause of his companions was his recompense for the disgrace and punishments which the future romance-writer incurred by being idle himself, and keeping others idle, during hours that should have been employed on their tasks."

Sir Walter Scott's account of his birth and circumstances is characterized by his usual modesty.

"My birth, without giving the least pretension to distinction, was that of a gentleman, and connected me with several respectable families and accomplished persons. My education had been a good one, although I was deprived of its full benefit by indifferent health, just at the period when I ought to have been most sedulous in improving it. The young men with whom I was brought up, and lived most familiarly, were those who, from opportunities, birth, and talents, might be expected to make the greatest advances in the profession to which we were all destined; and I have the pleasure still to preserve my youthful intimacy with no inconsiderable number of them, whom their merit has carried forward to the highest honors of their profession. Neither was I in a situation to be embarrassed by the *res angusta domi*, which might have otherwise interrupted my progress in a profession in which progress is proverbially slow. I enjoyed a moderate degree of business for my standing, and the friendship of more than one person of consideration efficiently disposed to aid my views in life. The private fortune, also, which I might expect, and finally inherited, from my family, did not, indeed, amount to affluence, but placed me considerably beyond all apprehension of want. I mention these particulars merely because they are true. Many better men than myself have owed their rise from indigence and obscurity, to their own talents, which were, doubtless, much more adequate to the task of raising them than any which I possess. Although it would be absurd and ungracious in me to deny that I owe to literature many marks of distinction to which I could not otherwise have aspired, and particularly that of securing the acquaintance, and even the friendship, of many remarkable persons of the age, to whom I might not otherwise have made my way; it would, on the other hand, be ridiculous to affect gratitude to the public favor, either for my position in society, or the means of supporting it with decency—matters which had been otherwise secured under the usual chances of human affairs. Thus much I have thought it necessary to say, upon a subject which is, after all, of very little consequence to any one but myself."

SCO

In 1792 he was called to the bar. Of his success in his profession, and the nature of his studies and pursuits, we will give his own account.

"It may be readily supposed that the attempts which I made in literature had been unfavorable to my success at the bar. The goddess Themis is, at Edinburgh, and I suppose everywhere else, of a peculiarly jealous disposition. She will not readily consent to share her authority, and sternly demands from her votaries not only that real duty be carefully attended to and discharged, but that a certain air of business shall be observed even in the midst of total idleness. It is prudent, if not absolutely necessary, in a young barrister, to appear completely engrossed by his profession; however destitute of employment he may be, he ought to preserve, if possible, the appearance of full occupation. He should at least seem perpetually engaged among his law papers, dusting them, as it were; and, as Ovid advises the fair,—

Si nullus erit pulvis, tamen excute nullum.

Perhaps such extremity of attention is more especially required, considering the great number of counselors who are called to the bar, and how very small a proportion of them are finally disposed, or find encouragement, to follow the law as a profession. Hence the number of deserters is so great, that the least lingering look behind occasions a young novice to be set down as one of the intending fugitives. Certain it is, that the Scottish Themis was at this time peculiarly jealous of any flirtation with the Muses, on the part of those who had ranged themselves under her banners. This was probably owing to her consciousness of the superior attractions of her rivals. Of late, however, she has relaxed in some instances in this particular; an eminent example of which has been shown in the case of my friend, Mr. Jeffrey, who, after long conducting one of the most influential literary periodicals of the age, with unquestionable ability, has been, by the general consent of his brethren, recently elected to be their dean of faculty, or president, being the highest acknowledgment of his professional talents which they had it in their power to offer. But this is an incident much beyond the ideas of a period of thirty years' distance, when a barrister who really

possessed any turn for lighter literature, was at as much pains to conceal it, as if it had in reality been something to be ashamed of; and I could mention one instance in which literature and society have suffered loss, that jurisprudence might be enriched. Such, however, was not my case; for the reader will not wonder that my open interference with matters of light literature diminished my employment in the weightier matters of the law. Nor did the solicitors, upon whose choice the counsel takes rank in his profession, do me less than justice by regarding others among my contemporaries as fitter to discharge the duty due to their clients, than a young man who was taken up with running after ballads, whether Teutonic or national. My profession and I, therefore, came to stand nearly upon the footing on which honest Slender consoled himself with having established with Mistress Anne Page: 'There was no great love in the beginning, and it pleased Heaven to decrease it on farther acquaintance.' I became sensible that the time was come when I must either buckle myself resolutely to the 'toil by day, the lamp by night,' renouncing all the Delilahs of my imagination, or bid adieu to the profession of the law, and hold another course. I confess my own inclination revolted from the more severe choice which might have been deemed by many the wiser alternative. As my transgressions had been numerous, my repentance must have been signalized by unusual sacrifices. I ought to have mentioned, that, since my fourteenth or fifteenth year, my health, originally delicate, had become extremely robust. From infancy I had labored under the infirmity of a severe lameness, but, as I believe is usually the case with men of spirit who suffer under personal inconveniences of this nature, I had, since the improvement of my health, in defiance of this incapacitating circumstance, distinguished myself by the endurance of toil on foot or horseback, having often walked thirty miles a day, and rode upward of a hundred, without stopping. In this manner I made many pleasant journeys through parts of the country then not very accessible, gaining more amusement and instruction than I have been able to acquire since I have traveled in a more commodious manner. I practiced most sylvan sports, also, with some success, and with

great delight. But these pleasures must have been all resigned, or used with great moderation, had I determined to regain my station at the bar. It was even doubtful whether I could, with perfect character as a juriconsult, retain a situation in a volunteer corps of cavalry, which I then held. The threats of invasion were at this time instant and menacing; the call by Britain on her children was universal, and was answered by many, who, like myself, consulted rather their will than their ability to bear arms. My services, however, were found useful in assisting to maintain the discipline of the corps, being the point on which their constitution rendered them most amenable to military criticism. In other respects the squadron was a fine one, consisting of handsome men, well mounted and armed at their own expense. My attention to the corps took up a great deal of time; and while it occupied many of the happiest hours of my life, it furnished an additional reason for my reluctance again to encounter the severe course of study indispensable to success in the judicial profession.

"On the other hand, my father, whose feelings might have been hurt by my quitting the bar, had been for two or three years dead; so that I had no control to thwart my own inclination; and my income being equal to all the comforts, and some of the elegancies, of life, I was not pressed to an irksome labor by necessity, that most powerful of motives; consequently, I was the more easily seduced to choose the employment which was the most agreeable. This was yet the easier, as in 1800 I had obtained the preferment of sheriff of Selkirkshire, about £300 a year in value, and which was the more agreeable to me, as in that county I had several friends and relations. But I did not abandon the profession to which I had been educated, without certain prudential resolutions, which at the risk of some egotism, I will here mention; not without the hope that they may be useful to young persons who may stand in circumstances similar to those in which I then stood. In the first place, upon considering the lives and fortunes of persons who had given themselves up to literature, or to the task of pleasing the public, it seemed to me that the circumstances which chiefly affected their happiness and character were

those from which Horace has bestowed upon authors the epithet of the irritable race. It requires no depth of philosophic reflection to perceive that the petty warfare of Pope with the dunces of his period, could not have been carried on without his suffering the most acute torture, such as a man must endure from mosquitoes, by whose stings he suffers agony, although he can crush them in his grasp by myriads. Nor is it necessary to call to memory the many humiliating instances in which men of the greatest genius have, to avenge some pitiful quarrel, made themselves ridiculous during their lives, to become the still more degraded objects of pity to future times. Upon the whole, as I had no pretension to the genius of the distinguished persons who had fallen into such errors, I concluded there could be no occasion for imitating them in these mistakes, or what I considered as such; and, in adopting literary pursuits as the principal occupation of my future life, I resolved, if possible, to avoid those weaknesses of temper which seemed to have most easily beset my more celebrated predecessors. With this view, it was my first resolution to keep, as far as was in my power, abreast of society; continuing to maintain my place in general company, without yielding to the very natural temptation of narrowing myself to what is called literary society. By doing so, I imagined I should escape the besetting sin of listening to language which, from one motive or other, ascribes a very undue degree of consequence to literary pursuits; as if they were, indeed, the business, rather than the amusement, of life. The opposite course can only be compared to the injudicious conduct of one who pampers himself with cordial and luscious draughts, until he is unable to endure wholesome bitters. Like Gil Blas, therefore, I resolved to stick by the society of my *commis*, instead of seeking that of a more literary cast; and to maintain my general interest in what was going on around me, reserving the man of letters for the desk and the library. My second resolution was a corollary from the first. I determined that, without shutting my ears to the voice of true criticism, I would pay no regard to that which assumes the form of satire. I therefore resolved to arm myself with the triple brass of Horace,

against all the roving warfare of satire, parody, and sarcasm; to laugh if the jest was a good one; or, if otherwise, to let it hum and buzz itself to sleep. It is to the observance of these rules (according to my best belief), that, after a life of thirty years engaged in literary labors of various kinds, I attribute my never having been entangled in any literary quarrel or controversy; and, which is a more pleasing result, that I have been distinguished by the personal friendship of my most approved contemporaries of all parties. I adopted, at the same time, another resolution, on which it may doubtless be remarked that it was well for me that I had it in my power to do so, and that, therefore, it is a line of conduct which can be less generally applicable in other cases. Yet I fail not to record this part of my plan, convinced that, though it may not be in every one's power to adopt exactly the same resolution, he may nevertheless, by his own exertions, in some shape or other, attain the object on which it was founded; namely, to secure the means of subsistence, without relying exclusively on literary talents. In this respect, I determined that literature should be my staff, but not my crutch; and that the profits of my labor, however convenient otherwise, should not become necessary to my ordinary expenses. With this purpose I resolved, if the interest of my friends could so far favor me, to retire upon any of the respectable offices of the law, in which persons of that profession are glad to take refuge when they feel themselves, or are judged by others, incompetent to aspire to its higher offices and honors. Upon such an office an author might hope to retreat, without any perceptible alteration of circumstances, whenever the time should arrive that the public grew weary of his endeavors to please, or he himself should tire of the occupation of authorship. At this period of my life, I possessed so many friends capable of assisting me in this object of ambition, that I could hardly overrate my own prospects of obtaining the moderate preferment to which I limited my wishes; and, in fact, I obtained, in no long period, the reversion of a situation which completely met them."

The situation was soon open, and in 1806 he was appointed a clerk of the session in

Scotland. His first original productions were several ballads of great merit. Sir Walter thus notices the circumstances which engaged him in literary pursuits.

"During the last ten years of the eighteenth century, the art of poetry was at a remarkably low ebb in Britain. Hayley, to whom fashion had some years before ascribed a higher degree of reputation than posterity has confirmed, had now lost his reputation for talent, though he still lived admired and respected as an amiable and accomplished man. The Bard of Memory slumbered on his laurels, and he of Hope had scarce begun to attract his share of public attention. Cowper, a poet of deep feeling and bright genius, was dead; and even while alive, the hypochondria which was his mental malady impeded his popularity. Burns, whose genius our southern neighbors could hardly yet comprehend, had long confined himself to song-writing. Names which are now known and distinguished wherever the English language is spoken, were then only beginning to be mentioned; and, unless among the small number of persons who habitually devote a part of their leisure to literature, those of Southey, Wordsworth, and Coleridge were but little known. The realms of Parnassus, like many a kingdom at the period, seemed to lie open to the first bold invader, whether he should be a daring usurper, or could show a legitimate title of sovereignty.

"I had, indeed, tried the metrical translations which were occasionally recommended to us at the high school. I got credit for attempting to do what was enjoined, but very little for the mode in which the task was performed; and I used to feel not a little mortified when my versions were placed in contrast with others of admitted merit. At one period of my schoolboy days I was so far left to my own desires as to become guilty of verses on a thunder-storm, which were much approved of, until a malevolent critic sprung up, in the shape of an apothecary's blue-buskined wife, who affirmed that my most sweet poetry was stolen from an old magazine. I never forgave the imputation, and even now I acknowledge some resentment against the poor woman's memory. She indeed accused me unjustly, when she said I had stolen my brooms ready made; but as I

had, like most premature poets, copied all the words and ideas of which my verses consisted, she was so far right, that there was not an original word or thought in the whole six lines. I made one or two faint attempts at verse, after I had undergone this sort of daw-plucking at the hands of the apothecary's wife; but some friend or other always advised me to put my verses in the fire, and like Dorax in the play, I submitted, though 'with a swelling heart.' In short, excepting the usual tribute to a mistress's eyebrow, which is the language of passion rather than poetry, I had not for ten years indulged the wish to couple so much as *love* and *dove*, when, finding Lewis in possession of so much reputation, and conceiving that, if I fell behind him in poetical powers, I considerably exceeded him in general information, I suddenly took it into my head to attempt the style by which he had raised himself to fame."

Scott had married Miss Carpentier, on the Christmas eve of 1796, and now resided at Ashestiel, a delightful retirement, in an uncommonly beautiful situation by the side of the Tweed, whose waters were favorable for angling, and surrounded by hills abounding in game. His "*Lay of the Last Minstrel*," and "*Marmion*," poems of great originality and beauty, were produced in 1805 and 1808, and received at once into favor. The "*Lady of the Lake*" was published in 1810. Speaking of this poem, the author remarks: "I remember that about the same time a friend started in to 'heeze up my hope,' like the minstrel in the old song. He was bred a farmer, but a man of powerful understanding, natural good taste, and warm poetical feeling, perfectly competent to supply the wants of an imperfect or irregular education. He was a passionate admirer of field sports, which we often pursued together. As this friend happened to dine with me at Ashestiel one day, I took the opportunity of reading to him the first canto of the "*Lady of the Lake*," in order to ascertain the effect the poem was likely to produce upon a person who was but too favorable a representative of readers at large. It is, of course, to be supposed that I determined rather to guide my opinion by what my friend might appear to feel, than by what he might think fit to say. His reception of my recitation, or prelection, was rather sin-

gular. He placed his hand across his brow, and listened with great attention through the whole account of the stag hunt, till the dogs threw themselves into the lake to follow their master, who embarks with Ellen Douglas. He then started up with a sudden exclamation, struck his hand on the table, and declared in a voice of censure calculated for the occasion, that the dogs must have been totally ruined by being permitted to take the water after such a severe chase. I own I was much encouraged by the species of reverie which had possessed so zealous a follower of the sports as this ancient Nimrod, who had been completely surprised out of all doubts of the reality of the tale."

The "*Lady of the Lake*" was followed by "*The Vision of Don Roderick*," "*Rokeby*," "*The Lord of the Isles*," "*Harold the Dauntless*," and "*The Bridal of Triermain*."

"The '*Lady of the Lake*,' says Scott, "brought out on the usual terms of division of profits between the author and publishers, was not long after purchased by them for £500, to which Messrs. Longman & Co. afterward added £100 in their own unsolicited kindness, in consequence of the uncommon success of the work. It was handsomely given to supply the loss of a fine horse, which broke down suddenly while the author was riding with one of the worthy publishers."

"The publishers of the '*Lay of the Last Minstrel*,' emboldened by the success of that poem, willingly offered a thousand pounds for '*Marmion*.' The transaction being no secret, afforded Lord Byron, who was then at general war with all who blacked paper, an opportunity to include me in his satire entitled '*English Bards and Scotch Reviewers*.' I never could conceive how an arrangement between an author and his publishers, if satisfactory to the persons concerned, could afford matter of censure to any third party. I had taken no unusual or ungenerous means of enhancing the value of my merchandise. I had never higgled a moment about the bargain, but accepted at once what I considered the handsome offer of my publishers. These gentlemen, at least, were not of opinion that they had been taken advantage of in the transaction, which indeed was one of their own framing; on the contrary, the sale of the poem was so far beyond their expectation, as

to induce them to supply the author's cellar with what is always an acceptable present to a young Scottish housekeeper, namely, a hogshhead of excellent claret." Scott and Byron afterward were made acquainted with each other, and became good friends.

We must extract the account of his own change from poetry to prose. He is speaking of "Rokeby."

"The cause of my failure, had, however, a far deeper root. The manner, or style, which, by its novelty, attracted the public in an unusual degree, had now, after having been three times before them, exhausted the patience of the reader, and began in the fourth to lose its charms. The reviewers may be said to have apostrophized the author in the language of Parnell's Edwin :—

'And here reverse the charm, he cried,
'And let it fairly now suffice;
The gambol has been shown.'

The licentious combination of rhymes, in a manner not perhaps very congenial to our language, had not been confined to the author. Indeed, in most similar cases, the inventors of such novelties have their reputation destroyed by their own imitators, as Actæon fell under his own dogs. The present author, like Bobadil, had taught his trick of fence to a hundred gentlemen (and ladies), who could fence very nearly, or quite, as well as himself. For this there was no remedy; the harmony became tiresome and ordinary, and both the original inventor and his invention must have fallen into contempt, if he had not found out another road to public favor. What has been said of the metre only, must be considered to apply equally to the structure of the poem and of the style. The very best passages of any popular style are not, perhaps, susceptible of any imitation, but they may be approached by men of talent: and those who are less able to copy them, at least lay hold of their peculiar features, so as to produce a burlesque instead of a serious copy. In either way, the effect of it is rendered cheap and common, and in the latter case ridiculous, to boot. The evil consequences to an author's reputation are at least as fatal as those which befall a composer, when his melody falls into the hands of the street ballad-singer. Of the unfavorable specimens of imitation, the author's style gave room to a

very large number, owing to an appearance of facility on which some of those who used the measure unquestionably leaned too far."

"The effect of the more favorable imitations, composed by persons of talent, was almost equally unfortunate to the original minstrel, by showing that they could overshoot him with his own bow. In short the popularity which once attended the *school*, as it was called, was now fast decaying. Besides all this, to have kept his ground at the crisis when 'Rokeby' appeared, its author ought to have put forth his utmost strength, and to have possessed at least all his original advantages, for a mighty and unexpected rival was advancing on the stage,—a rival not in poetical powers only, but in that of attracting popularity, in which the present writer had preceded better men than himself. The reader will easily see that Byron is here meant, who after a little velitation of no great promise, now appeared as a serious candidate in the first canto of 'Childe Harold.' I was astonished at the power evinced by that work, which neither the 'Hours of Idleness,' nor the 'English Bards and Scotch Reviewers,' had prepared me to expect from its author. There was a depth in his thought, an eager abundance in his diction, which argued full confidence in the inexhaustible resources of which he felt himself possessed; and there was some appearance of that labor of the file, which indicates that the author is conscious of the necessity of doing every justice to his work, that it may pass warrant. Lord Byron was also a traveler, a man whose ideas were fired by having seen, in distant scenes of difficulty and danger, the places whose very names are recorded in our bosoms as the shrines of ancient poetry. For his own misfortune, perhaps, but certainly to the high increase of his poetical character, nature had mixed in Lord Byron's system those passions which agitate the human heart with most violence, and which may be said to have hurried his bright career to an early close. There would have been but little wisdom in measuring my force with so formidable an antagonist; and I was as likely to tire of playing the second fiddle in the concert, as my audience of hearing me. Age also was advancing. I was growing insensible to those subjects of excitation of which youth is agitated. I had

around me the most pleasant but least exciting of all society, that of kind friends and an affectionate family. My circle of employments was a narrow one; it occupied me constantly, and it became daily more difficult for me to interest myself in poetical composition:—

‘How happily the days of Thalaba went by!’ Yet, though conscious that I must be, in the opinion of good judges, inferior to the place I had for four or five years held in letters, and feeling alike that the latter was one to which I had only a temporary right, I could not brook the idea of relinquishing literary occupation, which had been so long my chief employment. Neither was I disposed to choose the alternative of sinking into a mere editor and commentator, though that was a species of labor which I had practiced, and to which I was attached. But I could not endure to think that I might not, whether known or concealed, do something of more importance. My inmost thoughts were those of the Trojan captain in the galley race:—

“Non jam prima peto Mnestheus, neque vincere certo:

Quanquam O,—Sed superent, quibus hoc, Neptune, dedisti:

Extremos pudeat rediisse: hoc vincite, cives,
Et prohibete nefas.”

“Waverley, or 'Tis Sixty Years Since,” a novel published in 1814, established the reputation of the author, and was followed in rapid succession by many others. The authorship was first acknowledged by Sir Walter Scott, at a public dinner in 1827. These Waverley novels exhibit a profound knowledge of human nature, an intimate acquaintance with history, national traditions, and manners, and a most surprising versatility. *Ivanhoe*, which appeared in 1820, is the most brilliant of the pure romances. Never were the long-gathered stores of most extensive erudition applied to the purposes of imaginative genius with so much easy, lavish, and luxurious power; never was the illusion of fancy so complete,—made up of so many minute elements, and yet producing such entireness of effect. It is as if the veil of ages had been, in truth, swept back, and we ourselves had been, for a time, living, breathing, and moving in the days of *Cœur de Lion*,—days how different from our own! the hot, tempestuous, chivalrous, passionate, fierce

youth of Christendom. Every line in the picture is true to the life; everything in the words, in the gesture—everything in the very faces of the personages called up before us, speaks of times of energetic volition,—uncontrolled action,—disturbance,—tumult,—the storms and whirlwinds of restless souls and ungoverned passions. It seems as if the atmosphere around them was all alive with the breath of trumpets, and the neighing of chargers, and the echo of war-cries. And yet, with a true and beautiful skillfulness, the author has rested the main interest of his story, not upon these fiery externals, in themselves so full of attraction, and every way so characteristic of the age to which the story refers, but on the workings of that most poetical of passions, which is ever deepest where it is most calm, quiet, and delicate, and which, less than any other, is changed, even in its modes of manifestation, in conformity with the changes of time, manners, and circumstances. For the true interest of this romance of the days of Richard is placed neither in Richard himself; nor in the knight of *Ivanhoe*, the nominal hero; nor in any of the haughty Templars or barons who occupy along with them, the front of the scene; but in the still, devoted, sad, and unrequited tenderness of a Jewish damsel, by far the most fine, and at the same time most romantic, creation of female character the author has ever formed, and second, we suspect, to none that is to be found in the whole annals of poetry and romance.

Rebecca was Scott's favorite among all the heroines whose charms and virtues he portrayed.

Besides writing his novels, Sir Walter Scott edited various works, and produced some volumes of history, and a life of Napoleon Bonaparte, to which, however, his party prejudices and hurried composition prevented him from doing justice.

He also contributed largely to the *Quarterly* and other reviews. The quantity of intellectual labor which he found time for, with all the demands upon his leisure that arose from his popularity and hospitality, is a wonder of wonders.

On the banks of the Tweed, near Melrose, he purchased farm after farm, and formed the estate of Abbotsford. Here he erected a

baronial mansion, that 'romance of stone and mortar,' and his territorial ambition, so long cherished, was now gratified. George IV. gave him a baronetcy, also. A few years of happiness, and then the splendid hospitalities of Abbotsford were darkened by a heavy cloud. By the failures of Constable, and James Ballantyne & Co., in which house their master was a secret partner, he found himself in 1826, involved to the amount of £117,000. Refusing all offers of composition, and asking only for time, he bent himself at once to the task of redemption. It is one of the noblest passages in the history of our English literature. In four years he had paid his creditors £70,000. His health and strength sank under the weight he bore, and severe attacks of paralysis warned him that he must needs desist. In vain he sailed to the Mediterranean: he returned to Abbotsford a hopeless and unconscious wreck. The end was near. "About half past one P. M., on the 21st of September, 1832, Sir Walter breathed his last in the presence of all his children. It was a beautiful day, so warm that every window was wide open,—and so perfectly still that the sound of all others most delicious to his ear, the gentle ripple of the Tweed over its pebbles, was distinctly audible as we knelt around the bed, and his eldest son kissed and closed his eyes."—*Lockhart*.

Sir Walter Scott was beloved by all who knew him, for, in private life, he had none of that affectation of eccentricity and haughtiness, which disfigures so many men of genius. He was ever a welcome visitor in the dwellings of the poor and old, and in many of his lonely wanderings acquired that traditional information which he reproduced in his immortal works.

Hogg, the poet, the friend of Scott, says of him, illustrative of his benevolence. "Although so shy of his name and literary assistance, which, indeed, he would not grant to any one, on any account, save to Lockheart, yet to poor men of literary merit his purse-strings were always open, and as far as it was in his power to assist them. I actually knew several unsuccessful authors who depended on his bounty for their daily bread. As a friend, he was sometimes stern, but always candid and sincere, and I always found his

counsels of the highest value, if I could have followed them."

SCOTT, WINFIELD, was born at Petersburg, Va., June 13th, 1786, and left an orphan in early boyhood. Graduating at William and Mary College, he studied law, and though admitted to the bar, soon after (1808) entered the army as Captain of Artillery. In the war of 1812 he held the rank of Colonel, and in 1814 was made Brigadier General. He wrought wonders in training and instructing his troops, so that they won the battles of Chippewa and Lundy's Lane within one month. For his services he was promoted to the Major Generalship, and was offered a seat in the Cabinet as Secretary of War, which he declined. He displayed extraordinary executive and military ability, at the time of the nullification movement in South Carolina, the troubles with the Seminole and Cherokee Indians, and along the Canada border in the Canadian rebellion of 1837. In 1841 he was advanced to the highest rank in the army. In the war with Mexico he won new laurels. The battles of Vera Cruz, Cerro Gordo, Cherubusco, Chapultepec, and the capture of the City of Mexico, which he entered at the head of his army, were the brilliant and decisive victories of that campaign. In 1852 he was the Whig candidate for the Presidency, but was defeated by Gen. Pierce. He however received a more appropriate honor for his distinguished services, in being elevated to the brevet rank of Lieutenant General, which was revived in his behalf. In November, 1861, at the age of 74, he retired from active service. He resisted the strongest temptations of his native South to lead the forces of treason, and closed up a most honorable record of private virtue, steadfast patriotism and military renown, May 29, 1866, at the age of seventy-nine. General Scott will live in the memory of the American people as one of the great men of her history, and who more than any other has contributed to her military glory for the last half century.

SCYLLA AND CHARYBDIS. The poetical genius of Homer has given a degree of importance to the rocks of Scylla, and the whirlpool of Charybdis, which they do not in reality merit; yet no doubt they were, in the infancy of navigation, when the barks

were small and frail, and the mariners unskillful, formidable and dangerous obstacles to the passage of the strait of Messina. Scylla, said in the heathen mythology to have been a beautiful nymph, transformed into a sea-monster by the jealousy of Circe, is, in reality, merely a common rock, on the coast of Italy, and opposite that of Sicily. On its summit is a castle, and on each side a sandy bay. In 1793 an earthquake is said to have destroyed some of the surrounding rocks, and thus lessened the danger, and prevented that extraordinary roaring of the sea in stormy weather, which is said to have resembled the barking of dogs, but is not now observed. Charybdis is a vortex or whirlpool, on the coast of Sicily, opposite to Scylla, and now denominated Galofaro. It is by no means so formidable as represented by the ancients. It is probably caused by the meeting of several currents, and is sometimes so powerful as to place the undecked boats of the country in considerable peril.

SCYTHIA was a name anciently given to that portion of Europe lying between the Carpathian mountains and the river Don. The Scythians were of Asiatic origin. Herodotus mentions only two important facts in the history of Scythia: the invasion of Media by the Scythians in the reign of Cyaxares, (b.c. 635-595), and their conquest of Asia to the confines of Egypt, which they held for twenty-eight years; and the invasion of Scythia by Darius, the son of Hystaspes, in which the Persians were unsuccessful. In subsequent times the Scythians lost all their power, and their country came to be known as Sarmatia. In the time of Pliny they had become extinct as a people; their place was occupied by the Germans and Sarmatians; and the Scythian name was confined to the most remote and unknown tribes in the north. The name of Scythia was also applied to the northern parts of Asia.

SEABURY, SAMUEL, the first Episcopal bishop in the United States, was born in Connecticut, 1728. He was consecrated Bishop of Connecticut, in Scotland, in 1784, and died Feb. 25th, 1796.

SEBASTIAN, Dom, King of Portugal, was born in 1554. He succeeded his grandfather, John III., and was a man of great zeal for religion, and of an extraordinary courage.

Against the remonstrances of his sagest counselors, he formed, soon after his accession, the design of making an expedition into Africa against the Moors. Taking with him the principal nobility and gentry of Portugal, he landed at Tangier on the 9th of July, 1578, and gave battle to Abdemelech at Alcazar, the 4th of August the same year, where his army was defeated. Abdemelech, who was sick, died in a litter, Mahomet perished in a bog, and the report was that Sebastian himself was killed. Notwithstanding this, in 1598, a man in Venice declared himself to be King Sebastian; he resembled him so exactly in face, stature, and voice, that the Portuguese that were in that city, and amongst them one of his servants, owned him for their king. Some days after he was seized, and conveyed before judges, before whom he always maintained himself to be Sebastian; he told them that the Moors who took him prisoner did not know him to be the king; that the sorrow and repentance which seized him for having so rashly undertaken that expedition, had nearly caused his death; and that now after having suffered in a strange country, he came to redemand the crown. He showed upon his body the same marks which several had seen formerly on the body of the King of Portugal, and discovered to the Venetians some secrets they had formerly proposed to him by their ambassadors, to prove he was Sebastian. The Spaniards, who had upon the report of his death invaded the crown of Portugal, treated him as a madman and impostor, and obliged the Venetians to expel him from their dominions; he was seized again in Tuscany, and brought to Naples, where they set him upon an ass, and led him through all the streets of the city, exposing him to the abuses of the rabble. Some time after they shaved his head, and placed him to row like a slave in a galley; and afterward being brought to Spain, he died in a prison.

SEBASTIANI, FRANCIS HORACE DE, a French marshal, distinguished during the republic, the empire, and the monarchy, born in 1772, died in 1851.

SEBASTOPOL, or SEVASTOPOL, a town and naval arsenal, at the south-west point of the Crimea, formerly the little village of Aktiar. The buildings were commenced in 1784, by

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Catherine II., after the conquest of the country. The allied English and French army took up its position on the plateau between this place and Balaklava, and the grand attack and bombardment commenced Oct. 17th, 1854, without success. The defense was vigorous and skillful, and as the allies only attacked the south side, the Russians were often re-enforced. The attacking armies, especially the English, suffered dreadfully from disease and privation during the winter. There were many sanguinary encounters, by day and by night, and repeated bombardments. The battles of Balaklava, Inkermann, and the Tchernaya [*which see*], were bloody episodes in the siege. The Malakhoff was attacked on the 17th and 18th of June, 1855, and after a conflict of eight and forty hours the French and English were repulsed with severe loss; that of the English being 175 killed and 1,126 wounded; that of the French, 3,338 killed and wounded. A grand assault was made Sept. 8th, 1855, upon the Malakhoff and the Redans. The French succeeded in capturing and retaining the Malakhoff. The attacks of the English on the great Redan and of the French upon the little Redan were at first successful, but the assailants were compelled to retire, after a desperate struggle, with great loss of life. The French lost 1,646 killed, of whom five were generals, 4,500 wounded, and 1,400 missing. The English lost 385 killed, 1,886 wounded, and 176 missing. In the night the Russians abandoned the southern and principal part of the town and fortifications, after destroying as much as possible, and crossed to the northern forts. They also sunk or burnt the remainder of their fleet. The allies found a very great amount of stores when they entered the place.

SECKER, THOMAS, Archbishop of Canterbury, born in 1693, died in 1768.

SEJANUS, the favorite of Tiberius, a native of Vulturnum in Tuscany, who distinguished himself in the court of Tiberius. His father's name was Servius Strabo, a Roman knight, commander of the prætorian guards. His mother was descended from the Junian family. Sejanus first gained the favor of Caius Cæsar, the grandson of Augustus, but afterward he attached himself to the interest and views of Tiberius, who then sat on the imperial throne. The emperor,

who was naturally of a suspicious temper, was free and open with Sejanus, and while he trusted others, he communicated his greatest secrets to this fawning favorite.

As commander of the prætorian guards, he was the second man in Rome, and in that important office he made use of insinuation and every mean artifice to make himself beloved and revered. His affability and condescension gained him the hearts of the common soldiers, and by appointing his own favorites and adherents to places of trust and honor, all the officers and centurions of the army became devoted to his interest. The views of Sejanus in this were well known; yet to advance them with more success, he attempted to gain the affections of the senators. In this he met with no opposition.

A man who has the disposal of places of honor and dignity, and who has the command of the public money, can not but be the favorite of those who are in need of his assistance. It is even said that Sejanus gained to his views all the wives of the senators, by a private and most secret promise of marriage to each of them, whenever he had made himself independent and sovereign of Rome. Yet, however successful with the best and noblest families in the empire, Sejanus had to combat numbers in the house of the emperor; but these seeming obstacles were soon removed.

All the children and grandchildren of Tiberius were sacrificed to the ambition of the favorite under various pretences; and Drusus, the son of the emperor, by striking Sejanus, made his destruction sure and inevitable. Livia, the wife of Drusus, was gained by Sejanus, and though mother of many children, she was prevailed upon to assist her adulterer in the murder of her husband, and she consented to marry him when Drusus was dead. No sooner was Drusus poisoned than Sejanus openly declared his wish to marry Livia. This was strongly opposed by Tiberius; and the emperor, by recommending Germanicus to the senators for his successor, rendered Sejanus bold and determined.

He was more urgent in his demands; and when he could not gain the consent of the emperor, he persuaded him to retire to solitude from the noise of Rome and the troubles of the government. Tiberius, naturally fond of ease and luxury, yielded to his represen-

tations, and retired to Campania, leaving Sejanus at the head of the empire. This was highly gratifying to the favorite, and he was now without a master. Prudence and moderation might have made him what he wished to be; but Sejanus offended the whole empire when he declared that he was emperor of Rome, and Tiberius only the dependent prince of the island of Capræ, where he had retired.

Tiberius was, upon this, fully convinced of the designs of Sejanus; and when he had been informed that his favorite had had the meanness and audacity to ridicule him, by introducing him on the stage, the emperor ordered him to be accused before the senate. Sejanus was deserted by all his pretended friends, as soon as by fortune; and the man who aspired to the empire, and who called himself the favorite of the people, the darling of the prætorian guards, and the companion of Tiberius, was seized without resistance, and the same day strangled in prison, A.D. 31.

SELEUCUS I., one of the captains of Alexander the Great, surnamed *Nicator*, or 'victorious,' was son of Antiochus. After the king's death he received Babylon as his province; but his ambitious views, and his attempt to destroy Eumenes as he passed through his territories, rendered him so unpopular, that he fled for safety to the court of his friend Ptolemy, King of Egypt. He was soon after enabled to recover Babylon, which Antigonus had seized in his absence, and he increased his dominions by the immediate conquest of Media, and some of the neighboring provinces. When he had strengthened himself in his empire, Seleucus imitated the example of the rest of the generals of Alexander, and assumed the title of independent monarch. He afterward made war against Antigonus, with the united forces of Ptolemy, Cassander, and Lysimachus; and after that monarch had been conquered and slain, his territories were divided among his victorious enemies.

When Seleucus became master of Syria, he built a city there, which he called Antioch, in honor of his father, and made it the capital of his dominions. He also made war against Demetrius and Lysimachus, though he had originally married Stratonice, the

daughter of the former, and had lived in the closest friendship with the latter. Seleucus was at last foully murdered by one of his servants called Ptolemy Ceraunus, a man on whom he had bestowed the greatest favors, and whom he had distinguished by acts of the most unbounded confidence.

According to Arrian, Seleucus was the greatest and most powerful of the princes who inherited the Macedonian empire after the death of Alexander. His benevolence has been commended; and he founded no less than thirty-four cities in different parts of his empire, which he peopled with Greek colonies, whose national industry, learning, religion, and spirit were communicated to the indolent and luxurious inhabitants of Asia.

Seleucus was a great benefactor to the Greeks; he restored to the Athenians the library and statues which Xerxes had carried away from their city when he invaded Greece, and among the latter were those of Harmodius and Aristogiton. Seleucus was murdered B.C. 280, in the thirty-second year of his reign, and the seventy-eighth, or according to others the seventy-third, year of his age, as he was going to conquer Macedonia, and intended to finish his days in peace and tranquillity in that province, where he was born.

SELEUCUS II., surnamed *Callinicus*, succeeded his father Antiochus Theus on the throne of Syria. He attempted to make war against Ptolemy, King of Egypt, but his fleet was shipwrecked in a violent storm, and his armies soon after conquered by his enemy. He was at last taken prisoner by Arsaces, an officer who made himself powerful by the dissensions which reigned in the house of the Seleucide, between the two brothers Seleucus and Antiochus; and after he had been a prisoner for some time in Parthia, he died of a fall from his horse, B.C. 226, after a reign of twenty years. Seleucus received the surname of Pogon, from his long beard, and that of Callinicus, ironically to express his very unfortunate reign. He married Laodice, the sister of one of his generals, by whom he had two sons, Seleucus and Antiochus, and a daughter whom he gave in marriage to Mithridates, King of Pontus.

SELEUCUS III. succeeded his father Seleucus II. on the throne of Syria, and received the surname of *Ceraunus*, by anti-

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phrasis, as he was a very weak, timid, and irresolute monarch. He was murdered by two of his officers after a reign of three years, *b.c.* 223, and his brother Antiochus, though only fifteen years old, ascended the throne, and rendered himself so celebrated that he acquired the name of the Great.

SELEUCUS IV. succeeded his father Antiochus the Great, on the throne of Syria. He was surnamed *Philopater*, or, according to Josephus, *Soter*. His empire had been weakened by the Romans when he became monarch, and the yearly tribute of a thousand talents to those victorious enemies, concurred in lessening his power and consequence among nations. Seleucus was poisoned after a reign of twelve years, *b.c.* 175. His son Demetrius had been sent to Rome, there to receive his education, and he became a prince of great abilities.

SELEUCUS V. succeeded his father Demetrius Nicator on the throne of Syria, in the twentieth year of his age. He was put to death in the first year of his reign, *b.c.* 124, by Cleopatra his mother, who had also sacrificed her husband to her ambition. He is not reckoned, by many historians, in the number of the Syrian monarchs.

His brother Antiochus Grypus took the crown, and when Cleopatra would have poisoned him, he forced the deadly draught to her own lips.

SELEUCUS VI., son of Antiochus Grypus, killed his uncle Antiochus Cyzicenus, who wished to obtain the crown of Syria. He was some time after banished from his kingdom by Antiochus Pius, son of Cyzicenus, and fled to Cilicia, where he was burnt in a palace by the inhabitants, *b.c.* 93.

SELEUCUS, a prince of Syria, to whom the Egyptians offered the crown of which they had robbed Auletes. Seleucus accepted it, but he soon disgusted his subjects, and received the surname of Cybiosactes, or 'scullion,' for his meanness and avarice. He was at last murdered by Berenice, whom he had married.

SELEUCIA, a city in Mesopotamia, upon the river Tigris, built by Seleucus Nicator, a few miles south of the modern Bagdad, in the form of an eagle with extended wings. It contained in the time of Pliny, 600,000 inhabitants, and was once the most impor-

tant city in the east. It was twice burnt by the Romans, in the eastern expedition of Trajan, and again by Lucius Verus, the colleague of Aurelius, when it had 500,000 inhabitants. It was also taken by Severus, from which time it seems to have been almost abandoned by its inhabitants.

SEMIRAMIS, a celebrated queen of Assyria. Semiramis, when grown up, married Menones, the governor of Nineveh, and accompanied him to the siege of Bactria, where, by her advice and prudent directions, she hastened the king's operations and took the city. These eminent services, but chiefly her uncommon beauty, endeared her to Ninus. The monarch asked her of her husband, and offered him instead his daughter Sosana; but Menones, who tenderly loved Semiramis, refused, and when Ninus had added threats to entreaties, he hung himself. No sooner was Menones dead, than Semiramis, who was of an aspiring soul, married Ninus, by whom she had a son called Ninias.

Ninus was so fond of Semiramis, that at her request he resigned the crown to her, and commanded her to be proclaimed queen and sole empress of Assyria. Of this, however, he had cause to repent; Semiramis put him to death, the better to establish herself on the throne. When she had no enemies to fear at home, she began to repair the capital of her empire, and by her means Babylon became the most superb and magnificent city in the world. She visited every part of her dominions, and left everywhere monuments of her greatness.

To render the roads passable and communication easy, she hollowed mountains and filled up valleys; and water was conveyed at a great expense, by large and convenient aqueducts, to barren deserts and unfruitful plains. She was not less distinguished as a warrior; many of the neighboring nations were conquered; and when Semiramis was once told, as she was dressing her hair, that Babylon had revolted, she left her toilet with precipitation, and though only half dressed, refused to have the rest of her head adorned before the sedition was quelled, and tranquility re-established.

Semiramis has been accused of licentiousness, and modern authors have drawn a parallel between her and Catharine of Russia,

there being a great resemblance between them in the principal events of their lives, their masculine talents, and their private immorality of conduct. The reign of Semiramis was at last terminated by a conspiracy of her own son Ninias, who is said to have put her to death with his own hand. Her fame was very great throughout the east. After her death she received immortal honors in Assyria. It is supposed that she lived about 1965 years before the Christian era, and that she died in the sixty-second year of her age, and the forty-second of her reign.

SENECA, M. ANNÆUS, a native of Corduba in Spain, who married Helvia, a woman of Spain, by whom he had three sons, Seneca the philosopher, Annaeus Novatus, and Annaeus Mela, the father of the poet Lucan. Seneca made himself known by some declamations, of which he made a collection from the most celebrated orators of the age; and from that circumstance, and for distinction, he obtained the appellation of *declamator*. He left Corduba, and went to Rome, where he became a Roman knight.

His son, L. ANNÆUS SENECA, who was born about A.D. 2, was early distinguished by his extraordinary talents. He was taught eloquence by his father, and received lessons in philosophy from the best and most celebrated Stoics of the age. As one of the followers of the Pythagorean doctrines, Seneca observed the utmost abstinence, and in his meals never ate the flesh of animals; but this he abandoned at the representation of his father, when Tiberius threatened to punish some Jews and Egyptians who abstained from certain meats.

In the character of a pleader, Seneca appeared with great advantage; but the fear of Caligula, who aspired to the name of an eloquent speaker, and who consequently was jealous of his fame, deterred him from pursuing his favorite study, and he sought a safer employment in canvassing for the honors and offices of the state. He was made quæstor, but the aspersions which were thrown upon him on account of a shameful amour with Julia Livilla, removed him from Rome, and the emperor banished him for some time into Corsica. During his banishment, the philosopher wrote some spirited epistles to his

mother, remarkable for eloquence of language and for sublimity; but he soon forgot his philosophy, and disgraced himself by his flatteries to the emperor, and in wishing to be recalled, even at the expense of his innocence and character.

The disgrace of Messalina at Rome, and the marriage of Agrippina with Claudius, proved favorable to Seneca; and after he had remained five years in Corsica, he was recalled by the empress to take care of the education of her son Nero, who was destined to succeed to the empire. In the honorable duty of preceptor, Seneca gained applause; and as long as Nero followed his advice, Rome enjoyed tranquillity, and believed herself safe and happy under the administration of the son of Agrippina.

In the corrupt age of Nero, the preceptor had to withstand the clamors of many wicked and profligate ministers; and if he had been the favorite of the emperor, and shared his pleasures, his debauchery and extravagance, Nero perhaps would not have been so anxious to destroy a man whose example, from vicious inclinations, he could not follow, and whose salutary precepts his licentious associates forbade him to obey. Seneca was too well acquainted with the natural disposition of Nero to think himself secure; he had been accused of having amassed the most ample riches, and of having built sumptuous houses, and adorned beautiful gardens, during the four years in which he had attended Nero as a preceptor; and therefore he desired his imperial pupil to accept of the riches and the possessions which attendance on his person had procured, and to permit him to retire to solitude and study.

Nero refused, with artful duplicity, and Seneca, to avoid further suspicions, kept himself at home for some time, as if laboring under a disease. In the conspiracy of Piso, which happened some time after, and in which some of the most noble of the Roman senators were concerned, Seneca's name was mentioned by Natalis; and Nero, who was glad of an opportunity of sacrificing him to his secret jealousy, ordered him to destroy himself. Seneca, very probably, was not accessory to the conspiracy; and the only thing which could be produced against him as a crimination, was trivial and unsatisfactory.

Piso, as Natalis declared, had complained that he never saw Seneca, and the philosopher had observed in answer, that it was not proper or conducive to their common interest, to see one another often. He further pleaded indisposition, and said that his own life depended upon the safety of Piso's person.

Seneca was at table with his wife Paulina and two of his friends, when the messenger from Nero arrived. He heard the words which commanded him to destroy himself, with philosophical firmness, and even with joy; and observed that such a mandate might have long been expected from a man who had murdered his own mother, and assassinated all his friends. He wished to dispose of his possessions as he pleased, but this was refused; and when he heard this, he turned to his friends, who were weeping at his melancholy fate, and told them, that since he could not leave them what he believed his own, he would leave them at least his own life for an example,—an innocent conduct which they might imitate, and by which they might acquire immortal fame. Against their tears and wailings he exclaimed with firmness, and asked them whether they had not learnt better to withstand the attacks of fortune and the violence of tyranny?

As for his wife, he attempted to calm her emotions; and when she seemed resolved to die with him, he said he was glad to find his example followed by so much constancy. Their veins were opened at the same moment, but the life of Paulina was preserved, and Nero, who was partial to her, ordered the blood to be stopped; and from that moment, according to some authors, the philosopher's wife seemed to rejoice that she could still enjoy the comforts of life.

Seneca's veins bled but slowly; the sensible and animated conversation of his dying moments was collected by his friends, and has been preserved among his works. To hasten his death, he drank a dose of poison, but it had no effect; and therefore he ordered himself to be carried into a hot bath, to accelerate the operation of the draught, and to make the blood flow more freely. This was attended with no better success; and as the soldiers were clamorous, he was carried into a stove, and suffocated by the steam, A.D. 65.

SERINGAPATAM, a celebrated city of the south of India. In the month of February, 1792, it was invested by the British and allied armies under Lord Cornwallis, amounting to 400,000 men. Terrified by such a host, Tippoo Sultan relinquished half his dominions, and paid three and a half millions sterling to the conquerors. Seringapatam was again invested in 1799, by the British and Nizam's forces, and was stormed on the 4th of May. By the conquest which was thus made, it became the property of the British.

SERTORIUS, QUINTUS, a Roman general, born at Nursia. His first campaign was under the great Marius, against the Teutones and Cimbri. He visited the enemy's camp as a spy, and had the misfortune to lose one eye in the first battle he fought. When Marius and Cinna entered Rome and slaughtered all their enemies, Sertorius accompanied them, but he expressed his sorrow and concern at the melancholy death of so many of his countrymen. He afterward fled for safety into Spain, when Sylla had proscribed him, and in this distant province he behaved himself with so much address and valor that he was looked upon as the prince of the country.

The Lusitanians universally revered and loved him, and the Roman general did not show himself less attentive to their interest, by establishing public schools, and educating the children of the country in the polite arts, and the literature of Greece and Rome. He had established a senate, over which he presided with consular authority, and the Romans who followed his standard, paid equal reverence to his person. They were experimentally convinced of his valor and magnanimity as a general, and the artful manner in which he imposed upon the credulity of his adherents in the garb of religion, did not diminish his reputation. The success of Sertorius in Spain, and his popularity among the natives, alarmed the Romans.

They sent some troops to oppose him, but with little success. Four armies were found insufficient to crush or even hurt Sertorius; and Pompey and Metellus, who had never yet engaged an enemy without obtaining the victory, were driven with dishonor from the field. But the favorite of the Lusitanians was exposed to the dangers which usually

attend greatness. Perpenna, one of his officers, who was jealous of his fame and tired of a superior, conspired against him. At a banquet the conspirators began to open their intentions by speaking with freedom and licentiousness in the presence of Sertorius, whose age and character had hitherto claimed deference from others. Perpenna overturned a glass of wine, as a signal for the rest of the conspirators, and immediately Antonius, one of his officers, stabbed Sertorius, and the example was followed by all the rest, B.C. 72.

Sertorius has been commended for his love of justice and moderation. The flattering description which he heard of the Fortunate Islands when he passed into the west of Africa, almost tempted him to bid adieu to the world, and perhaps he would have retired from the noise of war, and the clamors of envy, to end his days in the bosom of a peaceful and solitary island, had not the stronger calls of ambition and the love of fame prevailed over the intruding reflections of a moment. In his latter days Sertorius became indolent, and fond of luxury and wanton cruelty; yet in affability, clemency, complaisance, generosity, and military valor, he surpassed his contemporaries.

SERVIVS TULLIVS, the sixth king of Rome, belongs to the mythical period of Roman history. The legend runs, that he was son of Ocrisia, a slave of Corniculun, by Tullius, a man slain in the defense of his country against the Romans. Ocrisia was given by Tarquin to Tanaquil his wife, who brought him up as her son in the king's family, and added the name of Servius to that which he had inherited from his father, to denote his slavery. Young Servius was educated in the palace of the monarch with great care, and though originally a slave, he raised himself to so much consequence, that Tarquin gave him his daughter in marriage. His own private merit and virtues recommended him to notice not less than the royal favors, and Servius became the favorite of the people and the darling of the soldiers, by his liberality and complaisance, and was easily raised to the throne on the death of his father-in-law, B.C. 578. Rome had no reason to repent of her choice.

Servius endeared himself still more as a warrior and as a legislator. He defeated the

Veientes and the Tuscans, and by a proper act of policy he established the census, which told him that Rome contained about eighty-four thousand inhabitants. He increased the number of tribes, he beautified and adorned the city, and enlarged its boundaries by taking within its walls the hills Quirinalis, Viminalis, and Esquilinus. He also divided the Roman people into tribes, and that he might not seem to neglect the worship of the gods, he built several temples to the goddess of Fortune, to whom he deemed himself particularly indebted for obtaining the kingdom. He also built a temple to Diana on Mount Aventine, and raised himself a palace on the hill Esquilinus.

Servius married his two daughters to the grandsons of his predecessor; the elder to Tarquin, and the younger to Aruns. This union, it might be supposed, tended to insure the peace of his family; but if such were his expectations, he was unhappily deceived. The wife of Aruns, naturally fierce and impetuous, murdered her own husband to unite herself to Tarquin, who had likewise assassinated his wife. These bloody measures were no sooner pursued, than Servius was murdered by his own son-in-law, and his daughter Tullia showed herself so destitute of filial gratitude and piety, that she ordered her chariot to be driven over the mangled body of her father, B.C. 534.

SESOSTRIS, or **RAMESES**, the Great, was a Pharaoh of the Diospolitan family, under whom ancient Egypt rose to its greatest height of political power and internal splendor. This greatest of the Egyptian kings extended his conquests, and retained dominion, from the Indus to the Niger, from the Persian Gulf to the Straits of Gibraltar. He enriched Egypt with the spoils of these many powerful kingdoms and the commerce of India, and employed his treasures in building cities, raising banks about others, or elevating with immense cost the whole surface of their soil, to defend them from the inundations of the Nile. He built palaces more magnificent than have ever before or since been erected by the hand of man. Champollion remarks that these constructions seem to be the conceptions of men one hundred feet high! Lost in admiration, he dared not attempt to describe his feelings before struc-

SES

tures of such unequalled majesty and beauty. But the highest glory of Rameses the Great remains to be told. He voluntarily resigned the power his ancestors had wrested from a savage race of tyrants, from whom the founder of their dynasty had delivered their native country; and gave to the people the invaluable right of possessing property in the soil. He published a written code of laws more than 1500 years B.C., and the wisdom of his institutions was so great, that his vast empire long enjoyed the benefits of a wisely administered government. Many portraits of this monarch exist. One of these was taken by Champollion with the greatest care from a colossal statue erected by him at Memphis, thirty-four and a half feet high; it had fallen with its face to the earth, and thus each lineament had been admirably preserved.

Some place the reign of Sesostris about 1618 B.C., others more than a century later; and some suppose the achievements attributed to him were the work of several kings.

SEVERUS, LUCIUS SEPTIMIUS, a Roman emperor, born at Leptis in Africa, of a noble family, A.D. 146. He gradually exercised all the offices of the state, and recommended himself to the notice of the world by an ambitious mind and a restless activity, that could, for the gratification of avarice, endure the most complicated hardships. After the murder of Pertinax, Severus resolved to remove Didius Julianus, who had bought the imperial purple when exposed for sale by the licentiousness of the prætorians, and therefore he proclaimed himself emperor on the borders of Illyricum, where he was stationed against the barbarians. To support himself in this bold measure, he took, as his partner in the empire, Albinus, who was at the head of the Roman forces in Britain, and immediately marched toward Rome to crush Didius and all his partisans.

He was received, as he advanced through the country, with universal acclamations, and Julianus himself was soon deserted by his favorites, and assassinated by his own soldiers. The reception of Severus at Rome was sufficient to gratify his pride; the streets were strewed with flowers, and the submissive senate were ready to grant whatever honors or titles the conqueror claimed. In

professing that he had assumed the purple only to revenge the death of the virtuous Pertinax, Severus gained many adherents, and was enabled not only to disarm but to banish the prætorians, whose insolence and avarice had become alarming, not only to the citizens but to the emperor.

But while he was victorious at Rome, Severus did not forget that there was another competitor for the imperial purple. Pescennius Niger was in the east at the head of a powerful army, and with the name and ensigns of Augustus. Many obstinate battles were fought between the troops and officers of the imperial rivals, till on the plains of Issus, which above five centuries before had been covered with the blood of the Persian soldiers of Darius, Niger was totally ruined by the loss of 20,000 men. The head of Niger was cut off and sent to the conqueror, who punished in a most cruel manner all the partisans of his unfortunate rival. Severus afterward pillaged Byzantium, which had shut her gates against him; and after he had conquered several nations in the east, he returned to Rome, resolved to destroy Albinus, with whom he had hitherto reluctantly shared the imperial power. He attempted to assassinate him by his emissaries; but when this had failed of success, Severus had recourse to arms, and the fate of the empire was again decided on the plains of Gaul.

Albinus was defeated, and the conqueror was so elated with the recollection that he had now no longer a competitor for the purple, that he insulted the dead body of his rival, and ordered it to be thrown into the Rhone, after he had suffered it to putrefy before the door of his tent, and to be torn by his dogs. The family and the adherents of Albinus shared his fate; and the return of Severus to the capital was followed by days as bloody as those of Marius and Sylla. The richest citizens were sacrificed, and their money became the property of the emperor. The wicked Commodus received divine honors, and his murderers were punished in the most wanton manner.

Tired of the inactive life which he led in Rome, Severus marched into the east, with his two sons Caracalla and Geta, and with uncommon success made himself master of

Seleucia, Babylon, and Ctesiphon; and advanced without opposition far into the Parthian territories. From Parthia the emperor marched toward the more southern provinces of Asia; he entered Alexandria, and after he had granted a senate to that celebrated city, viewed with criticising and inquisitive curiosity the monuments and ruins of Egypt. The revolt of Britain recalled him from the east. After he had reduced it under his power, he built a wall across the northern part of the island, to defend it against the frequent invasions of the Caledonians. Hitherto successful against his enemies, Severus now found the peace of his family disturbed. Caracalla attempted to murder his father as he was concluding a treaty of peace with the Britons; and the emperor was so shocked at the undutifulness of his son, that on his return home he called him into his presence, and after he had upbraided him for his ingratitude and perfidy, he offered him a drawn sword, adding, "If you are so ambitious of reigning alone, now imbrue your hands in the blood of your father, and let not the eyes of the world be witnesses of your want of filial tenderness." If these words checked Caracalla, yet he did not show himself concerned, and Severus, worn out with infirmities, which the gout and the uneasiness of his mind increased, soon after died, exclaiming he had been everything man could wish, but that he was then nothing.

Some say that he wished to poison himself, but that when this was denied, he ate to great excess, and soon after expired at York, A.D. 211, in the sixty-sixth year of his age, after a reign of seventeen years, eight months, and three days. Severus has been so much admired for his military talents, that some have called him the most warlike of the Roman emperors. As a monarch, he was cruel, and and it has been observed that he never did an act of humanity or forgave a fault. In his diet he was temperate, and he always showed himself an enemy to pomp and splendor. He loved the appellation of a man of letters, and he even composed a history of his own reign, which some have praised for its correctness and veracity. However cruel Severus may appear in his punishments and in his revenge, many have endeavored to exculpate him, and observed that there was

needed of severity in an empire whose morals were so corrupt. Of him, as of Augustus, some were found to say, that it would have been better for the world if he had never been born, or had never died.

SEVERUS, MARCUS AURELIUS ALEXANDER, a native of Phœnicia, adopted by Heliogabalus. His father's name was Genisius Marcianus, and his mother's Julia Mammæa, and he received the surname of Alexander, because he was born in a temple sacred to Alexander the Great. He was carefully educated, and his mother, by paying particular attention to his morals and the character of his preceptors, preserved him from the vices and licentiousness of youth. At the death of Heliogabalus, who had been jealous of his virtues, Alexander, though only in the fourteenth year of his age, was proclaimed emperor, and his nomination was approved by the universal shouts of the army and the congratulations of the senate. He had not long been on the throne before the peace of the empire was disturbed by the incursions of the Persians. He marched into the east without delay, and soon obtained a decisive victory over the barbarians.

At his return to Rome, he was honored with a triumph, but the revolt of the Germans soon after called him away from the indolence of the capital. His expedition in Germany was attended with some success, but his virtues and amiable qualities were forgotten in the stern strictness of the disciplinarian. His soldiers, fond of repose, murmured against his severity; their clamors were fomented by the artifice of Maximinus, and Alexander was murdered in his tent, in the midst of his camp, after a reign of thirteen years and nine days, on the 18th of March, A.D. 235. His mother shared his fate, with all his friends; but this was no sooner known than the soldiers punished with immediate death, all such as had been concerned in the murder, except Maximinus.

SEVILLE, on the Guadalquivir, in Andalusia, is one of the most ancient cities of Spain; population 85,000.

This is the Hesperis of the Phœnicians, and the Julia of the Romans. It is built in the Moorish style, and contains many edifices noteworthy for their age or their architect-

ure. After the decline of the Roman colony, Seville was held by the Goths.

It opened its gates to the Moors in 711, and continued in their possession more than five centuries. It was taken by the Christians in 1247, after one of the most obstinate sieges mentioned in Spanish history. It was the capital of Spain, until Philip II. finally fixed his court at Madrid, 1563. In 1729 a treaty was concluded here between Spain, England, France, and Holland. On the invasion of Spain by Bonaparte, in 1808, Seville asserted the national independence, and received the junta when driven from Madrid. It surrendered, however, to the French, on the 1st of February, 1810, and remained in their hands till the 27th of August, 1812, when they were compelled to leave it in consequence, not of insurrection on the part of the inhabitants, but of the general evacuation of the south of Spain consequent on their defeat at Salamanca.

SEYMOUR, EDWARD, Duke of Somerset, was the eldest son of Sir John Seymour, by Elizabeth, daughter of Sir Henry Wentworth. In 1533, he accompanied the Duke of Suffolk to France, and was knighted the same year. On his sister's marriage to Henry VIII., he was created Viscount Beauchamp. In 1544 he was appointed lieutenant-general of the north, and commanded an expedition against the Scots. The same year he was at the siege of Boulogne, where he defeated the French, who lay encamped before the place. By the king's will, he was nominated one of his executors and governor of his son; and soon after was declared protector of the kingdom. In 1548 he was appointed lord treasurer, created Duke of Somerset, and made earl marshal of England. The same year he marched into Scotland, and gained the victory of Musselburgh; but though this raised his reputation, his fate was now fast approaching, to which the execution of his brother, the admiral, greatly contributed. His greatest enemy was the Earl of Warwick, and though a marriage had been effected between their children, yet when that nobleman became Duke of Northumberland, he accused Scymour of treason, and the latter was executed on Tower Hill, Jan. 22d, 1552.

SFORZA, JAMES, called the Great, was

born of mean parents, at Cotignola, in 1369. His original name was Giacomo Attendolo, and he was called Sforza because of his great vigor. He entered the army as a common soldier, and by his good conduct rose to the rank of general, and afterward was made constable of the kingdom of Naples. Pope John XXIII. also appointed him gonfalonier of the church, and created him a count. He compelled Alphonso of Arragon to raise the siege of Naples; but in pursuing the flying enemy, he fell into the river near Pescara, and was drowned in 1424.

His natural son, FRANCIS SFORZA, commanded with distinction in the service of Naples; after which he married the daughter of the Duke of Milan, on whose death he was chosen general of the duchy; but he abused that trust, and usurped the dukedom. He also made himself master of Genoa, and died in 1466. His descendants held the duchy for several generations.

SHAFTESBURY. The first Earl of Shaftesbury was a brilliant but inconsistent statesman in the reigns of the second Charles and James in England. He was born in 1621. Although a royalist, he accepted a commission from parliament, but contributed to the restoration of the king, and was accordingly rewarded. Having been acquitted on his trial for high treason in 1681, he died in Holland in 1688. His grandson, ANTHONY ASHLEY COOPER, the third earl, attained distinction as an elegant philosophical writer. He was born in London in 1671, and died at Naples in February, 1713. His style, though labored, is lofty and musical.

SHAKSPEARE, WILLIAM, was born at Stratford upon Avon, a market town of Warwickshire in England, in 1564. His birthday is not known with certainty, but it is conjectured to have been the 23d of April. His father was named John. His mother was Mary Arden, of the ancient family of the Ardens. John Shakspeare has been called a butcher, a wool-stapler, a glover: in that age of less subdivision of occupations, he may have been all three. Of Shakspeare's youth little is known: some say he was an attorney's clerk: a general tradition is that he was a wild young fellow, given to poaching and deer-stealing. At Shottery, a

pretty village within a mile of Stratford, the cottage is still standing where dwelt Ann Hathaway, whom he wooed and won, and who became his wife in 1582. By this marriage there were two daughters and a son: Susanna, Hammett, and Judeth. Hammett died in 1596: the daughters survived their father, and inherited his property.

Soon after his marriage, Shakspeare removed to London, and became connected with the Blackfriars Theatre, of which he was shortly one of the proprietors. For this his plays were written, to very few of which, however, can any positive dates be assigned. Here he grew to be well to do in the world, and about the beginning of the seventeenth century, he retired to his native town, where he resided, looked up to by his neighbors, thenceforth till his death. His eldest daughter, in 1607, married Dr. Hall, an eminent physician in Stratford, and died in 1649. Judeth married Thomas Quincy, a thriving tradesman, in February, 1616, and died in 1662. Neither daughter left any heir male. Shakspeare himself died in April, 1616. He was buried the 25th of April: the day of his decease is not known. Ann, his wife, survived till 1623. Aubrey speaks of the dramatist as "a handsome, well shaped man, verie good company, and of a verie pleasant, reddie, and smooth witt."

Shakspeare lies buried beneath the chancel of the fine old parish church of Stratford. On the flag above his ashes these quaint words are cut:—

"GOOD FREND FOR IESUS SAKE FORBEARE,
TO DIGG THE DVST ENCLOSED HEARE:
BLESE BE Y^e MAN Y^e SPARES THES STONES,
AND CVRST BE HE Y^e MOVES MY BONES."

SHARP, GRANVILLE, an untiring advocate for the abolition of slavery in Great Britain and elsewhere, died in 1813, aged seventy-nine.

SHEFFIELD, JOHN, Duke of Buckinghamshire, was the son of Edward, Earl of Mulgrave, and born in 1649. At the age of seventeen he served in the fleet, and afterward had the command of a troop of horse. In 1680, being then Lord Mulgrave, he was sent to the relief of Tangier, which service he accomplished. He complied very much with the measures of James II., and yet concurred in the revolution, after which he was created Marquis of Normandy and Duke of Buck-

inghamshire. He died in 1720, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

He is said to have 'made love' to Queen Anne when they both were young; and when she became sovereign, she did not forget to exalt him. He wrote several poems.

SHELBY, ISAAC, was born Dec. 11th, 1750, near Hagerstown, Md. In 1776 he commanded a company raised by the committee of safety of Virginia, and marched against the hostile Indians. After the conclusion of the Revolutionary war, throughout which he behaved with courage, he settled in Kentucky, of which state he was chosen the first governor in 1792. In 1813 he emerged from private life and joined Gen. Harrison on the frontier of Ohio with 4,000 volunteers. He died of apoplexy, July 18th, 1826.

SHELLEY, PERCY BYSSHE, was the son of a wealthy baronet of Sussex, in which shire he was born, Aug. 4th, 1792. In boyhood he was a republican and a skeptic. Either of these characters was sufficient to brand one of his position as an outcast from English society; and his life was blasted and unhappy. Its later years were passed in Italy. He was temperate in his habits, gentle, affectionate, and generous; so that even those who deplored or detested his opinions were charmed with the intellectual purity and benevolence of his life. He was accidentally drowned in the Bay of Spezia, the 8th of July, 1822. His body washed ashore, was reduced to ashes by fire, and those were deposited in the Protestant burial-ground at Rome, near the remains of a child he had lately lost. Much of Shelley's poetry is abstract and obscure; too many of its scenes are ghastly and repulsive; yet amid these faults are some of the purest strains in our language,—the odes to the Cloud and the Skylark, for instance.

SHENSTONE, WILLIAM, born in 1714, at the Leasowes, his father's little estate in Shropshire, died there in 1763. He wrote "The Schoolmistress," and some lesser poems, but spent most of his time and too much of his money in landscape gardening and ornamental agriculture, on the Leasowes.

SHERIDAN, RICHARD BRINSLEY, a celebrated wit, author, and statesman, was the son of Thomas Sheridan, and was born in Dublin, Oct. 30th, 1751. Having quitted the

SHE

Dublin school, he was placed at Harrow, which he left in his eighteenth year. While yet at school, his wit and humor began to appear, though in learning he rated as a blockhead. At an early age he married Miss Linley, a beautiful young lady, who, at the concerts and theatre at Bath, had attracted universal admiration. He did not obtain her without difficulty, for he was forced to fight two duels with a Captain Matthews, which stand unequalled in the history of single combats for ferocity and determination. In 1775 his comedy of "The Rivals" was produced with success at Covent Garden theatre. Although this comedy has not the wit of "The School for Scandal," it always elicits rapturous applause. In 1780 Mr. Sheridan was returned to parliament for Stafford, and soon became distinguished as a powerful speaker on the side of the opposition, with Fox and Burke. When the Rockingham party came into power, he was made one of the under secretaries; and in the coalition administration he was appointed to the treasury. That post, however, he did not hold long, and during the whole of Mr. Pitt's ascendancy, the talents of Sheridan were displayed in combating that statesman. On the trial of Mr. Hastings, he acted a prominent part, and his eloquence had an electrifying effect upon his auditors.

On the conclusion of Mr. Sheridan's speech on the Begum charge, on the impeachment of Mr. Hastings, the whole assembly, members, peers, and strangers, involuntarily joined in a tumult of applause, and adopted a mode of expressing their approbation new and irregular in Westminster Hall, by loudly and repeatedly clapping their hands. A motion was immediately made and carried for an adjournment, that the members, who were in a state of delirious insensibility from the talismanic influence of such powerful eloquence, might have time to collect their scattered senses for the exercise of a sober judgment. The motion was made by Mr. Pitt, who declared that this speech "surpassed all the eloquence of ancient and modern times, and possessed everything that genius or art could furnish, to agitate and control the human mind."

"He has this day," said Burke, "surprised the thousands who hung with rapture upon

his accents, by such an array of talents, such an exhibition of capacity, such a display of powers, as are unparalleled in the annals of oratory! a display that reflects the highest honor upon himself, a lustre upon letters, renown upon parliament, glory upon the country. Of all species of rhetoric, of every kind of eloquence that has been witnessed or recorded, either in ancient or modern times; whatever the acuteness of the bar, the dignity of the senate, the solidity of the judgment seat, and the sacred morality of the pulpit, have hitherto furnished,—nothing has surpassed, nothing has equaled, what we have this day heard in Westminster Hall. No holy seer of religion, no statesman, no orator, no man of any literary description whatever, has come up, in one instance, to the pure sentiments of morality, or, in the other, to the variety of knowledge, force of imagination, propriety and vivacity of allusion, beauty and eloquence of diction, strength and copiousness of style, pathos and sublimity of conception, to which we have this day listened with ardor and admiration. From poetry up to eloquence, there is not a species of composition of which a complete and perfect specimen might not from that single speech be culled and collected."

The specimens of the speech thus extravagantly praised, that have come down to us, do not at all account for the extraordinary effect which it had upon an audience made up of the brightest talent and keenest judgment of the time.

In 1792 Mr. Sheridan had the misfortune to lose his wife, who left one son, Thomas Sheridan. Three years afterward he married Miss Ogle, daughter of the Dean of Winchester. But neither the large fortune which this lady brought him, nor the receiver-generalship of Cornwall, nor his interest in Drury Lane theatre, were able to supply Sheridan's extravagances, and put him beyond the reach of pecuniary embarrassment. After the death of Mr. Fox, Sheridan was deprived of office. His intemperate habits and indolence completed the ruin which the burning of Drury Lane theatre began. Yet this calamity was borne with equanimity. Some of his companions found Sheridan at a neighboring ale-house quietly surveying the raging flames which were rapidly consuming his

property. On observing their astonishment, Sheridan coolly observed, "Why shouldn't a man enjoy his pot and pipe by his own fire-side."

Intemperance had undermined his constitution, and he died in miserable circumstances, July 7th, 1816. His plays are "The Rivals," "The Duenna," "School for Scandal," "St. Patrick's Day, or the Scheming Lieutenant," "Trip to Scarborough," "The Camp," "The Critic, or Tragedy Rehearsed," "Robinson Crusoe, or Harlequin Friday," and "Pizarro," a tragedy translated from the German. Byron's monody on Sheridan concludes thus:—

Ye orators! whom yet our councils lead,
Mourn for the veteran hero of your field!
The worthy rival of the wondrous three!
Whose words were sparks of immortality!
Ye bards! to whom the drama's muse is dear!
He was your master—emulate him *here!*
Ye men of wit and social eloquence!
He was your brother—bear his ashes hence
While powers of mind almost of boundless
range,

Complete in kind—as various in their change;
While eloquence—wit—poesy—and mirth
(That humbler harmonist of care on earth),
Survive within our souls—while lives our sense
Of pride in merit's proud pre-eminence,
Long shall we seek his likeness—long in vain,
And turn to all of him which may remain,
Sighing that Nature formed but one such man,
And broke the die—in moulding SHERIDAN!

Some of Sheridan's *bon mots* will be long remembered for their brilliancy. He once remarked that the tax upon mile-stones was unconstitutional: "Because," said he, "they are a race that can not meet to remonstrate."

Young Tom Sheridan once said to his father: "If ever I get into parliament, I mean to set up a sign on my head, inscribed *To let.*" "Aye," said Sheridan, "and add—*unfurnished.*"

Sheridan was fond of practical jokes, one of which he played off upon the Duke of Devonshire. Sheridan was in the habit of frequenting Dolly's chop-house, where he generally called for deviled shin-bone of beef. One day, coming in rather later than usual, he was told that the only shin-bone in the larder was being cooked for his grace the Duke of Devonshire. Sheridan, who knew the Duke's person, though not acquainted with him, took a seat within ear-shot of him and began a conversation with a friend in a loud tone of voice. "I always imagined,"

said he, "that Dolly's chop-house was one of the neatest establishments in London, but I made a discovery this morning which has convinced me that I was mistaken." The duke listened very attentively. "As I was passing the kitchen window," continued Sheridan, "I observed a turnspit-boy greedily gnawing a shin-bone of beef. Presently one of the cooks ran up to him, and giving him a blow on the neck, compelled him to drop his prize. 'You dirty little rascal,' said the cook, 'couldn't you find nothing else to eat? Here I've got to cook this bone for the Duke of Devonshire.'" Soon after the conclusion of this tale, a waiter entered the room, and advanced to his grace, with a covered dish. "Your bone, sir!" "Take it away," roared the duke, with a face of great disgust, "I can't touch a morsel of it." "Stay, waiter!" said Sheridan, humbly; "bring it to me. If his grace can't eat it, I can. Fetch me a bottle of claret—I don't wish a better luncheon."

Two young sprigs of nobility once accosted Sheridan in Bond street. "Sherry," said one of them familiarly, "my friend and I have been discussing the question whether you are knave or fool." "Why," said the wit, taking an arm of each, I believe I am between both."

SHERMAN, ROGER, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Newton, Mass., April 19th, 1721, and was apprenticed to a shoemaker. In 1743 the family moved to New Milford in Connecticut, where he entered upon trade as a country merchant. Having, however, always displayed a desire for knowledge, he studied with diligence, and in 1754 was admitted to the bar. In 1759 he was appointed judge of the court of common pleas in Litchfield. Two years afterward he removed to New Haven, and in 1765 was appointed judge of the Superior Court, and treasurer of Yale College. After holding a seat in the general assembly of Connecticut, he was sent to Congress in 1775. Mr. Sherman was one of the committee selected to draft the Declaration of Independence. He was a representative in the first federal congress, and in 1791 was chosen United States senator from Connecticut. He died July 23d, 1793, in the seventy-third year of his age.

SHIPPEN, WILLIAM, professor of anatomy

in the Pennsylvania University, from the establishment of the medical school until his death, in 1808.

SHIRLEY, JAMES, born in London in 1596, was the last of the great race of old English dramatists. He was designed for the church, and Laud refused to ordain him because of a mole that disfigured his left cheek. When the civil wars broke out, he changed the pen for the sword, and fought for the king. The shutting of the theatres by the Puritans, ruined his occupation as a dramatist. The restoration did not mend his fortunes, and the great fire of 1666 in London left him houseless. Soon after this, he and his wife died on the same day.

SHORE, JANE, mistress of Edward IV. of England, and afterward of the unfortunate Lord Hastings, was a woman of exquisite beauty and kind heart, but not of virtue enough to resist the temptations of a royal lover. She was fated to incur the indignation of the Duke of Gloucester, who had been made protector of the realm on the death of Edward. This unfortunate woman was an enemy too humble to excite the protector's jealousy; yet as he had accused her of witchcraft, of which she was innocent, he thought proper to make her an example for those faults of which she was really guilty. Jane Shore had been deluded from her husband, who was a goldsmith in Lombard street, and not the best of husbands, and lived with Edward the most guiltless mistress in his abandoned court. The charge against her was too notorious to be denied; she pleaded guilty, and was accordingly condemned to walk barefoot through the city, and do penance in St. Paul's church, in a white sheet, with a wax taper in her hand, before thousands of spectators. She lived above forty years after this sentence, and was reduced to the most extreme indigence.

SHOVEL, Sir CLOUDESLEY, a gallant English admiral, was born near Clay, in Norfolk, about 1650. In 1674 he was a lieutenant under Sir John Narborough, who sent Mr. Shovel to the Dey of Tripoli with a requisition, which the Moor treated with contempt. Sir John then dispatched the lieutenant on shore again, when the dey behaved much worse than before. On his return, Shovel stated to the admiral the practicability of

destroying the enemy's shipping, which service he performed the same night without the loss of a man. For this exploit he was appointed to the command of a ship.

After the revolution he was knighted, and made a rear-admiral, in which capacity he had a share in the victory of La Hogue. In 1703 he commanded a fleet in the Mediterranean, and the year following partook in the victory off Malaga. In 1705 he sailed for England, and in the night of Oct. 22d, fell by mistake upon the rocks of Sylla, where his ship was totally lost, with some others, and all on board perished. His body being found by the fishermen, was stripped and buried; but the fact becoming known, the remains were brought to London, and interred in Westminster Abbey, where a monument was erected to his memory.

SIREWSBURY, BATTLE OF, July 21st, 1403, between the army of Henry IV. and that of the nobles who had conspired to dethrone him. The latter were led by Percy (surnamed Hotspur), son of the Earl of Northumberland. The contest was most bloody, till the death of Hotspur by an unknown hand decided the fate of the day, and gave the victory to the king.

SIAM, a country in Asia, containing 250,000 square miles and 5,500,000 inhabitants. It is rich in natural productions, and its forests furnish many woods of trade. Elephants are found in Siam in great numbers and perfection; Lanjang, the name of one town, signifies 'the place of ten million elephants.' Occasionally white elephants are found: they are regarded with great veneration, kept in temples, and waited on by priests. He who traps a white elephant receives a handsome reward, and if the animal be a very fine one a pension, which is continued to his descendants. White monkeys, white buffaloes, and white deer are also found. The Siamese are of Mongol origin. Their government is an absolute despotism, and their religion Buddhism. Bangkok, a place of considerable extent and commerce, with 400,000 inhabitants, is the capital of the kingdom. The Portuguese, in 1511, were the first Europeans who established intercourse with Siam.

SIBERIA, the Russian dominion in Asia, includes the whole northern part of that con-

continent. The exploration of Siberia may be dated from the period when Russia emancipated herself from the yoke of the Tartar conquerors. A body of wandering Cossacks passed the Ural mountains in 1580, and found a Tartar kingdom, of which Sibir was the capital. The khan or ruler having been totally defeated, Yermack, the Cossack chief, took possession of the kingdom, but was afterward surprised and cut off by an ambuscade of Tartars. The Russian power spread, and in the course of eighty years, a few Cossacks and hunters had, by their intrepid exertions, added to Russia a territory larger in extent than all Europe. However, in extending their conquest, they came in contact with the Chinese empire, the military force of which defeated the Russians on the banks of the Amour, where they were obliged to terminate their progress, and which river formed the line of demarcation between the two empires.

The mines and furs of Siberia render it valuable to the Russians, but it is most noted as the place of banishment for those who have fallen under the displeasure of the Russian government. Many an unhappy exile has here dragged out a miserable existence, to which death would have been preferable. These wretched victims of state intrigues and ruthless despotism, have contributed greatly toward the civilization and improvement of portions of this country. The number of exiles was augmented by the banishment to this dreary region of hundreds of the unhappy Poles, whose greatest crime was a firm attachment to an oppressed country. The exile of great officers of state has frequently been attended with all the mystery which characterized the seizures of the inquisition. Often some deserving man, unconscious of having committed any crime worthy of so severe a punishment, found himself suddenly in the hands of the officers of *justice*. If he asked the cause of his seizure, he was commanded to be silent: if he begged to take leave of his family, his request was refused. He sank into the stupor of despair, and awakened again to a sense of hope forever lost, as he found himself upon the fatal sledge which pursued its rapid path to the hated place of exile.

SICILY. This island, which is part of the

kingdom of the two Sicilies, or Naples, is separated from Italy by the straits of Messina. Its area is 10,536 square miles, and it contains 2,091,580 inhabitants. The principal cities are Palermo, Syracuse, Messina, and Catania. There are several mountain groups, among them the noted *Ætna*. The country is rich and fertile, and was formerly the granary of Italy; but it is no longer so well cultivated. It produces grain, silk, wines, excellent fruits, wax, and honey.

The Sicilians are descended from a variety of races, who have made the island their abode,—Greeks, Carthaginians, Romans, Sarcens, Normans, and Spaniards, besides the aboriginal stock; accordingly there is considerable difference of complexion and features. The Sicilians are generally dark, and yet we sometimes see skins as fair as in the north of Italy. Unless bent down by poverty and disease, the Sicilian exhibits a spare but muscular and erect form, lively dark eyes, great elasticity of limb, and quickness of motion. He is shrewd, keen of sight, and very imitative. Although the climate and state of society incline him to indolence, he is more easily roused into activity than the Neapolitan, and is more capable of perseverance. The Sicilian women are handsome and amorous, and their countenances often have a strong Grecian cast. The mass of the people are very illiterate. Their religion is the Roman Catholic.

This island was anciently known by the names of Sicania, Sicilia, and Trinacria, from its triangular form. *Ætna*, now Mount Gibello, still emits flames, throws up stones and ashes, and alarms the inhabitants by its roaring, and its convulsions have frequently overturned cities, and covered the island with ruins. The fabled Cyclops dwelt here. In the Tuscan Sea, near Sicily, lie the *Æolian* and *Vulcanian* Isles (now the Lipari Isles), in which Vulcan is fabled to have had his forges, and *Æolus* to have confined the winds subject to his command. Sicily was peopled by Greeks from Chalcis, Achaia, Doris, and from Crete, Rhodes, and other islands, and by some colonies from Italy. Syracuse, which was founded by Corinthians, B.C. 749, became a leading city. It was at first governed by kings; and afterward a democracy was established. Its history exhibits a perpetual alter-

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nation of slavery under tyrants, and of liberty under a popular government. Gelon is said to have introduced himself into Syracuse by his address, and to have gained the favor of the people, who invested him with absolute power, B.C. 483. He laid the foundation of that immense commerce which rendered Syracuse strong and opulent. He proposed to assist the Greeks against Xerxes, when the Carthaginians landed in Sicily an army of 300,000 men under the command of Hamilcar.

Gelon, by means of an intercepted letter, was enabled to send a body of cavalry, that put Hamilcar to death, dispersed the troops, and burnt the ships, while he attacked the other camp. An assembly of the Syracusans being convened, Gelon was invited to assume the title of king, and invested with supreme authority. The people also passed a decree, settling the crown, after his death, on his two brothers, Hiero and Thrasylbulus. Gelon was succeeded by his elder brother, Hiero, B.C. 471, whom some represent as an excellent prince, and others as a covetous, obstinate, and cruel tyrant.

Hiero was succeeded by his brother Thrasylbulus, B.C. 459, a cruel and sanguinary tyrant, who massacred all those subjects who gave him the least cause of offense. Incensed at this oppressive conduct, the people took up arms, and expelled the tyrant, who retired to Italy. The Syracusans, attempting to subdue the neighboring cities, the latter requested the assistance of the Athenians, who had long wished to form an establishment in Sicily. Nicias, a prudent general, endeavored to dissuade the Athenians from such an undertaking; but they were hurried on by enthusiasm, and determined to sell the Syracusans and their allies as slaves, and oblige the other cities of Sicily to pay an annual tribute to Athens. Accordingly, they set sail and arrived before Syracuse, which they besieged both by sea and land, B.C. 416. The Syracusans were about to surrender, when Gylippus, a Spartan general, arrived with assistance from Lacedæmon.

Nicias found himself under the necessity of demanding a re-enforcement from Athens, which dispatched another fleet, commanded by Demosthenes; that enterprising general induced Nicias to make an assault, which was

not successful. At length the Athenian and Syracusan armaments met, and an engagement ensued, when the Athenians were completely defeated. Finding no other resource left than to endeavor to reach some towns in alliance with them, they began their march. The dead and the dying retarded their progress; the enemy briskly pursued, and allowed them scarcely a moment of rest. Nicias and Demosthenes were made prisoners, and after being publicly scourged, were thrown from a precipice. The soldiers were shut up in the quarries, where they received a scanty allowance of food, and were infected with the putrid bodies of their dead companions. Such was the issue of this war, after it had continued nearly three years.

Sicily was soon engaged in a new contest. The Egestines, who had invited the Athenians into Sicily, dreading the resentment of the Syracusans, offered to put their city into the hands of the Carthaginians, from whom they requested assistance against the inhabitants of Selinuntum. The Carthaginians committed the management of the war to Hannibal, the grandson of Hamilcar, who landed in Sicily with an army of 300,000 men. The Selinuntines defended their walls, their streets, their public squares, and even their houses, but were everywhere overpowered by numbers. Two thousand six hundred of them escaped to Agrigentum, and the rest were cut to pieces by the Carthaginians, who committed dreadful cruelties and atrocities. The conquerors then marched to Himera, before which Hamilcar had been killed by Gelon, and which shared the same fate as Selinuntum. Hannibal ordered three thousand Himerians to be barbarously massacred on the spot where his grandfather had been defeated and killed; and after thus terminating the campaign, he embarked his troops, and set sail for Africa.

Two or three years after, the Carthaginians returned to Sicily with 300,000 men, and attacked Agrigentum. In the first sally, the besieged burnt the machines, and made a prodigious slaughter of the enemy. At length Agrigentum being greatly distressed for want of provisions, the inhabitants resolved to leave the city, which was taken possession of by the Carthaginians. The Agrigentines, who took refuge in Syracuse,

filled that city with complaints against the Syracusan commanders, as if they had betrayed Agrigentum into the hands of the enemy. This raised such disturbances in Syracuse, as afforded to Dionysius, a bold, eloquent, and aspiring man, an opportunity of seizing on the sovereign power. After procuring a guard of a thousand men, and being joined by part of the garrison in Gela, he possessed himself of the citadel, and publicly declared himself king of Syracuse, B.C. 404. But on the first defeat he experienced from the Carthaginians, the people revolted, and united with his enemies. Dionysius, however, found means not only to appease the revolt, but to conclude a peace with the Carthaginians.

Dionysius again declared war with the Carthaginians, from whom he took the most important of the towns which they possessed in Sicily; but they, nevertheless, appeared before Syracuse, to which they laid siege. The Carthaginians being exhausted by a plague, were obliged to raise the siege, and Dionysius suffered them to retire unmolested into other parts of the island, on condition that they paid him a large sum of money. He then turned his arms against Italy, and took Rhegium, the inhabitants of which he treated with his usual inhumanity. He was succeeded by his son Dionysius, who was surnamed the younger, B.C. 366, and who was a weak and irresolute prince. Dion, the brother of Aristomache, the wife of Dionysius the elder, a friend and disciple of Plato, induced the young prince to banish the accomplices of his debaucheries and to recall Plato. Through a cabal of courtiers, Dion and Plato were disgraced, and obliged to retire to Athens. Dionysius not only refused to Dion the revenue arising from his property, but compelled his wife Arete, who was much beloved by her husband, to espouse Timocrates, one of his courtiers. These provocations incensed Dion, who collected a small band, and arriving at Syracuse whilst Dionysius was engaged with the war in Italy, declared that he came not to avenge his own private wrongs, but to emancipate Syracuse and Sicily from the yoke of the tyrant. Under this standard of liberty, Dion obtained possession of the greater part of the city; and having defeated Dionysius in an engagement, compelled the

tyrant to flee into Italy. Dion, having murdered one of his generals, was assassinated in his own house by his guest and friend Calippus.

The death of Dion, and the flight of Calippus, recalled Dionysius, B.C. 350, who again reinstated himself in the possession of his dominions, which he retained until he was again expelled by an army under Timoleon. This general overran Sicily as a conqueror, subdued the tyrants of several cities, whom he sent to Corinth to be companions of Dionysius, and defeated the Carthaginians, who again appeared in the island. For the space of twenty years, the Syracusans enjoyed the fruits of Timoleon's services. Then Syracuse groaned under the tyranny of Agathocles, who exceeded all his predecessors in cruelty and other vices. He was expelled by Sosistratus, who had usurped the supreme power. He then retired into Italy; and during his abode in that country, Sosistratus was obliged to abdicate the sovereignty, and quit Syracuse. Sosistratus and the other exiles had recourse to the Carthaginians, who readily espoused their cause.

Upon this, the Syracusans recalled Agathocles, whom they appointed commander-in-chief, and he defeated the combined armies of Sosistratus and the Carthaginians. Agathocles, therefore, began to exercise a sovereign power over his fellow-citizens, and took such measures as plainly showed that he aimed at monarchy. On discovering his design, the people transferred the command of their forces to a Corinthian; and Agathocles saved his life only by stratagem.

Agathocles re-appeared under the walls of Syracuse, at the head of a strong army, and under pretense of a war with Erbita, a neighboring city, he collected a great number of soldiers, whom he induced to pillage Syracuse, and to massacre all the chief men. In a few hours more than four thousand persons fell a sacrifice; and the streets were covered with slain. He ordered the pillage and massacre to be continued two days longer, after which he was proclaimed king by the few survivors.

The success of Agathocles gave uneasiness to the Carthaginians, who sent against him an army under the command of Hamilcar. This general gained over him a complete vic-

tory, which obliged Agathocles to confine himself within Syracuse. Whilst the Carthaginians besieged that city, Agathocles embarked some of his best troops, B.C. 307, and after landing in Africa burned the vessels which had conveyed his army. An engagement took place between the Syracusans and the Carthaginians, the latter of whom were defeated, with the loss of Hanno their general.

Syracuse was now reduced to great extremity, but Agathocles having sent to the inhabitants of that city the head of Hanno, the sight of it encouraged them to support with success a last assault. They afterward attacked and entirely routed the Carthaginian army, took Hamilcar prisoner, and sent his head to Agathocles. As the war was prolonged, Agathocles resolved to return to Sicily, and having given the necessary orders during his absence, embarked with him two thousand chosen men, and arrived at Syracuse. After restoring order to the government, and destroying a league which had been formed against him, he set out once more for Africa. But finding his affairs desperate in that country, he determined to abandon his troops, and, making his escape, put to sea. In the first transports of their fury, the soldiers massacred two of his sons whom he had left behind, and, having elected chiefs for themselves, concluded with the Carthaginians a peace, by which they were to be transported to Sicily, and put in possession of the city of Selinuntum. At length, after a series of cruelties, Agathocles was burnt on the funeral pile, B.C. 289.

The government was next assumed by Mœnon, who was expelled by Hycetas. The latter took the modest title of prætor, but was deprived of the sovereign power by Tenion, who was opposed by Sosistratus. But being attacked by the Carthaginians, these chiefs united and called into their assistance Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, who was then carrying on war against the Romans. Pyrrhus drove the Carthaginians out, and returned into Italy.

Hiero was appointed to command the Syracusan forces against the Carthaginians, B.C. 275, who had regained most of the places which they possessed before the arrival of the Epirots. He concluded a treaty with

the Romans, the conditions of which were faithfully performed on both sides. The defeats which the Romans sustained at the Lake Thrasymene and at Cannæ, could not shake his constancy. He died at the age of ninety.

Hiero appointed his grandson Hieronymus king, B.C. 211, with a council of fifteen persons, called tutors. His vices and cruelty were such, that a conspiracy was formed against him. He was assassinated while passing through a narrow street, B.C. 208, and the people showed so little concern for his person, that they suffered the body to rot in the place where it had fallen. Hieronymus was no sooner dead, than two of the conspirators hastened to prevent the attempts of Andranodorus, and of others of the king's faction. However, he soon after, in concert with Themistus, the husband of Harmonia, sister of the deceased king, formed a plot to exterminate the chief citizens of Syracuse. This being disclosed to the senate, Andranodorus and Themistus were condemned, though absent, and put to death as they were entering the senate-house. Soon after this the guardians and tutors of the late king, and all the royal family, were put to death.

The Carthaginians now obtained an ascendancy in Syracuse. Two of the generals, Hippocrates and Epytides, caused the number of the prætors to be reduced to two, and made the choice fall on themselves. Marcellus, the Roman consul, appeared at the gates of Syracuse, B.C. 212, and demanded that the authors of the late massacre should be delivered into his hands; but finding his demand treated with ridicule, he commenced hostilities, and attempted a general assault on the city. However, by the genius of Archimedes, an able mathematician, without employing the sword, two Roman armies were repulsed on this occasion. Marcellus was, therefore, obliged to convert the siege into a blockade: and at length he obtained possession of the city by an escalade. The soldiers entered the houses of the Syracusans, seized all the valuables, but offered no violence to the persons of the inhabitants. Acradina, the strongest quarter of the city, held out some time longer, but was at length taken by means of an officer who gave up to Marcellus one of the gates. After the capture of Syracuse, Agri-

gentum was besieged and taken. By order of the consul Lævinus, the chiefs of the latter city were scourged and beheaded, and the people reduced to slavery and sold by auction. After this terrible example, no more cities resisted, and Sicily was converted into a province of Rome, B.C. 198.

Sicily remained in the hands of the Romans during many centuries. At length, in the eighth and ninth centuries, the Saracens conquered Sicily, and the island remained in their possession two hundred years. In the eleventh century the Normans made the conquest of this country, and in 1266 it submitted to Charles of Anjou, a French prince. In 1282, the terrible massacre of the French, called the Sicilian Vespers, took place. It commenced at Palermo, March 30th, 1282. The French had become hateful to the Sicilians, and a conspiracy against Charles of Anjou was already ripe, when the following occurrence led to its development and accomplishment. On Easter Monday, the chief conspirators had assembled at Palermo; and while the French were engaged in festivities, a Sicilian bride happened to pass by with her train. She was observed by one Drochet, a Frenchman, who, advancing toward her, began to use her rudely, under pretense of searching for arms. A young Sicilian, exasperated at this affront, stabbed him with his own sword; and a tumult ensuing, two hundred French were instantly murdered. The enraged populace now ran through the city, crying out, "Let the French die!" and, without distinction of rank, age, or sex, they slaughtered all of that nation they could find, to the number of eight thousand. Even such as had fled to the churches found no sanctuary there; and the massacre became general throughout the island. After this catastrophe, the inhabitants transferred the sovereignty of their island to Spain, with whom it long remained, as well as that of the Neapolitan territory, to which Sicily became united in 1430. Both were subject to the crown of Spain in 1700. In 1707, Austria obtained possession of Naples and Sicily; and by the peace of Utrecht, in 1713, while Naples was confirmed to them, Sicily was given to the duke of Savoy, with the title of king. In 1720, the Austrians prevailed on the new possessor of Sicily to exchange it for Sar-

dinia, and added the former to the kingdom of Naples. The war of 1734, however, transferred the crown of the two Sicilies to a branch of the royal family of Spain, and it remained in their hands till 1799, when the royal family were expelled from Naples. The latter took refuge in Sicily, were afterward restored to Naples, but again compelled to take refuge in Sicily.

The acquisition of Sicily is said to have been a primary object with Napoleon, but an attempt at invasion in 1810 was baffled by the British troops. In 1815, the overthrow of Murat led to the restoration of the Bourbons to the throne of Naples. Under their rule, Sicily has been deprived of many of its ancient rights. In 1848 the island rose in insurrection, but was soon reduced. In 1860, Garibaldi occupied the island; Victor Emanuel entered Palermo Dec. 1st, and Sicily became part of the kingdom of Italy.

KINGS OF THE TWO SICILIES.

- 1713. Victor Amadeus, Duke of Savoy; he exchanged Sicily for Sardinia in 1718.
- 1718. Charles VI. of Austria, Emperor of Germany.
- 1734. Charles (Bourbon), second son of the King of Spain; upon the death of his brother, Ferdinand VI., he succeeded to the throne of Spain, renouncing Sicily and Naples to his third son, then only eight years of age.
- 1759. Ferdinand IV., third son of Charles; married Caroline, daughter of Maria Theresa of Austria.
- 1806. Joseph Bonaparte: transferred to the Spanish throne.
- 1808. Joachim Murat: shot Oct. 13th, 1815.
- 1815. Ferdinand I.: formerly Ferdinand IV. of Naples, and intermediately Ferdinand III. of Sicily: now of the United Kingdom of the two Sicilies.
- 1825. Francis I., son of Ferdinand.
- 1830. Ferdinand II., son of Francis.

SIDDONS, SARAH, the greatest of English actresses, was born at Brecknock in South Wales, July 14th, 1755, the daughter of Roger Kemble. She married Mr. Siddons, an actor in her father's family, in 1773. Her career of dramatic triumph commenced with her second appearance in London, Oct. 10th, 1782. Seven years before, she had ventured with ill success, upon the metropolitan boards in the character of Portia. Now, as Isabella, in "The Fatal Marriage," she laid the corner stone of her fame. She retired from the stage in 1812, and died June 8th, 1831. She was a woman of much personal beauty and

dignity; her voice was very melodious, and her mental endowments were of a high order. Her style of acting was grand, noble, and natural.

SIDNEY, ALGERNON, was the second son of Robert, Earl of Leicester, by Dorothy, daughter of the Earl of Northumberland, and was born about 1621. He became a colonel in the army of the parliament, a member of the house of commons, and was nominated one of the king's judges, but did not sign the warrant for his execution. The same principles, however, which led him to oppose Charles, made him hostile to Cromwell. In 1659 he was one of the commissioners sent to mediate between Denmark and Sweden. On the restoration, Sidney remained abroad till 1677, when he received a conditional pardon; but in 1683, being implicated in what was called the Rye-House plot, he was arraigned before Chief-justice Jeffreys, and found guilty, though the evidence was defective, and in every sense illegal. He suffered death with great firmness upon Tower Hill, on the 7th of December the same year, glorying in his martyrdom for that old cause in which he had been engaged from his youth. He was firm to republican principles.

SIDNEY, Sir PHILIP, the author of "The Arcadia," "Defense of Poesy," "Astrophel and Stella," &c., was born Nov. 29th, 1554, at Penshurst, in Kent, the seat of his father, Sir Henry Sidney, who was the friend of Edward VI., and in the reign of Elizabeth became lord deputy of Ireland. The mother of Sir Philip was Mary, daughter of the Duke of Northumberland. He made while young the tour of the greater part of Europe, and in 1575 returned to England, where he became one of the brightest ornaments of the court of Queen Elizabeth.

In 1580 a tournament was held at court, where, though Sidney displayed his prowess to great advantage, the victory was adjudged to the Earl of Oxford. This produced a challenge from Sidney; but the duel being prevented by the queen's commands, our ruffled hero retired to Wilton, the seat of his brother-in-law, the Earl of Pembroke, and there wrote "The Arcadia." In 1585 Sidney was named as a candidate for the kingdom of Poland, but Elizabeth interposed her

authority against it, "refusing," says the historian Camden, "to further his advancement, out of fear that she should lose the jewel of her times."

The Protestants of the Netherlands having solicited the assistance of England to relieve them from the Spanish yoke, a military force was sent over under the command of Sir Philip, who on his arrival at Flushing, was appointed colonel of all the Dutch regiments. Not long after, his uncle, the Earl of Leicester, joined him with additional troops, and Sidney was promoted to the rank of general of the horse.

On the 22d of September, 1586, he fell in with a convoy sent by the enemy to Zutphen, and though the English troops were inferior to the enemy, they gained the victory; but it was dearly purchased by the loss of their commander, who, after one horse was shot under him, mounted another, and continued the fight, till he received a fatal ball in the left thigh. As he was borne from the field, languid with the loss of blood, he asked for water, but just as the bottle was put to his lips, seeing a dying soldier looking wistfully at it, he resigned it, saying, "Thy necessity is yet greater than mine." He died on the 19th of October. His death was lamented both at home and abroad. His bravery and chivalrous magnanimity, his grace and polish of manner, the purity of his morals, his learning and refinement of taste, had won him love and esteem wherever he was known. By the direction of Elizabeth, his remains were conveyed to London, and honored with a public funeral in old St. Paul's.

SILISTRIA, a strong fortified town on the Danube, in Bulgaria, a province of Turkey. It was taken by the Russians in 1829, after nine months' siege, and held some years by them as a pledge for the payment of a large sum by Turkey, but was eventually given up. In May, 1854, it was besieged by a strong Russian force, but the Turks held it against fearful assaults, and assuming the offensive, forced the raising of the siege, June 15th. The loss of the Russians was enormous. The town and its defenses were battered almost to ruins.

SILK. Wrought silk was brought from Persia to Greece, 325 B.C. It was known at Rome in the time of Tiberias, when the sen-

ate forbade the use of plate of massy gold, and also that men should debase themselves by wearing silk, fit only for women. Helio-gabalus first wore a garment of silk, A.D. 220. Silk was at first worth its weight in gold, and was thought to grow like cotton. Silk-worms were brought from India to Europe in the sixth century. Charlemagne sent Offa, King of Mercia, a present of two silken vests, A.D. 780. At Palermo, 1130, the Sicilians bred the worms, and spun and wove the silk. The manufacture spread into Italy and Spain, and also into the south of France, about 1510. Henry IV. propagated mulberry-trees and silk-worms throughout France, in 1589. Silken mantles were worn by some high-born English ladies at a ball at Kenilworth Castle, 1286. Silk was worn by the English clergy in 1534. Manufactured in England in 1604, and broad silk woven from raw silk in 1620. Brought to great perfection by the French refugees at Spitalfields, 1688.

SIMNEL, LAMBERT, an impostor in the reign of Henry VII. of England, 1486, that pretended to be the Duke of York, son of Edward IV., who with his brother was smothered in the Tower by order of Richard III. The rebellion was soon suppressed: Lambert was discovered to be a baker's son, and was only punished by promotion to an office in the royal kitchen.

SINOPE (SIXOUB), an ancient seaport of Asia Minor, on the Black Sea, formerly capital of the kingdom of Pontus, and the reputed birth-place of Diogenes. Nov. 30th, 1853, the Turkish fleet lying here was attacked by a superior Russian armament, and totally burnt or sunk, except one vessel which escaped to Constantinople with tidings of the disaster. The Turks fought with desperate valor. Four thousand lives were lost by fire or drowning, and Osman Pacha, the Turkish admiral, died at Sebastopol of his wounds. The town and citadel were demolished. In consequence of this event, the English and French fleets entered the Black Sea, Jan. 3d, 1854.

SIXTUS V., pope, was born in 1521, in the signory of Montalto, where his father, Pereto Peretti, was a poor vine-dresser. He was christened Felix. At the age of fourteen, he was allowed to make his profession,

and in 1545 he received priest's orders, and took the name of Father Montalto. His popularity as a preacher procured him many friends, and in 1555 he was appointed inquisitor-general at Venice; where, however, he gave so much offense by his severity, as to be obliged to return to Rome. Pius V. made him general of his order, next Bishop of St. Agatha, and in 1570 raised him to the purple. Hitherto Montalto had been remarked for his haughty demeanor, but now he assumed quite an opposite character, and appeared all humility, meekness, and condescension. He carried this hypocrisy so far, as to treat his family with neglect, telling them, "that he was dead to his relations and the world." He took no part in political contentions, and the other cardinals were so completely imposed upon by him, that they called him "The ass of La Marca." In this way he went on several years, adding to his deceit, the pretense of bodily infirmities. At length Gregory XIII. died, in 1585, and the election of a new pope was contested between three cardinals, whose respective interests were so equal, that they agreed to choose Montalto; but when they informed him of their intention, he fell into such a fit of coughing, that they thought he would have expired. The election, however, took place, and no sooner was it announced, than the pope threw his staff into the middle of the chapel, and began the "Te Deum" with a loud voice, to the astonishment of all who heard him. He took the name of Sixtus V., and though he administered justice with rigorous severity, the relaxed state of manners called for it, and no one could tax him with partiality. Among other things, he caused the Vulgate edition of the Bible to be revised, and he even went so far as to have an Italian version of it printed, which excited great alarm among bigoted Catholics. Toward foreign powers he behaved with spirit, and took away from their ambassadors the liberty of granting protections, saying that he was determined no one should reign at Rome but himself. His private character was free from reproach, and the only faults charged upon him were, the hypocritical course he took to gain the papacy, and the inexorable rigor with which he acted while he enjoyed it. He died August 27th, 1590.

SIX NATIONS. The Mohawks, Senecas, Cayugas, Oneidas, and Onondagas, important tribes of Indians in New York when the French and English came, were banded together in a powerful confederacy, called by the French the Iroquois, by the Dutch the Maquas, and by the English the Five Nations. Early in the eighteenth century the Tuscaroras migrated from North Carolina and joined the union, which thus came to be known as the Six Nations. The Mohawks were the leading tribe.

SLOANE, Sir HANS, was born in Ireland in 1660. He was bred to medicine, acquired a high reputation, and was physician to George II. He devoted much time and research to his favorite sciences of botany and natural history. Upon his death in 1752, he bequeathed his great accumulation of objects of natural history, art, and antiquities, together with his large library, to the British nation, on condition that his daughters should be paid £20,000. The collection and library cost him £50,000. Parliament accepted the offer, and having already acquired the Harleian MSS. and the Cottonian library, placed all in Montagu House, which they purchased for the purpose; and thus the British Museum had its origin.

SMALLWOOD, WILLIAM, a native of Maryland, was appointed a brigadier by Congress in 1776, and a major-general in 1780. His command suffered severely at the battle of Long Island; it was chiefly composed of young men from Maryland. Gen. Smallwood served at Brandywine and Germantown, and accompanied Gates to his disastrous southern campaign. In 1785 he was a delegate in Congress from Maryland, and was chosen governor the same year. He died in February, 1792.

SMEATON, JOHN, an eminent civil engineer in England, the constructor of the Eddystone lighthouse, born at Leeds in 1724, died Oct. 28th, 1792.

SMITH, ADAM, a great Scotch philosopher and political economist, was born at Kirkcaldy in Fifeshire, June 5th, 1723. He occupied the chair of logic and moral philosophy in the university of Glasgow. Resigning his professorship in 1763, he gave himself to the production of his great work, "An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth

of Nations," which appeared in 1766. He died at Edinburgh, July 8th, 1790.

SMITH, JAMES, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Ireland between 1715 and 1720; he would never give the date of his birth. He was educated at Philadelphia, studied law, and eventually settled at York. In 1774 he was a member of an assembly of delegates from all the counties of Pennsylvania, and, in January, 1775, of the Pennsylvanian convention. Being elected a member of Congress, he retained his seat in that body until November, 1778. He died July 11th, 1806.

SMITH, JOHN, was born at Willoughby, in Lincolnshire, England, in 1579. He early displayed a roving disposition, and was fond of feats of daring. On the death of his father, he was apprenticed to a merchant of Lynn, whom he soon quitted to enter the service of a nobleman who was going to the continent. At Orleans he was discharged with money to defray the expenses of his voyage home; but meeting with a Scotchman in the Low Countries, where he had enlisted as a soldier, he was persuaded to go to Scotland, and promised the countenance of King James. Disappointed in his expectations he returned to his native town, but finding no agreeable companions, he built himself a hut in the woods, and studied works on the military art, occasionally amusing himself with his horse and lance.

In 1596 he again set out on his travels, going first to Flanders and thence to France, where he fell in with some pilgrims at Marseilles, and set sail in their company for Italy. The pilgrims, however, attributing the storm which overtook them to the presence of a heretic, threw overboard Smith, who saved his life by swimming to the island of St. Mary, off Nice. He was befriended by a shipmaster, who took him to Alexandria, whence he coasted the Levant, and assisted in the capture of a Venetian ship. With his share of the prize-money, he made the tour of Italy, and then entered the Austrian service, having command of a company of horse, with which he accompanied the Transylvanian army against the Turks.

At the siege of Regal, the lord Turbisha challenged any Christian commander to fight with him in presence of the ladies for their

particular amusement. The duty of encountering this champion devolved by lot upon Smith, who killed him, struck off his head, and bore it in triumph to the general of the Transylvanian army. A friend of Turbisha now sent Smith a challenge which he accepted. They fought, as before, in the presence of the ladies, who witnessed the defeat of the Turk, and his decapitation by Smith. The latter now sent word to the Ottomans, that, for the further gratification of their ladies, he would encounter any champion whom they might select. One Bonomalgro accepted the challenge, and, in the combat which took place, Smith, although stricken to the ground, regained his saddle at a fortunate moment, and severed the infidel's head from his body. These brilliant exploits procured him a sort of military triumph, after the manner of the Romans, a splendid horse and sabre, and a major's commission. On the capture of Regal, the Prince of Transylvania gave Smith his miniature set in gold, a pension, and a coat of arms with three Turk's heads in a shield.

After this he was taken prisoner, and made the slave of the mistress of a pacha who resided at Constantinople. This lady fell in love with the Christian hero, and sent him for safety to her brother, a pacha on the borders of the Sea of Azoph. This dignitary, suspecting the passion of his sister, treated Smith with great severity, but the latter found an opportunity to kill his tyrant, and, mounting the fine charger of his fallen foe, he made his way into Russia, whence he traveled through Germany, France, Spain, and Morocco, from which latter place he returned to England. On the 19th of December, 1606, he sailed for America, with Gosnold's expedition, letters patent having been obtained and a council nominated for the colony of Virginia. After some time the weight of the administration of the Jamestown settlement devolved upon Smith, who was ever active and energetic. But while exploring James River, he was taken prisoner by the Indian chief Powhatan, and doomed to death; from which he was saved only by the courageous interposition of Pocahontas, Powhatan's daughter, who procured his liberation.

Smith, having been elected president of the colony, ably discharged the arduous du-

ties imposed upon him, although its inevitable difficulties were increased by mutiny and the hostility of the Indians. In 1609 he returned to England; but in 1614 he commanded an expedition of discovery to North Virginia, now New England. The next two vessels belonging to the council of Plymouth, of which he had obtained the command, were driven to England by stress of weather. He next had command of a small vessel, which was seized by French men-of-war under pretense of piracy; but was released after being detained some time. He now traveled about endeavoring to enlist men of note in his schemes for colonizing America, but without success. He urged upon Queen Anne (the wife of James I.) the propriety of rewarding Pocahontas, who had been brought to England; and he published a history of Virginia and an account of his various voyages and hardships. He died in London, in 1631, in the fifty-second year of his age.

SMITH, JOSEPH, the founder of the sect of the Mormons, was born December, 1805, in Sharon, Vt., removed with his father, about 1815, to Palmyra, N. Y., and assisted on the farm till 1826. He received little education, read indifferently, wrote and spelt badly, knew little of arithmetic, and in all other branches of learning he was, to the day of his death, exceedingly ignorant. His own account of his religious progress is, that as early as fifteen years of age he began to have serious ideas concerning the future state; that he fell into occasional ecstasies; and that in 1823, during one of these ecstasies, he was visited by an angel, who told him that his sins were forgiven,—that the time was at hand when the gospel in its fullness was to be preached to all nations,—that the American Indians were a remnant of Israel, who, when they first came to this continent, were an enlightened people possessing a knowledge of the true God, and enjoying his favor,—that the prophets and inspired writers among them had kept a history or record of their proceedings,—that these records were safely deposited,—and that if faithful, he was to be the favored instrument for bringing them to light. On the following day, according to instructions from his angelic familiar, he went to a hill which he calls Cumorah in Palmyra, and there in a stone chest, after a little dig-

ging, he saw the records; but it was not till September, 1827, that "the angel of the Lord delivered the records into his hands."

"These records were engraved on plates which had the appearance of gold, were seven by eight inches in size, and thinner than common tin, and were covered on both sides with Egyptian characters, small and beautifully engraved. They were bound together in a volume like the leaves of a book, and were fastened at one edge with three rings running through the whole. The volume was about six inches in thickness, bore many marks of antiquity, and part of it was sealed. With the records was found a curious instrument, called by the ancients Urim and Thummim, which consisted of two transparent stones, clear as crystal, and set in two rims of a bow"—a pair of pebble spectacles, in other words, or "helps to read unknown tongues."

By the "gift and power of God," through the means of the Urim and Thummim, he translated the records, and "being a poor writer, he employed a scribe to write the translation as it came from his mouth." In 1830 a large edition of the "Book of Mormon" was published. It professes to be an abridgment of the records made by the prophet Mormon, of the people of the Nephites, and left to his son Moroni to finish. It was written, there is good reason to believe, by a clergyman named Spaulding, about 1812. Smith having obtained the MS., resolved to palm it off as a new revelation.

In this he was well abetted by one Rigdon. In 1830 they organized a church at Kirtland, Ohio. In 1831-2 they founded Zion, in Jackson county, Missouri. From 1833 to 1839 the sect endured much persecution, and driven from place to place, were compelled to travel westward; till in 1840-1 the city Nauvoo was laid out on the Mississippi, in Illinois, where a temple was built. In 1844 Joseph and his brother Hiram, when in prison on a charge of treason, were shot by an infuriated mob, and Brigham Young was chosen seer.

In 1845, the Mormons being much harassed by their neighbors, departure from Nauvoo was determined on, and the Great Salt Lake was chosen "for an everlasting abode," and taken possession of, July 24th,

1847. In 1849 the valley was surveyed by order of the United States government, and in 1850 the colony had attained to great prosperity. The provisional government was abolished the same year, and Utah territory organized, Brigham Young being appointed the first governor.

The Mormons command payment of tithes, honor and encourage labor, permit and praise polygamy, and believe in the power of their leaders to work miracles. Missionaries are sent to all parts of the globe, and the sect receives large accessions from Europe. In 1857 the Mormons and the United States government came in collision, and an armed force was sent into the territory. Bloodshed, however, was avoided, for the 'saints' yielded after much bluster.

SMITH, SAMUEL STANHOPE, D.D., LL.D., an eminent Presbyterian clergyman, and president of Princeton College; he died in 1819, aged sixty-nine.

SMITH, SYDNEY, who for half a century was conspicuous as critic and political writer, was born at Woodford, county of Essex, England, in 1768. He received an excellent education at Winchester, where his scholastic triumphs won him a fellowship at Oxford; and commenced his clerical life as curate of Netheravon, Wilts, a wild and desolate parish. He soon relinquished it in order to travel with the son of Mr. Beach, member of parliament for Cirencester. This event and its results, he has humorously described: "When first I went into the church, I had a curacy in the middle of Salisbury Plain. The squire of the parish took a fancy to me, and requested me to go with his son to reside at the university of Weimar. Before we could get there, Germany became the seat of war, and in stress of politics we put into Edinburgh, where I remained five years. The principles of the French revolution were then fully afloat, and it is impossible to conceive a more violent and agitated state of society. Among the first persons with whom I became acquainted were Lord Jeffrey, Lord Murray (late lord advocate for Scotland), and Lord Brougham; all of them maintaining opinions on political subjects a little too liberal for the dynasty of Dundas, then exercising supreme power over the northern division of the island. One day we happened

to meet in the eighth or ninth story or flat in Buccleuch place, the elevated residence of the then Mr. Jeffrey; I proposed that we should set up a Review; this was acceded to with acclamation. I was appointed editor, and remained long enough in Edinburgh to edit the first number of the *Edinburgh Review*. The motto I proposed for the *Review* was—

Tenui musam meditatur avena—

We cultivate literature upon a little oatmeal.

But this was too near the truth to be admitted, and we took our present grave motto from Publius Syrus, of whom none of us, I am sure, had ever read a single line; and so began what has since turned out to be a very important and able journal. When I left Edinburgh it fell into the stronger hands of Lord Jeffrey and Lord Brougham, and reached the highest point of popularity and success."

Smith left Edinburgh for London, where he became a popular preacher, and also gained fame for eloquence and wit as a lecturer upon *belles lettres* at the Royal Institution. Throughout his life his pen was busy in political effusions. It is said that his amusing "Letters of Peter Plymley" did more toward effecting Catholic emancipation than any, and perhaps all, of the many other publications upon the subject.

He was for several years rector of Combe Florey, in Somersetshire, and afterward canon residentiary of St. Paul's. He died in 1845, aged seventy-six.

SMITH, WILLIAM, D.D., eminent for eloquence and the advancement of literature; for many years provost of the college of Philadelphia, and died in 1803.

SMITH, Sir WILLIAM SYDNEY (commonly called Sir Sydney Smith), was born in 1764. At twelve years of age he was a midshipman under Lord Rodney, and before he was twenty, a post-captain. In an attempt to cut out a French ship at Havre, he was taken prisoner; and under a charge that he had violated the law of nations by landing assassins in France, he was immured in the prison of the Temple at Paris, for two years. He was released through the address and intrepidity of Philippeaux, a French officer. An order of the minister was forged, directing the gaoler to deliver Smith, to be transferred to another prison. The gaoler obeyed, and false passports bore Smith and Philippeaux

to Rouen. In an open boat they hurried out into the channel, and were picked up by a British frigate.

In 1798 Commodore Smith was dispatched with an independent command to the coast of Egypt. His aid enabled the Turks to hold Acre, and the plans of Napoleon were baffled. He was prominent in the operations by which the French were expelled from Egypt, and to the close of the war, displayed conspicuous gallantry and skill. In 1814 he was made a knight commander of the Bath, and received a pension of £1,000 a year. He subsequently rose to the rank of admiral. He endeavored to procure from the congress of Vienna, the abolition of the slave trade, and a joint attack of the European powers upon the piratical states of Barbary; but fruitlessly. He formed at Paris an association called the Anti-Piratic, whose influence was afterward seen in the subjugation of Algiers. Few characters in modern history are so chivalric as Sir Sydney Smith. He died at his residence in Paris, May 26th, 1840.

SMITHSON, JAMES, an illegitimate son of the Duke of Northumberland in England, died in 1829, bequeathing the bulk of his large property to the United States "to found at Washington, under the name of the Smithsonian Institution, an establishment for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men."

SMOLENSKO, a considerable town of European Russia, and capital of the government of the same name. The Russians made, here, their first serious opposition to the advance of the French, in the campaign of 1812. An obstinate conflict took place on the 16th and 17th of August, in which the town was bombarded, and set on fire. The Russians were compelled to fall back, and the French extinguished the flames. On quitting it in their disastrous retreat in November following, they blew up part of the works.

SMOLLETT, TOBIAS GEORGE, a celebrated novelist, was born near Renton in Dumbartonshire, in 1721. He was bred a physician, but made literature his profession. He died near Leghorn, Oct. 21st, 1771.

SOBIESKI, JOHN, was born in Galicia in 1629. He acquired great renown by his successes over the Turks, and on the death of

Michael in 1674, he was chosen King of Poland. The Turks still assailed their western neighbors, and to Sobieski Europe owed a series of splendid victories which checked the progress and broke the iron power of the Moslem. To him at the battle of Vienna, in 1683, Austria was indebted for her deliverance at the hour of her extremity. With what abominable ingratitude has she repaid her debt to Poland! We can not withhold from the reader a sketch of this momentous battle.

The Turks offered not the least opposition to the Poles as they crossed the bridge, and all the imperial troops were safely assembled on the western side of the Danube by the 7th of September, and amounted to about 70,000 men. They could hear from Tulu the roar of the Turkish cannon. Vienna was, in fact, reduced almost to its last gasp. Most of the garrison were either killed or wounded, and disease was making even greater ravages than the enemy's balls. "The grave continued open without ever closing its mouth." As early as the 22d of August, the officers had estimated that they could not withstand a general attack three days. If the vizier had pursued his advantage, Vienna must have fallen into his hands. But it was his object to avoid taking it by storm, in which case the plunder would be carried off by the soldiers; whereas, if he could oblige it to surrender, he might appropriate its spoil to his own use. So careless was he, too, in his confidence, that he had not yet ascertained that the Poles were arrived, till they were in his immediate vicinity; and when the news was afterward brought to him that the King of Poland was advancing, "The King of Poland!" said he, laughing, "I know, indeed, that he has sent Lubomirski with a few squadrons."

The governor, Starembourg, who had assured the Duke of Lorraine that "he would not surrender the place but with the last drop of his blood," began himself to despair of being longer able to hold out. A letter which he wrote at this period contained only these words: "No more time to lose, my lord, no more time to lose."

The imperial army set out on the 9th of September for Vienna, but they had a march of fourteen miles to make across a ridge of

mountains, over which the Germans could not drag their cannon, and were therefore obliged to leave them behind. The Poles were more persevering, for they succeeded in getting over twenty-eight pieces, which were all they had to oppose to the three hundred of the enemy.

On the 11th of September they reached Mount Calemberg, the last which separated them from the Turks. From this hill, the Christians were presented with one of the finest and most dreadful prospects of the greatness of human power,—an immense plain and all the islands of the Danube covered with pavilions, whose magnificence seemed rather calculated for an encampment of pleasure than the hardships of war; an innumerable multitude of horses, camels, and buffaloes; 200,000 men all in motion; swarms of Tartars dispersed along the foot of the mountain in their usual confusion; the fire of the besiegers incessant and terrible, and that of the besieged such as they could contrive to make; in fine, a great city distinguishable only by the tops of the steeples, and the fire and smoke that covered it. But Sobieski was not imposed on by this formidable sight. "This man," said he, "is badly encamped; he knows nothing of war; we shall certainly beat him." The eagle eye of the experienced warrior was not mistaken.

On the eve of the battle, he wrote to the queen in these words: "We can easily see that the general of an army who has neither thought of intrenching himself nor concentrating his forces, but lies encamped there as if we were a hundred miles from him, is predestined to be beaten."

Sunday, the 12th of September, 1683, was the important day, big with the fate of Leopold, that was to decide whether the Turkish crescent should wave on the turrets of Vienna. The cannonade on the city began at the break of day, for which purpose the vizier on his part had withdrawn from his army the janizaries, all his infantry, and nearly all his artillery. The light cavalry, the Spahis, the Tartars, and other irregular troops, were the forces destined to encounter the enemy; so egregiously did Kara Mustapha miscalculate the strength of his opponents. They were commanded by Ibrahim Pacha, who was regarded by the Turks as one of the greatest

generals of the age; but, unfortunately for them, he was one of those who disapproved the war, and particularly the present plan of it. At eight in the morning there was some skirmishing; at eleven the Christian army was drawn up in array in the plain; and Kara Mustapha, beginning to apprehend that the allies were more formidable than he anticipated, had changed his design, and came to command his troops in person. He was stationed in the centre, and Sobieski occupied the same situation in his army.

It was nearly five in the evening, and the engagement had only been partial; for Sobieski's infantry had not come up, and the vizier was to be seen under a superb crimson tent, quietly sipping coffee, while the King of Poland was before him. At length the infantry arrived, and Sobieski ordered them to seize an eminence which commanded the vizier's position. The promptitude and gallantry with which this manœuvre was executed decided the fate of the day. Kara Mustapha, taken by surprise at this unexpected attack, ordered all his infantry to his right wing, and the movement put all the line in confusion. The king cried out that they were lost men; he ordered the Duke of Lorraine to attack the centre, which was now exposed and weakened, while he himself made his way through the confused Turks straight for the vizier's tent. He was instantly recognized by the streamers which adorned the lances of his guard. "By Allah!" exclaimed the cham of the Tartars, "the king is with them!" An eclipse of the moon added to the consternation of the superstitious Moslems. At this moment the Polish cavalry made a grand charge, and at the same time the Duke of Lorraine with his troops added to the confusion; and the rout of the Turks became general. The vizier in vain tried to rally them. "And you," said he to the cham of the Tartars, who passed him among the fugitives, "can not you help me?" "I know the King of Poland!" was the answer. "I told you that if we had to deal with him, all we could do would be to run away. Look at the sky; see if God is not against us." The immense Turkish army was wholly broken up, and Vienna was saved.

So sudden and general was the panic among the Turks, that by six o'clock Sobieski

had taken possession of their camp. One of the vizier's stirrups, finely enameled, was brought to him. "Take this stirrup," said he, "to the queen, and tell her that the person to whom it belonged is defeated." Having strictly forbidden his soldiers from plundering, they rested under the Turkish tents.

Such were the events of the famous deliverance of Vienna as they were seen by a looker-on; and the outline of the narrative is filled up by one who was the best informed, and not the least impartial, no less than the great hero himself. "The victory has been so sudden and extraordinary," he writes to the queen, "that the city, as well as the camp, was in continual alarm, expecting to see the enemy return every moment. Night put an end to the pursuit, and besides, the Turks defended themselves with fury in their flight. All the troops have done their duty well; they attribute the victory to God and us. At the moment when the enemy began to give ground (and the greatest shock was where I was stationed, opposite the vizier), all the cavalry of the rest of the army advanced toward me on the right wing, the centre and the left wing having as yet but little to do. The emperor is about a mile and a half distant. He is coming down the Danube in a chalupe; but I perceive he has no great wish to see me, perhaps on account of the etiquette. I am very glad to avoid these ceremonies; we have been treated with nothing else up to this time. Our darling is brave in the highest degree."

On the following day John made his entrance into Vienna. The breach made by the Turks, and through which they expected to march to the destruction of the city, was the road which admitted its deliverer. The citizens received him with undisguised expressions of gratitude; and, stern warrior as he was, Sobieski shed a tear of joy at receiving the thanks and acclamations of the victims whom he had rescued from destruction. "Never," said he, "did the crown yield me pleasure like this!" The people could not help comparing him with their own disgraceful sovereign, and exclaiming, "Ah! why is not this our master?" With difficulty could the stern looks of the emperor's officers check these natural expressions of feeling. But Sobieski did not arrogate to himself only the

glory of the victory; he went to the cathedral to return thanks, and began to sing the *Te Deum* himself. A sermon was afterward delivered, and the preacher chose the following text for the occasion: "There was a man sent from God, whose name was John."

He died of apoplexy, June 17th, 1696, after a reign of twenty-two years; and was justly considered the most accomplished sovereign that ever sat on the throne of Poland.

SOCINUS, FAUSTUS, founder of the Socinian sect, was born at Sienna in 1539, and died near Cracow in 1604. His uncle Lælius, who died at Zurich in 1562, aged thirty-seven, held views somewhat similar.

SOCRATES, the most celebrated philosopher of all antiquity, was a native of Athens. Philosophy soon became the study of Socrates; and under Archelaus and Anaxagoras he laid the foundation of that exemplary virtue which succeeding ages have ever loved and venerated. He appeared like the rest of his countrymen in the field of battle; he fought with boldness and intrepidity; and to his courage two of his friends and disciples, Xenophon and Alcibiades, owed the preservation of their lives. But the character of Socrates appears more conspicuous and dignified as a philosopher and moralist, than as a warrior. His principles were enforced by the unparalleled example of an affectionate husband, a tender parent, a warlike soldier, and a patriotic citizen, in his own person. He was born B.C. 470, and died B.C. 400, being unjustly condemned to death. Plato, who was one of his disciples, reverently entitled him, "the best of all men of this time, the wisest and most just of all men."

SOLOON, one of the seven wise men of Greece, was born at Salamis, and educated at Athens. After he had devoted part of his time to philosophical and political studies, Solon traveled over the greatest part of Greece, but at his return home he was distressed with the dissensions which were kindled among his countrymen. All fixed their eyes upon Solon as a deliverer, and he was unanimously elected archon and sovereign legislator. He flourished about 600 B.C.

SOLYMAN II., the Great, succeeded his father Selim I., as Sultan of Turkey in 1520. Gazelles, governor of Syria, rebelling after

the death of Selim, and having made himself master of a part of Egypt, was defeated by Solyman's generals, who himself resolved to turn his arms against the Christians. Accordingly, in 1521 he took Belgrade, and the next year Rhodes. This victory was followed by the revolt of the Egyptians and some other nations, which were defeated by Ibrahim Bassa; and Solyman, in the mean time, being advanced with his army into Hungary, won the battle of Mohatz, in 1526, where Lewis II. of Hungary lost his life in a morass. He made several other expeditions into this kingdom, where he took Buda, Pest, Gran, and some other places, and died there himself at the siege of Zigeth or Sigeth, the 4th of September, 1566, being seventy-two years of age. In 1529 Solyman besieged Vienna, but without success; and in 1535, he took and plundered Tauris; and his generals subdued several cities and provinces in Europe, Asia, and Africa. Besides his career of war, he improved the administration of Turkey, encouraged learning, opened roads, erected caravansaries, hospitals, and libraries, and in other ways evinced an enlightened policy.

SOMERS, JOHN, Lord, a famous English lawyer and statesman, was born at Worcester, March 4th, 1650. In 1688 he was one of the counsel for the seven bishops; and being chosen a member of the convention parliament, he distinguished himself at the conference of the two houses, on the question about the abdication of the throne. When the new government was established, he became, successively, solicitor general and attorney-general, and in 1693 lord-keeper. He was next raised to the peerage, appointed chancellor, and rewarded with lands in the county of Surrey. In 1700 he was deprived of the seals, and soon after impeached by the Commons; but a misunderstanding arising between the two houses, the Lords pronounced a verdict of acquittal. Lord Somers projected the union between England and Scotland, and was one of the managers appointed to carry that measure into effect. In 1708 he was made president of the council, but went out of office again in 1710: after which he led a retired life, and died April 26th, 1716.

SOPHOCLES was born in the vicinity of Athens, B.C. 495. At the age of twenty-seven

he bore the prize away from Æschylus, who for thirty years had been the master of the Athenian stage. Twenty-seven years after, Sophocles was surpassed by Euripides. Sophocles died after completing his ninetyeth year. Of the one hundred and thirteen plays that he wrote, only seven, with some fragments, have descended to us. In his hands the Athenian tragedy reached its highest perfection.

SOTHEBY, WILLIAM, was distinguished as a translator. Some of his principal works are, *Oberon*, from the German of Wieland; the *Georgics* of Virgil translated into English verse; and the translation of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* of Homer, in four volumes octavo, with the designs of Flaxman. Mr. Sotheby died in London, Dec. 30th, 1833, aged seventy-six.

He was upward of seventy years old when he commenced his spirited and faithful version of Homer.

SOULT, NICOLE JEAN DE DIEUX, was born in 1769, and entered the army in 1785. His skill and bravery won him rapid promotion; he was the first of the marshals whom Napoleon created in 1804, and as Duke of Dalmatia he was the first of the marshals who were ennobled. He showed great energy and talent in contending with Wellington in Spain, though the latter drove him into France. Soult fought for Bonaparte at Waterloo, and for a time was proscribed by the Bourbons. Ultimately he was restored to his dignities. He died Nov. 26th, 1851.

SOUTH, ROBERT, an eminent English divine, was born at Hackney in 1633, and educated at Westminster school, and Christ Church, Oxford. He had a controversy with Sherlock concerning the Trinity, and both parties were charged with heresy. South was a man of great wit. His sermons are original and forcible. He died in 1716.



SOUTH CAROLINA has an area of 28,000 square miles. In 1860 the population was 703,708, of whom 9,914 were free negroes, and 402,406 slaves. In form South Carolina is a triangle, wedged in between North Carolina and Georgia, with the Atlantic for a base.

A tract of great breadth, with occasional swamps, bounded on the east by the sea, is perfectly level; but proceeding inland we observe the land to become more elevated, and gradually to present an undulating and broken appearance. The low lands are an

unhealthy residence, but in the upper regions the inhabitants enjoy a salubrious climate.

The principal rivers, such as the Great Pedee, the Santee, and the Congaree, are navigable for small craft; in the lower part of their course they are shallow and obstructed by bars. Similar obstacles diminish the value of the harbors.

The southern part of the coast is skirted by a range of islands, separated from the main land by narrow channels, which afford an inland steamboat navigation from Charleston to Savannah. These islands, like the

neighboring continent are low and flat, but are covered with forests of live oak, pine, and palmettoes, and they yield the black-seed or Sea-Island cotton. Before the cultivation of cotton, many of them were the haunts of alligators, and their thick woods and rank weeds rendered them impenetrable to man. At present, they are under cultivation, and well inhabited; and as the voyager glides by their shores, he is enchanted with the prospect of their lively verdure, interspersed with thick clumps of palmettoes and flowering groves of orange-trees. The live oak, which is so called on account of its being an evergreen, is a noble tree, with a trunk sometimes twelve feet in girth; its long branches are spread horizontally, and festoons of moss hang from them almost sweeping the ground. The laurel is here seen covered with large white blossoms, shaped like a lily, and a foot in circumference. The long sandy beaches, which border these islands toward the sea, are covered with thousands of water-fowl.

Cotton and rice are the great agricultural staples; the former of which clothes more of mankind than either wool, flax, hemp, or silk, and the latter feeds more of the human race than any other grain. Rice was first sown in Carolina in 1693. There are no manufactures of any importance; but the commerce of the state is extensive: it consists of exports of her own raw produce, such as rice, cotton, tar, pitch, turpentine, and lumber, and of large quantities of the productions of North Carolina and Georgia, and in imports for home consumption.

South Carolina was granted to Lord Clarendon and others in 1663, but no permanent establishment was made until 1680. The celebrated John Locke drew up a plan of government for the colony, but it proved impracticable. In 1719 the proprietary government was done away, the two Carolinas were separated, and they were made royal colonies. During the Revolutionary war, this state was distinguished for its exertions in the good cause, which owed much to the bravery of Marion, Sumter, and Lee, all of whom were worthy of the military reputation they enjoyed. In 1780 and 1781 it was the theatre of important military operations, and was overrun by the British troops.

The present constitution was adopted in 1790. The governor is chosen for two years by the legislature, whose sessions are annual. He is not re-eligible for the next four years. The representatives and half the senators are chosen biennially. The constitution grants the right of suffrage to every free white male citizen of the age of twenty-one years, who has resided in the state two years, and has been possessed at least six months of a freehold of fifty acres of land or a town lot, or who has resided in the election district six months and paid a tax of three shillings sterling to the state the preceding year.

South Carolina was the first state to secede during the late rebellion. She had been in 1832 the hot-bed of nullification, and was now again the headquarters of disunionism. The state was for a long time comparatively free from the ravages of the war, owing to her distance from the principal areas of campaigning, but during Sherman's march northward from Savannah the Union troops lived at free quarters on the country, and inflicted upon South Carolina a considerable share of the horrors of war.

Columbia, the capital, is pleasantly situated on the Congaree, just below the junction of the Saluda and Broad Rivers. It is regularly laid out, with very wide streets, and is a neatly built town of 6,000 inhabitants. It was laid out in 1787. [See CHARLESTON.]

SOUTHEY, ROBERT, was one of the most voluminous and learned English authors of the century. A poet, scholar, antiquary, critic, and historian, he wrote more than even Scott, and it is said he burned more verses between his twentieth and thirtieth years than he published during his whole life. He was a native of Bristol, the son of a linen-draper, and was born Aug. 12th, 1774. He was indebted to a maternal uncle, Dr. Herbert, chaplain to the English factory at Lisbon, for most of his education, and in 1792, was admitted to Baliol College, Oxford, having passed with credit through Westminster school. He was designed for the church; but becoming a Jacobin in politics and a Socinian in religion, he left Oxford in 1794. The extreme opinions he then held were embodied in a drama called "Wat Tyler," which was long afterward published surreptitiously by a knavish bookseller, to annoy

its author. In 1794 he made the acquaintance of Coleridge; and, having already published poems in conjunction with his friend Lovell, he now, with his new ally, wrote "The Fall of Robespierre" and "Joan of Arc." In 1795 Southey married, at Bristol, Edith Fricker, the sister of Mrs. Coleridge and Mrs. Lovell. According to De Quincey, the poet, compelled by poverty, parted with his wife at the portico of the church immediately after the marriage, and set out to accompany an uncle to Lisbon. On his return in 1797, he published "Letters from Spain and Portugal." He was still reluctant to embrace literature as a profession. The study of law was commenced in London, but never zealously pursued, and gradually deserted altogether for literary study and composition. His circumstances were made easier by the friendship of Mr. Wynn, who allowed him an annuity of £160 till he obtained the laureateship. His youthful extremities of opinion were already, to all appearance, quite extinct; if he was not even far on the way toward that admiration of aristocratic principles and of the Anglican hierarchy, which, oddly mingled with liberal hobbies of his own, he entertained and uttered so vehemently in the later stages of his life.

In 1801 he accompanied Mr. Foster, chancellor of the exchequer, to Ireland, as private secretary; and the same year witnessed the publication of another epic, "Thalaba the Destroyer," an Arabian fiction of great beauty and magnificence. In 1803 he settled himself in a house called Greta Hall, near Keswick; and there he resided nearly forty years, laboring at his desk with the steadiness of a book-keeper, and dividing his time, easily and regularly, between the tasks by which he made his bread and the undertakings by which he hoped to gain immortality. In 1813 he was appointed poet-laureate, chiefly through the influence of Sir Walter Scott, who himself declined the place. His productions in this capacity won him little credit, and one of them, "The Vision of Judgment," cost him a merciless and witty castigation from Byron in a poem of the same name. His only certain source of income was his pension, from which he received £135, and the laureateship, which was £90: the larger portion of these two sums, however, went to

the payment of his life-insurance, so that not more than £100 could be calculated upon as available; and the *Quarterly Review* was therefore for many years his chief means of support. He received, latterly, £100 for an article, and commonly furnished one for each number. What more was needful had to be made up by his other works, which, as they were always published on the terms of the publisher taking the risk and sharing the profit, produced him but little, considering the length of time they were often in preparation; and as he was constantly adding new purchases to his library, but little was to be reckoned on this account. For the "Peninsular War" he received £1,000, but the copyright remained the property of the publisher. He was a most thoroughly domestic man, in that his whole pleasure and happiness centered in his home; but yet, from the course of his pursuits, his family necessarily saw but little of him. Every day, every hour, had its allotted employment; there were always engagements to publishers imperatively requiring punctual fulfillment; always the current expenses of a large household to take anxious thought for: he had no crops growing while he was idle. "My ways," he used to say, "are as broad as the king's high road, and my means lie in an inkstand."

But out of the gains of his steady toil, the industrious and kind-hearted man of letters supported one of his sisters-in-law for some time in his house, and the other for many years; while he brought up his family in respectability, and left at his death about twelve thousand pounds in cash and insurances, and a large and valuable library. His principal poems, besides those already mentioned, were "Madoc" (1805), "The Curse of Kehama" (1810), and "Roderick, the Last of the Goths" (1814). The first is inferior, but the latter two added largely to his already splendid reputation. His lives of Nelson and of Wesley were highly popular. His prose is excellent in style, easy and idiomatic, tasteful and clear, though wanting in point and tending to verbosity. "The Doctor," whose authorship was for a long time a mystery, was published anonymously in 1834: it has much that is clever and a great deal that is amusing; but it contains rather the collections of a reading man, than the

inventions or observations of a man of genius.

In 1835 Sir Robert Peel wrote to Southey, informing him that he had advised the king to "adorn the distinction of the baronetage with a name the most eminent in literature, and which had claims to respect and honor that literature could never confer,"—that of Southey. He accompanied this with a private letter, begging to know if there was any way in which the possession of power would enable him to be of service to Mr. Southey. The author declined the baronetcy, as he had not the means of supporting it, and asked for an increase of his pension, which was then £200. Sir Robert soon after added to this a new pension of £300, on the principle of "the recognition of literary and scientific eminence as a public claim." He conferred, at the same time, a similar pension on Prof. Airey, of Cambridge, Mrs. Somerville, Sharon Turner, and James Montgomery.

In 1837 the death of Mrs. Southey, after long affliction, deeply depressed her husband, already worn down by his many years of honorable toil. In 1839 he found an affectionate companion for his decline by wedding Miss Caroline Bowles, herself a well-known poetess. He was attacked by paralysis, his memory and other powers failed rapidly, and he had been imbecile a good while before his death, which took place March 21st, 1843.

A foible of Southey's was his fondness for cats. The merry nicknames he so profusely bestowed upon his human acquaintances were paralleled by those he gave his feline favorites. Whimsical mention of them abounds in his correspondence. Thus, in a letter to one of his daughters, he grieves to inform her of the "illness of his Serene Highness the Archduke Rumpelstilzchen, Marquis Macbun, Earl Tomlemagne, Baron Raticide, Waoughler and Skratsch. His Serene Highness is afflicted with the mange." And in 1837 he wrote to Mrs. Bray, "My cattery consists at present only of Thomas, Baron Chincilta, and Grey de Bychen, his spouse and half-sister, Knurra-Murra-Purra-Hurra-Skurra, and the older half-brother of both, who is an out-of-door freebooter, and whose name is Chaka-chekka-chikka-checka-chokka-choaka-chowski." In his liking for Grimalkin he is only equaled by the captain

with whom the novelist Fielding sailed to Lisbon. When a kitten fell overboard, he had the ship put about to save it, and when the unlucky animal was afterward suffocated in a feather-bed, his lamentations resembled an Irish howl.

SPAIN, an extensive country of Europe, separated by the Pyrenees from France, and surrounded by the Mediterranean, the Atlantic, and the Bay of Biscay, contains 177,718 square miles, and about 17,000,000 inhabitants. Spain is naturally one of the most fertile countries in the world. Its wines, silks, oil, wool, metals, and minerals; various fruits, as citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, almonds, and figs; and its famous horses,—are as valuable as they are celebrated. The principal mountains are the Pyrenees, between France and Spain; Montserrat in Catalonia; the mountains of the Asturias, those of the kingdom of Leon and New Castile; and the Sierra Morena in Andalusia. The principal rivers are the Douro, which rises in Old Castile, the Tagus, the Guadiana, and the Guadalquivir, all flowing into the ocean. The Ebro, whose sources are in the frontiers of Aragon, discharges itself into the Mediterranean.

The ancient provinces of Spain have been supplanted by new divisions, but as their names are historic, we give a list of them: Aragon, Asturias, Basque provinces, Old and New Castile, Catalonia, Cordova, Estremadura, Galicia, Granada, Jaen, Leon, Mercia, Navarre, Seville, and Valencia. A few colonial possessions have been preserved from the broad dominions once under Spanish rule in the Old World and the New; as, Cuba, Porto Rico, and some lesser islands in the West Indies, and the Philippines in the East Indies. The Balearic Isles (Majorca, Minorca, &c.), in the Mediterranean, and the Canaries in the Atlantic, belong to Spain, and form provinces of the kingdom. The commerce and manufactures, once so considerable, have shared the general decay.

The Roman Catholic is the established religion, and the only faith that is tolerated. Education is very scantily diffused, the poorer classes receiving little or none; the universities once so famous have sunk in repute and the number of students, and many have ceased to exist. The government of Spain

is a constitutional monarchy, the national legislature being called the Cortes.

Madrid, the capital of Spain, and of the ancient province of New Castile, has about 217,000 inhabitants. It is surrounded by a brick wall, twenty feet high, and entered by fifteen gates. As one approaches it, the many fantastic spires of churches and conventual buildings, the tiled roofs of the houses, the sterility of the neighborhood, and the want of villas and gardens such as usually mark the environs of a great city, give to Madrid a gloomy appearance. The interior is more comely. It was a mere village until the reign of Henry III. of Castile. The wild boar and the bear were abundant in the adjacent mountains, and his love of hunting them led him to make Madrid his residence during the season for the chase. Philip II. made it the capital of the Spanish dominions. We have only room for a list of other principal towns, with their population: Barcelona, 140,000; Valencia, 71,000; Carthagena, 28,000; Malaga, 66,000; Cadiz, 54,000; Corunna, 19,000; Ferrol, 16,000; Valladolid, 20,000; Saragossa, 40,500; Granada, 70,000; Cordova, 42,000; Toledo, 13,500; St. Jago de Compostella, 29,000; Seville, 85,000.

The towns which cover the primitive history of Spain, do not begin to be dissipated, till the period when the Phœnicians arrived, and formed establishments in the country, before uncivilized and unknown. It is supposed that they landed in the island of St. Peter, where they constructed the temple of Hercules, the remains of which are still to be seen when the sea ebbs more than usual. Soon afterward, the town of Gades, or Gadir, was erected; Calpe and Abyla became renowned for the two columns denominated the pillars of Hercules, on which the Phœnicians engraved the inscription, *Non plus ultra*.

The Greeks, the pupils of the Phœnicians in the art of navigation, did not fail to share with them the advantages of this discovery. They established an extensive commerce in Spain, and founded several cities, among the rest Ampurias and the unfortunate Saguntum; but the Carthaginians, possessing still greater skill and power, soon made themselves masters of the whole peninsula; and such they would have remained, had not the Romans, who alone were able to dispute with

them this brilliant conquest, at length succeeded in their efforts to wrest it from them. In the hope of escaping from servitude, the Spaniards sometimes endeavored to defend themselves; but more frequently, deceived by the phantom of a generous alliance, they faithfully promoted the views of their different oppressors.

Thus, three cities chose rather to perish than to surrender; Saguntum, from attachment to the Romans; Astapa in Bœtica, to the Carthaginians, and Numantia for the sake of liberty. Exhausted by all these calamities, Spain at length began to breathe, and by degrees to recruit her strength under the peaceable dominion of the Romans. Induced by the fertility of her soil, and the richness and variety of her productions, that people founded numerous colonies in Spain; military roads were opened in every quarter; aqueducts conveyed to the cities the tribute of the waters; triumphal arches reminded the conquerors of their glory; theatres and circuses effaced from the minds of the vanquished the memory of their misfortunes. Saguntum saw its walls reared once more; Merida, Tarragona, Cordova, Salamanca, Segovia, and other towns, admired the splendor of their new edifices, the glorious testimonies of the predilection of Rome for this country, the rival of Italy.

This happy administration did not last long. Rome, when mistress of the world, soon became as odious as Carthage. Spain had its Clodius and its Verres; and the most beautiful province of the empire of the Cæsars was also the most wretched. The Asturians and Cantabrians alone preserved their independence, amid their mountains. Augustus undertook their subjugation; they defended themselves, and most of them perished sword in hand. The poets of Rome celebrated this cruel victory, but posterity admired only its victims.

Spain was subject to the Romans till toward the conclusion of the fourth century. The northern nations, after having ravaged the other countries of Europe, penetrated into Spain during the reign of Honorius: the Suevi made themselves masters of Galicia, and part of Portugal; the Alani and Vandals, of Bœtica. The Visigoths, following at the heels of these ferocious conquerors, com-

pelled the Alani and Vandals to retire to Africa; the Suevi made a longer resistance, but at length they ceased to be a distinct people, and all Spain received law from the Goths. Tranquil possessors of Spain, and enlightened by the gospel, they began to be civilized; but the climate which softened their character, the repose which enervated their courage, prepared an easy victory for new conquerors.

The cruelty of King Vitiza, who died in 711, and the weakness of Roderick, his successor, accelerated the fatal moment, and Spain fell a prey to enemies till then unknown. The Arabs and Moors made an irruption into the south of Spain, as the Goths had previously done in the north. The fate of Spain was decided in the unfortunate battle of Xerxes de la Frontera, where Roderick lost his throne and his life. The conquerors, finding no other obstacles, took possession of all Spain, except those same Pyrenees which had so long preserved their ancient inhabitants from the Roman yoke. These mountains, and their caverns, afforded a refuge to such of the Spanish Goths as, collected by Pelagius, a prince of the blood-royal of that nation, were able to avoid the yoke of the Saracens.

This second invasion, which might naturally be supposed to have left the native Spaniards no trace of their laws, their customs, and national qualities, produced a contrary effect: so amply have the blessings bestowed on this happy country seemed always to compensate the inhabitants for the severity of fortune. The Moors were not long before they felt that influence which had softened the manners of the Goths, and taught them to relish the charms of a tranquil life. No sooner were the new conquerors happy, than they ceased to be barbarous. The principle of civilization was developed among them with extraordinary rapidity; the love of letters ennobled their ideas, and purified their taste, without diminishing their courage. At Seville, at Grenada, at Cordova, schools and public libraries were opened; and while Christian Europe was covered with the clouds of ignorance, the genius of Averroes, and a multitude of learned men, enlightened the civilized Mussulmans. Not content with patronizing the sciences, the Moorish

kings, themselves, cultivated them. Those princes united the private virtues with military qualities; they were poets, historians, mathematicians, philosophers, and great captains; and many of them deserved a still more honorable appellation, that of the best of kings. At this new epoch of the history of Spain, a new taste was introduced into the arts, and gave a direction to architecture in particular. The ancient structures of the Goths did not harmonize with the customs and the religion of the Moors. The latter, indifferent to external decorations, reserved all their ingenuity for the interior of their edifices. There they lavished whatever was calculated to delight the senses and to accord with a sedentary and voluptuous life. Hence the singular magnificence of their palaces and their mosques,—that richness in their ornaments, that finish in the smallest details, which far surpass the beauty of the whole.

The Moors were not left to reign in quiet: Pelagius having fled to the mountains, not only defended himself there with courage, but under the banners of the cross ventured to conduct his troops into the countries contiguous to his retreat. This illustrious man, concerning whom we have, unfortunately, but few particulars, had collected all the nobles of the Asturias and the rest of Spain. This force, which long proved invincible, was the instrument of the conquests of different chiefs, the ablest of whom made themselves sovereigns. By them were founded the kingdoms of Castile, Leon, Aragon, and Navarre, successively conquered from the Moors.

This war, which continued several centuries, has, alternately, the air of history and of romance. It consists of battles, sieges, assaults, and still more frequently of tournaments, banquets, and challenges, given and accepted with equal audacity. In these celebrated lists, triumphed the heroes whose exploits are recorded in the Spanish romances; and of these, Rodrigo de Bivar, surnamed the Cid, particularly distinguished himself. Equal in virtue, and superior in power, to Bayard, he was, like him, the object of the veneration not only of his brethren in arms, but also of the enemies of his country.

Reduced to the single kingdom of Gre-

nada, the Moors there maintained themselves for several centuries; but, at length, expelled from their last asylum, they were obliged to withdraw to Africa in 1492. This important event was reserved to crown the felicity of Ferdinand and Isabella, and the arms of Gonzalvo de Cordova, seconded by other chiefs of equal celebrity. Sovereigns of Spain and of the New World, Ferdinand and Isabella, after having attained the pinnacle of prosperity, had the misfortune to leave their immense possessions to a foreign dynasty. They formed the dowry of their daughter Joan, wife of Philip the Fair, Archduke of Austria, and mother of Charles V.

Fortune, by her extraordinary favors, and Cardinal Ximenes, by a wise administration, threw a lustre upon the reign of Charles V., at one and the same time Emperor of Germany and King of Spain. The talents and genius of this prince seemed to have destined him for universal monarchy; and to his own misfortune and that of the world, he aspired to it. Palled, however, with the pomp and pageantries of grandeur, he chose to end his days in a monastery, and resigned his crown to his son Philip, in 1556.

In this reign of Philip II., Portugal was made a dependency of Spain. Now, too, the great armada was sent forth against England. Philip III. ascended the throne in 1598. During this reign, the Moors were, at several times, transported into Africa; and Spain sustained a loss of about 600,000 useful subjects. Philip IV. possessed good natural abilities; and though the greatest part of his reign was clouded by misfortunes or disappointments, he certainly was desirous of increasing the grandeur of the Spanish monarchy. The young king, Charles II., was inaugurated in 1666, and displayed promising abilities. He was twice married, but had the mortification of seeing himself without offspring. When he resolved to make a will in favor of the electoral house of Bavaria, the young prince whom he had destined for his successor died soon after. Upon hearing that the different powers of Europe had actually made a partition of his territories, in order, as they said, to avoid a general war, Charles was so incensed, that he left his crown, by a new will, to Philip, Duke of Anjou, grandson of his eldest sister and of

Louis XIV. He expired in the thirty-ninth year of his age, and the thirty-fifth of his reign; and in him ended the Austrian branch, which had given five sovereigns to the Spanish nation.

Philip of Anjou was solemnly proclaimed on the 24th of November, 1700. During his absence in Italy with the French troops, a league was formed against the house of Bourbon, the object of which was to wrest the crown of Spain from Philip V., and to place it on the head of Charles, Archduke of Austria, who was also descended from a princess of Spain. This competitor arrived in Portugal, which had also joined the league, and assumed the name of Charles III., in 1704, and being supported by the English, he immediately commenced the campaign. The fate of these two princes, during the course of the war, was as various as singular; they expelled each other alternately from the capital.

Philip V. died after a turbulent reign of forty-three years. Ferdinand VI. succeeded him, in 1746, and died after a reign of fifteen years. As Ferdinand had no issue, the crown devolved on his brother Charles III., then King of Naples and the Two Sicilies, who transferred his Italian possessions to his third son, and hastened to Madrid, to receive the homage of his new subjects. Charles seemed to devote his whole attention to the internal economy of his dominions; but his zeal for the family compact soon roused him into action, and induced him to proclaim war against Great Britain and Portugal in 1761. However, this war was unsuccessful, and on the 10th of February, 1763, a treaty of peace was concluded between the courts of Madrid, Lisbon, and London. When the war between Great Britain and her American colonies had subsisted for some time, and France had taken part with the latter, Spain was also induced to commence hostilities with England. Accordingly, they laid siege to Gibraltar, and made great naval preparations in 1782; but all their exertions proved vain and ineffectual. The sad catastrophe of their armada before Gibraltar, the repeated frustration of all their designs upon Jamaica, and the very embarrassed state of their finances, induced the Spaniards to terminate so long, expensive, and sanguinary a war, and

to conclude a peace with Great Britain in 1783.

Charles IV. ascended the throne of Spain in 1788, and declared war against France in 1793. After making every effort, his Catholic majesty concluded a treaty. Spain was afterward drawn into an alliance with the French republic, and persuaded to commence hostilities against Great Britain. In the summer of 1797, a Spanish fleet, of twenty-seven sail of the line, was appointed to form a junction with the French fleet at Brest; and, after being re-enforced by a numerous squadron of Dutch vessels, an attempt was to be made on some part of the British dominions. However, before the intended junction could be effected, the Spanish fleet was met by Admiral Jervis, near Cape St. Vincent, and an engagement ensued, in which, notwithstanding the great inequality, the English captured four of the enemy's vessels. The court of Madrid again issued a declaration of war against England, and made great preparations for prosecuting hostilities with vigor and effect. After the junction of the French Brest fleet with that of Spain, at Ferrol, the united armament experienced several signal defeats from the victorious British navy, which terminated with the ever memorable battle of Trafalgar, Oct. 21st, 1805.

In 1807 a treaty was concluded between the sovereigns of France and Spain, the object of which was a partition of the kingdom of Portugal. After obtaining possession of the capital of Portugal, and securing free access for his troops to every part of the peninsula, the Emperor of France waited for a favorable opportunity to render himself master of the whole.

In 1808 Charles IV. formed the design of removing the seat of government to Mexico, in America. No sooner had this transpired, than an attack was made on the palace of Godoy at Aranjuez; and though the prince effected his escape, the king found it necessary to dismiss him from all his employments. The populace, however, still remaining in a state of insurrection at Aranjuez and Madrid, and the king being deprived of his prime minister, Charles published another decree, in which he announced that he had abdicated the throne in favor of his son, the Prince of Asturias, March 19th, 1808; and in the fol-

lowing May, father and son signed a convention at Bayonne, by which they ceded the Spanish monarchy to the Emperor Napoleon. To this the people did not agree. At Madrid the populace rose against 10,000 French troops with Murat at their head. A dreadful carnage took place, and terminated in the defeat of the insurgents, and the disarming of the whole city. A junta was summoned to meet at Bayonne, where a new constitution for Spain was laid before them for their acceptance; Joseph Bonaparte, the new king, transferred from the throne of Naples to that of Spain, appeared in royal state.

An explosion of indignant patriotism burst forth from one extremity of Spain to the other. Provincial juntas were established, which gave a regular organization to the popular efforts; and the junta at Seville was the first to proclaim Ferdinand VII. and war against France. The friendship and assistance of Great Britain were solicited, and immediately granted. A desperate struggle now commenced. The success of the Spaniards was various, but the French in a short time found themselves obliged to evacuate Madrid.

Napoleon now determined in person to change the fortune of the war; and having put his veteran troops in motion for Spain, he proceeded to Bayonne, and thence to the head-quarters of the French army at Vittoria. The military force of Spain was wholly unable to meet, upon equal terms, French armies commanded by the most consummate generals; and the campaign which followed the arrival of Napoleon, was a series of victories to the one, and of defeats to the other. The French appeared intent on subjugating the whole country; but Napoleon was obliged to leave Spain, in consequence of a breach between France and Austria. His generals, however, conducted the war in Spain with so much ability, that the cause of Spanish independence was rendered almost desperate; and in 1810, King Joseph issued a manifesto in which he affected to consider the contest as decided.

The cortes of Spain assembled at Cadiz. This body of national representatives was elected by the provinces, cities, and provincial juntas; and they were termed the general or extraordinary cortes, and to them

was intrusted the sovereign power. They swore fealty to Ferdinand VII., and declared the renunciations at Bayonne null and void. They took the title of majesty till the arrival of Ferdinand, and assumed the legislative power of the state.

The war was still prosecuted by the Spaniards, but not with sufficient vigor; and the French actively employed their superiority of force in extending their conquests through a considerable part of Spain. In the course of two months, the Spaniards lost the fortresses of Tortosa, Olivenca, and Badajos, without any sufficient reason. The reduction of these places was followed by that of Tarragona, in which every outrage and cruelty suffered in a town taken by storm, was inflicted upon the inhabitants; and, by this conquest, the French became possessed of the whole coast of Catalonia.

Lord Wellington, with the British and Portuguese forces, recovered possession of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz, in 1812; and he soon after gave Marshal Marmont a signal defeat at Salamanca. The effects of this great victory were felt in different parts of Spain; King Joseph, with the central French army, found himself obliged again to leave Madrid; and the French deserted the long continued blockade of Cadiz.

The Spanish cortes presented the august spectacle of a public signature of the articles of that constitution which had so long been the object of their labors. Deputies from all parts of the monarchy were present in this solemnity. A commission was appointed to carry the constitution to the regency. The deputies swore to obey the constitution; the regency took the oath of office; and the constitution was solemnly proclaimed.

The next important event was the battle of Vittoria, in 1813. The French retired by Pampeluna; and being driven from all their strong posts, they at length crossed the Bidassoa, and re-entered France. The allied forces took the strong castle of St. Sebastian, in the operations against which the British navy gave effectual assistance. The progress of the allies in France afterward produced the capitulation of most of the French garrisons remaining in Spain; and at length the state of affairs would no longer permit the detention of Ferdinand.

The king proceeded to Valencia in 1814, where he was joined by most of the grantees and many prelates. At this place, Ferdinand issued a royal proclamation, in which he declared his intention not only not to swear or accede to the constitution, or to any decree of the cortes derogating from his prerogatives as sovereign, but to pronounce that constitution and those decrees null and of no effect. The decree for dissolving that body was received with enthusiasm by the people of Madrid. A great number of persons were arrested, whose names comprised almost all those who had rendered themselves conspicuous during the reign of the cortes in favor of public liberty. Yet Ferdinand was received in Madrid with every demonstration of loyalty.

The period from 1814 to 1820 has been called the reign of terror in Spain. The court of inquisition was re-established, though, it is said, in a milder form; arrests and prosecutions were multiplied, and Spain was effectually thrown back to that degraded state among nations from which she had seemed about to emerge. During the captivity of Ferdinand in France, the inhabitants of Mexico and South America were divided into two parties; the loyalists, who submitted to the regency, and the independents, who aimed to govern themselves. The latter triumphed, and those possessions were lost to Spain.

Ferdinand died in 1833. His will named Isabel, his infant daughter, as his successor, and her mother, Christina, was appointed queen-regent. Don Carlos, the brother of Ferdinand, laid claim to the throne, on the ground that by the Salique law women were not eligible. A bloody civil strife ensued, lasting till September, 1840, when the Carlists were finally defeated.

KINGS OF SPAIN.

- 1512. Ferdinand V., the Catholic. He was the heir to the throne of Aragon; by his marriage with Isabella of Castile the two kingdoms were united; and by the conquest of Grenada and Navarre, he became monarch of all Spain: succeeded by his grandson.
- 1516. Charles I., son of Joan of Castile and Philip of Austria; became Emperor of Germany as Charles V., in 1519.
- 1556. Philip II., his son, King of Naples and Sicily.
- 1598. Philip III., his son.

- 1621. Philip IV., his son.
- 1665. Charles II., his son.
- 1700. Philip V., Duke of Anjou.
- 1724. Louis I., reigned a few months.
- 1724. Philip V. again.
- 1745. Ferdinand VI., his son.
- 1759. Charles III., brother of Ferdinand.
- 1788. Charles IV., his son.
- 1808. Ferdinand VII., his son.
- 1808. Joseph Bonaparte.
- 1814. Ferdinand VII., restored.
- 1833. Isabella II., his daughter.

SPARTA, or LACEDÆMON, was one of the most celebrated cities of Greece. Laconia, the country of which Sparta was the capital, was bounded north by Arcadia, east by the Argolic Gulf, south by the Ionian Sea, and west by Messenia. The Heracidae, when possessed of Greece, founded four kingdoms, of which Sparta (or Lacedæmon, as it was called from its fourth king) and Corinth were the most distinguished. For nine hundred years the Heracidae furnished kings to Sparta. Lycurgus gave the Spartans their celebrated laws. [See LYCURGUS.] The *helots* were enslaved Messenians, whose country fell into the hands of the Spartans. The bravery of the Spartans was displayed against the Persians, and, unfortunately, against their own countrymen in their civil wars. The Peloponnesian war ended (B.C. 404) in the overthrow of Athens, and the supremacy of the Spartans over all Greece. They were, however, unable to contend successfully against the Thebans under Epaminondas, and were defeated by him in the battles of Leuctra and Mantinea, the last of which was fatal to the victor. Like the rest of their countrymen, they fell beneath the power of Macedonia. They were distinguished by fierceness, fortitude, austerity, and contempt of luxury.

They were the most vigorous of the Greeks, and the handsomest men and women were found among them. A nation of warriors, the painter, the sculptor, the poet, the historian, did not flourish among them; and agriculture and trade, as well as arts and letters, were left to the Helots and other inferior races. Their government was practically oligarchical. The kingly or hereditary authority was shared by two persons at the same time. A few scattered ruins mark the site of the ancient city of Sparta.

SPENSER, EDMUND, whose genius was one of the glories of the reign of Queen Eliza-

beth, was born in London about 1553. Sidney and Raleigh were his friends and patrons. In 1586, Spenser obtained from the crown a grant out of the forfeited estates of the Earl of Desmond in the south of Ireland. There, in Kilcolman Castle, he wrote the most of "The Faery Queen;" there he brought home his wife, Elizabeth, welcoming her with that noble strain of pure and fervent passion, "The Epithalamium," the most magnificent spousal verse in the language; and there he received the visits of Raleigh, his 'shepherd of the ocean,' and read him the gorgeous and chivalric verse of his great poem,—

"Amongst the coolly shade
Of the green alders, by the Mulla's shore."

"The Faery Queen" was welcomed with loud acclaim, and Spenser acknowledged as the greatest poet of the time.

In Ireland, all the English interlopers were hated by the conquered natives. Spenser held office under the crown, and was a strenuous supporter of the arbitrary injustice that might called right. In one of the storms of insurrection Kilcolman Castle was beset, plundered, and burned. Spenser and his wife escaped, but in the confusion of the calamity their new-born child perished in the flames. The impoverished and broken-hearted poet reached London, to die in about three months, Jan. 16th, 1599. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, the Earl of Essex defraying the cost of the funeral, and the hearse attended by his brother poets, who threw "mournful elegies" into his grave.

SPINOLA, AMBROSE, a famous general, was born in Spain, of a noble Genoese family, in 1571. He commanded an army in Flanders, and in 1604 took Ostend; for which great exploit he was made general of all the Spanish troops in the Low Countries, where he was opposed by Maurice of Nassau. In the war occasioned by the disputed succession to the duchy of Cleves and Juliers, Spinola took Aix-la-Chapelle, Wesel, and Breda. He died in 1630.

SPINOZA, BARUCH, or BENEDICT, born in Amsterdam, Nov. 24th, 1632, died at the Hague, Feb. 24th, 1677. His father was a wealthy Portuguese Jew.

SPURZHEIM, JOHN GASPAR, the celebrated phrenologist, was born on the 31st of December, 1776, at the village of Longwich

near Treves, on the Moselle, in Germany; was educated at the university of Treves; became acquainted, about the year 1800, with Dr. Gall, the founder of the doctrine of craniology, as it was then called, and afterward became an associate and fellow-laborer in defending and propagating their opinions in different countries of Europe. After having given lectures in various cities on the continent of Europe, and in Great Britain and Ireland, he sailed to America in 1832, and on the 17th of September commenced a course of lectures on phrenology at Boston, and soon after another course at Cambridge. He died after an illness of about three weeks, in Boston, Mass., Nov. 10th, 1832, much lamented by those who had made his acquaintance.

STAEL-HOLSTEIN, ANNE LOUISA GERMAINE NECKER, Baroness de, was the daughter of Necker, the minister of finance, and was born in Paris, in 1766. Her earliest productions were "Sophia," a comedy, written in 1786, and the tragedies of "Lady Jane Grey" and "Montmorency." In 1786 she married the Baron de Stael-Holstein, the Swedish ambassador. During the reign of terror, she left Paris, but on the recognition of the French republic by Sweden, her husband returned to France in his official capacity, bringing his wife with him. He died in 1798. At Paris, Madam de Stael first beheld Napoleon on his return after the treaty of Campo Formio. But her early feelings of admiration for him were soon changed into those of aversion and hatred. She was banished from France by Bonaparte. In her exile she published various works, among them two romances, "Delphine" and "Corinne ou Italie," the last the fruits of her tour in Italy. She visited Germany and Russia, and produced a work upon the former. At Geneva she married a young French officer by the name of De Rocca, but did not acknowledge the union until her death. In 1814 she returned to Paris, but Napoleon's return from Elba drove her to Coppet. She died July 14th, 1817.

STANDISH, MILES, served some time in the English army in the Netherlands, and settled with Robinson's congregation at Leyden. He was not a member of the church,—"never entered the school of Christ, or of

John the Baptist." He came over in the Mayflower, and from his experience in warfare was naturally made commander of the military force of the colony. He was one of the magistrates till his death at Duxbury in 1656, aged about seventy-two.

STANHOPE, CHARLES, the third earl, was born Aug. 3d, 1753. In 1774, he stood candidate for Westminster, but without success. By the interest of the Earl of Shelburne, however, he was brought into parliament for the borough of Wycombe, which he represented till the death of his father, in 1786, called him to the upper house. He distinguished himself at an early period of the French Revolution, by an open avowal of republican sentiments, and went so far as to lay aside the external ornaments of the peerage. He was also a frequent speaker, and on some occasions was left single in a minority. He died Dec. 16th, 1816. He distinguished himself in science by several valuable inventions; among them a printing-press known by his name. His first wife was a daughter of the great Lord Chatham. Their daughter, Lady HESTER STANHOPE, retired to Syria after the death of her uncle, William Pitt, and there on Mount Lebanon led a strange, romantic life, till her death in 1839, at the age of seventy-three.

STARK, JOHN, a general in the Revolutionary war, was born at Londonderry, N. H., Aug. 17th, 1728. In the French war of 1755 he served with distinction, and at the battle of Bunker Hill fought at the head of the New Hampshire troops. At Trenton and Princeton his voice was heard, but at Bennington he covered himself with glory. Previous to the battle, he addressed his troops in a style well calculated to win their attention. "We must beat them, my boys," concluded he, "or this night Molly Stark is a widow." He died May 8th, 1822.

STEELE, Sir RICHARD, was born in 1671 in Ireland, of English parentage. Recklessness, wit, vivacity, and good humor distinguished him through life. With him originated the periodical essays, the "Tattler," the "Spectator," the "Guardian," &c., which his pen and that of Addison so richly adorned. He was also a vigorous political writer, sat in parliament, and was knighted by George I. Party spirit severed the friend-

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ship so long existing between him and Addison; Steele's conduct in the affair was far the most creditable and manly. His carelessness embroiled him in pecuniary difficulties, and he died in Wales in 1729.

STEPHEN, King of England, was the third son of Adela, fourth daughter of William the Conqueror, and of Stephen, Count of Blois. He was born in 1105, and was invited to the English court by his uncle, Henry I., who gave him lands and honors, and promoted his marriage with Matilda, the heiress of Boulogne. On the death of Henry I., in the year 1135, Stephen assumed the crown. In order to secure himself he passed a charter, granting several privileges to the different orders of the state; to the nobility, a permission to hunt in their own forests; to the clergy, a speedy filling of all vacant benefices; and to the Saxon people, restoration of the laws of Edward the Confessor. Matilda, the daughter of Henry, asserting her claim to the crown, landed upon the coast of Sussex, assisted by Robert, Earl of Gloucester. The whole of Matilda's retinue amounted to no more than one hundred and forty knights, who immediately took possession of Arundel Castle; but her forces every day seemed to gain ground. Meantime Stephen flew to besiege Arundel, where she had taken refuge, and where she was protected by the queen dowager, who secretly favored her pretensions. This fortress was too feeble to promise a long defense, and would have been soon taken, had it not been represented to the king, that as it was a castle belonging to the queen dowager, it would be an infringement on the respect due to her to attempt taking it by force. Stephen, therefore, permitted Matilda to come forth in safety, and had her conveyed with security to Bristol, another fortress equally strong with that whence he permitted her to retire. Matilda's forces increased every day; and a victory gained by them, threw Stephen from the throne and exalted Matilda in his room. Matilda, however, affected to treat the nobility with a degree of disdain, to which they had long been unaccustomed; so that the nation soon began to desire the deposed king. The Bishop of Winchester fomented these discontents; and when he found the people ripe for a tumult, detached a party of

his friends and vassals to block up the city of London, where the queen then resided, and measures were taken to instigate the Londoners to a revolt, and to seize her person. Matilda having timely notice of this conspiracy, fled to Winchester, whither the bishop followed her. His party was soon sufficient to bid the queen open defiance; and to besiege her in the very place where she first received his benediction. There she continued for some time, but the town being pressed by famine, she was obliged to escape, while her brother, the Earl of Gloucester, endeavoring to follow, was taken prisoner, and exchanged for Stephen, who still continued a captive. Thus a sudden revolution once more took place; Matilda was deposed, while Stephen was again recognized as king. His reign, however, was soon terminated by his death, which happened about a year after the treaty at Canterbury, when Henry, Matilda's son, succeeded.

STEPHENSON, GEORGE, an eminent civil engineer, whose name is linked with the development of England's railway system, was born near Newcastle, in April, 1787. He commenced life with picking turnips at twopence a day. Of course his advantages for education were nothing. His ingenuity in repairing an obstinate defect in the steam-engine of a colliery at Killingworth gained him the charge of the engine. He built a rude locomotive as early as 1815. The first railroad in England was that from Stockton to Darlington, opened in 1825: Stephenson was the engineer. His locomotives then traveled six miles an hour: the speed he foresaw, under suspicion of insanity, he lived to realize. With the construction of the Liverpool and Manchester railway, Mr. Stephenson entered upon the field of his great fame. He died Aug. 12th, 1848. His son ROBERT, the builder of the Britannia tubular bridge over the Menai Straits, has succeeded and added to his father's fame.

STERNE, LAWRENCE, the author of "Tristram Shandy," was born at Clonmel, Ireland, Nov. 24th, 1713, bred a clergyman, and died in London, March 18th, 1768.

STEBEN, FREDERICK WILLIAM AUGUSTUS, Baron von; a brave Prussian officer who entered the American service during our Revolution, and in 1778 was appointed by Con-

gress inspector-general of the forces, with the rank of major-general. He commanded in the trenches at Yorktown, where he received the first offer of Cornwallis to capitulate. Baron von Steuben was generous and hospitable, and introduced strict and efficient discipline into the army. He settled in Oneida county, New York, where he had received a grant of land, and, by the exertions of Washington and Hamilton obtained a pension of \$2,500 from the general government. He died in 1795 of apoplexy.

STEVENS, EDWARD, a native of Virginia, commanded a battalion of riflemen in the battle of Great Bridge, near Norfolk, and behaved with gallantry at Brandywine, Germantown, Camden, Guilford, and Yorktown. He became a brigadier-general. He died in 1820, aged seventy-six.

STEWART, DUGALD, a celebrated philosophical writer, born in Scotland, 1753, died in 1828. He was professor of moral philosophy in the university of Edinburgh.

STIRLING, WILLIAM ALEXANDER, Lord, was born at New York, N. Y., in 1726. He was a major-general in the army of the United States during the Revolution, and distinguished himself throughout the whole of the eventful struggle, but particularly in the battles of Long Island, Germantown, and Monmouth. He died at Albany, 1783, with the reputation of a learned, brave, honest, and patriotic man. The title of Lord Stirling was given him by courtesy, as he claimed to be the rightful heir to the earldom of that name in Scotland, although his claims were not sustained by legal tribunals.

STOCKTON, RICHARD, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born near Princeton, N. J., Oct. 1st, 1730. Having graduated at New Jersey College, he made the tour of Great Britain. He became a lawyer of eminence. June 21st, 1776, he was chosen by the provincial congress a delegate to the general congress assembled at Philadelphia. Nov. 30th of the same year, while returning from a visit to the northern army, he was seized in the night by the British, and conveyed to New York, where he was treated with such severity that his constitution was broken, and after languishing a long time, he died at Princeton, Feb. 28th, 1781, in the fifty-first year of his age.

STOICS. The disciples of Zeno, the cynic philosopher (190 B.C.), were named Stoics, because they listened to their master's harangues in a porch or portico at Athens, called in the Greek, *stoa*. Zeno taught that man's supreme happiness consisted in living agreeably to nature and reason, and that God was the soul of the world. The sect were marked by stiffness, patience, apathy, austerity, and insensibility.

STONE, THOMAS, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Charles county, Maryland, 1742. He was a lawyer by profession, and he was a delegate in congress, 1775-79 and 1784-85. In 1784 he was chosen president *pro tempore* of congress. He died at Port Tobacco, Md., October 5th, 1787.

STONY POINT. The scenery of the Hudson river bears Nature's grandest imprint. The hand that framed an universe of worlds has thrown together along the banks of this noble stream a wild assemblage of rocks and mountains. The Palisades, as they are called, commence on the western side of the Hudson, just above Weehawken, and extend about twelve miles up the river. They are bold, abrupt demonstrations of omnipotence, moulded by Him whose power is not bounded by time or circumstance. The cannon of a thousand armies might roar out their ineffectual vengeance against this natural battery, which frowns over the broad bright stream at an elevation of from sixty to one hundred and fifty feet; and the parapet would laugh in scorn at the power of battle.

After the Palisades terminate, a country of hills and vales succeeds; the former rounded up like loaves of sugar, and the latter indented like dimples on the cheek of beauty. Occasionally, however, Nature has projected into the stream one of her bold fronts,—a miniature formation of those "hills of fear," which cast their sombre shadows across the pass of the Highlands. One of these projections is Stony Point, standing out in bold relief from the rural scenery just below. The impressions which crowd into the spectator's mind in this region, are not all derived from river, mountain, or valley: tradition and history lend a melancholy glory to this revolutionary ground. On the eastern bank stretches away the celebrated

"neutral ground" throughout the entire extent of Westchester county, where regulars, cow-boys, Virginia horse, and continentals, Whigs, and Tories, appeared and disappeared like the actors of a wild and bloody tragedy. On the left, Stony Point is allied to associations of military achievements of unfading renown; while farther up, the memory of Arnold's treason, Andre's capture, and his untimely although merited fate, twines around the memorable rocks of West Point.

Stony Point is about forty miles above New York and ten or fourteen below West Point. It is a rounded, gravelly hill, of small extent, jutting into the stream, and connected with the main land by a low morass which is partially overflowed with the tide waters. It was fortified in the Revolutionary war, and, occupied by a small force, might have been considered as a remote outpost to the strong fortress of West Point. It was captured by the British in the year 1779, strongly repaired, and garrisoned by more than six hundred soldiers, commanded by the brave Lieut. Col. Johnson.

A few days before the 15th of July, in the same year, a tall, commanding personage, mounted on a strong charger, was seen on the eminences above Stony Point. He had a glass in his hand, and appeared to study the character of the defenses with an intensity of interest. Johnson, who was returning the gaze of the horseman with his spy-glass, turned to one of his staff and remarked that the apparition on the hill portended no good. Rumors were afloat about the intrenchments that the same tall figure had been seen across the river on the highest opposite eminence the day before, like a horseman painted against the sky. A cow-boy said that this figure was the apparition of Washington, and that it never was seen excepting just before a battle or a thunder storm. But while these idle rumors floated around the atmosphere of the camp, the real Washington, from observations made with his own eyes, was concerting a soldier-like plan for its surprise.

On the night of the 15th of July, 1779, by the twinkling light of the stars that broke over and through the clouds, two columns of soldiers might have been seen under the brow of the eminence in the rear of the fort.

They were stern men—the silent, thoughtful men of New England. The eagle-eyed Wayne was their chief, and his heart was like that of the lion. The regiments of Fieger and Meigs, with the youthful Major Hull's detachment, formed the right column; Butler's regiment, with two companies under Major Murphy, formed the left. The van of the right was formed of one hundred and fifty volunteers at whose head stood the brave Fleury; one hundred volunteers under Stewart composed the van of the left. And still farther advanced, the noblest post of all, stood two forlorn hopes of twenty men each; one commanded by Lieut. Gibbons, and the other by Lieut. Knox. Wayne stepped from man to man through the vanguards,—saw them take their flints from their pieces, and fix the death-bayonet. At twenty minutes past eleven, the two columns moved to the bloody work before them, one going to the left and the other to the right, to make their attack on opposite sides.

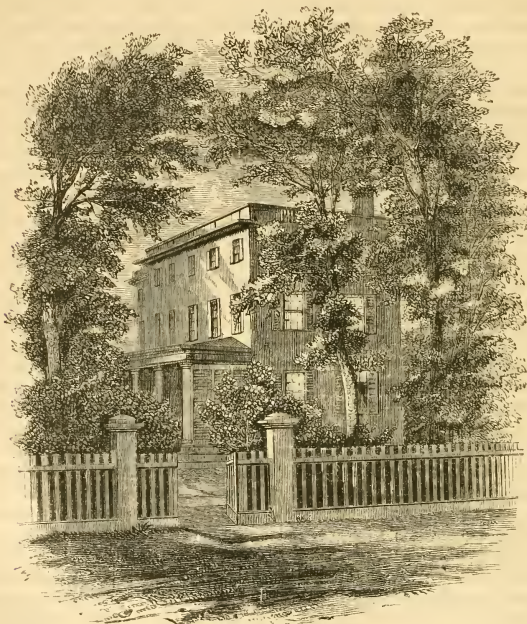
The inhabitants on the eastern side of the river first heard a sharp crashing as the forlorn hope on either side broke in the double row of abatis; the muskets of the sentinels flashed suddenly amidst the darkness, and in a moment the fortress vomited out flame and thunder as if a volcano had been ignited, and was tossing its lava upward. The cry of battle, not to be mistaken, shrill, wild, and fearful, broke upon the still air of night. But all was in vain for the fortress. Under showers of grape, and full in the red eye of battle, the two gloomy, still, unwavering columns moved on, and their vanguards met in the centre of the works. The British made an instant surrender to avoid the extermination which awaited the deploy of the columns upon the intrenchments. Sixty-three British soldiers lay dead at their guns; five hundred and forty-three were made prisoners; and the spoils were two standards, two flags, fifteen pieces of ordnance, and other materials of war. Of the assailants fifteen were killed, and eighty-three wounded, the forlorn hopes suffering most severely. Wayne led the right column. At the inner abatis he was struck on the head by a musket-ball, which brought him on his knees. Believing himself mortally wounded, he exclaimed: "March on! Carry me into the fort, for I will die at the

head of my column!" His aids, Fishbow and Archer, raised him to his feet, and bore him through the works. The wound was not fatal, and 'Mad Anthony' joined in the loud huzzas that arose when the two divisions met victorious within the fortress. His successful exploit was one of the most daring and brilliant achievements of the Revolution.

These spots, where the life-blood of the free has been poured out like water, and

where the traces of the Revolutionary ditch and mound still remain, are altars sacred to the high recollections of freedom. Green be the turf over these departed patriots. The bold bluff of Stony Point is classic ground. Hither in future time shall the poet and the sentimentalist come to pay their tribute of affection and honor, where—

"Our fathers knelt
In prayer and battle for a world."



STORY'S HOUSE AT CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

STORY, JOSEPH, an eminent jurist, was born at Marblehead, Mass., in 1779. He was elected to Congress in 1809, and at the end of his term was appointed an associate justice of the supreme court of the United States, in which capacity he served with great ability and distinction, till his decease in 1845.

STRAFFORD. THOMAS WENTWORTH, eldest son of Sir William Wentworth, of York-

shire, was born in Chancery Lane, London, April 13th, 1593. In 1614 he succeeded to the baronetcy, and in 1621 entered parliament. At the commencement of the reign of Charles I., during the arbitrary administration of Buckingham, Wentworth used his eloquence and great abilities on the side of the opposition. But he was haughty, ambitious, and fond of power. After the assassination of Buckingham, he proved renegade

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to the popular cause, and became the king's most trusted counselor in military and political matters. He was made lord-lieutenant of Ireland and Earl of Strafford. It was his aim to make Charles a monarch as absolute as any on the continent; to put the estates and the personal liberty of the whole people at the disposal of the crown; to deprive the courts of law of all independent authority, even in ordinary questions of civil right between man and man, and to punish with merciless rigor all who murmured at the acts of the government, or who applied even in the most decent and regular manner to any tribunal for relief against those acts.

Familiar with the plans of the statesmen from whom he had apostatized, and pursuing his policy with an admirable firmness and precision, he was for a time successful. In his Irish viceroyalty he had established a military despotism by which the king was as absolute as any prince in the world could be. So he would have it in England, and thereto a standing army was necessary. The illegal expedient of the ship-money was tried, and unjust judges sustained it against the opposition of John Hampden. But just as Lord Strafford was exulting in the near success of his schemes, the attempt of Archbishop Laud to force episcopacy upon Scotland, aroused a tumult which endangered them. His imperious will to carry them through at all hazards increased the animosity against him and his measures. Upon the assembling of the Long Parliament in November, 1640, he was impeached, as well as Laud. The legal evidence necessary to support the charges could not be obtained, and his enemies resorted to a bill of attainder. The king could not save him, and he was beheaded May 12th, 1641.

STUART. The founder of this royal house was Walter the Steward of Scotland, whose wife, Marjory, was the daughter of the great Robert Bruce. David II., son of Robert Bruce, dying without issue in 1371, the son of Walter and Marjory came to the throne, under the name of Robert II. He was not a warrior, yet the usual wars with England mark his reign. His eldest son and successor was also better fitted for the cloister than such a seat as the Scottish throne in those troublesome times. The younger son,

created Duke of Albany by Robert III. (the first instance of the title in Scotland), was of a bolder and a baser stamp. The baptismal name of Robert III. was John: at his accession he took that more fortunate name the great Bruce had borne. His eldest son David was starved to death by the cruel and ambitious Albany, and James, whom he sent to France for safety, was taken captive by the English and detained in confinement. Such sorrows brought Robert to the grave, April 1st, 1406. The captivity of James we have elsewhere described. [See JAMES I.] During the long years of his absence, Albany ruled as regent, and afterward his son. James at last returned, reigned fourteen years, and was assassinated by conspirators in his bed-chamber. James II., only a lad of seven at his father's death, perished by the bursting of a cannon at the siege of Roxburgh in 1460. James III., his son, a weak fellow, dabbled in astrology, whose starry mandates led him to murder one brother, banish another, and so bear himself in divers things that his subjects were stirred to revolt. His own son (James IV.) appeared in the field with the insurgents; the father was mysteriously murdered in his flight from defeat. [See BANNOCKBURN.] James IV. wedded Margaret Tudor of England, but this did not save him from collision with her brother, Henry VIII. With the flower of his nobility, and thousands of his soldiery, he sank amid—

"The stern strife and carnage drear
Of Flodden's fatal field,
Where shivered was fair Scotland's spear,
And broken was her shield."

His son, James V., was then hardly more than a year old. As he grew to man's estate he developed many virtues, and was a handsome, gallant, brave, and accomplished prince. He died in 1542, at the early age of twenty-nine. He had married Mary, sister of the famous Duke of Guise, and widow of the Duke of Longueville. Seven days before her husband's death, on the 7th of December, a daughter had been born to them, christened Mary; she became a queen by the bereavement which made her an orphan. Ten months after, the babe was crowned at Stirling by Cardinal Beaton, and solemnly proclaimed Queen of Scotland. James Hamilton, Earl of Arran, was appointed regent

during her minority, but she was left in the care of her mother, who was respected for her wisdom and talents, and revered for her justice and piety, although she was not free from the pride and ambition which marked the house of Guise.

The regency refused the politic desire of Henry VIII. of England to unite both kingdoms by the marriage of his son Edward with the heiress of Scotland. Since he could not make a wedding, 'bluff king Hal' made war. Unconscious of the disastrous battle of Pinkie, and the ravages of the English armies, was little Mary in her childhood. Her mother selected four young maidens of her age, to be the companions of her studies and the mates of her pleasures; they all bore the same name, and were afterward called the 'Queen's Maries.' They were Mary Beaton, Mary Seyton, Mary Fleming, and Mary Livingstone. An old ballad says:—

"Last night the queen had four Maries;
To-night she'll hae but three:
There was Mary Seyton, and Mary Beaton,
And Mary Livingstone, and *me*!"

As the original Maries, one by one, married and left her service, the queen replaced them with new ones of the same name, and seems to have pleased herself with the fancy of having four Maries always in attendance upon her.

The contest with England led Scotland to a closer alliance with France. Mary was affianced to the infant dauphin, Francis, the son of Henry II. It was agreed that she should be educated in the French court, and a French army was sent to Scotland to contend with the English. In France Mary spent thirteen happy years. Her naturally quick capacity had the advantage of the best masters in music, languages, and all womanly accomplishments; and her beauty (so great that "no one could look upon her without loving her," says one that looked) was as brilliant as were her attainments. In 1558 the nuptials between her and Francis were solemnized with great splendor. Her husband was shy and sickly, but they sincerely loved each other. When Elizabeth, soon after, came to the English throne, Mary, who was the next heir, committed her first political error, in deference to the wishes of her father-in-law and uncles, assuming the title

and arms of queen of England, on the ground of Elizabeth's illegitimacy from the unlawfulness of Catharine's divorce. The jealousy and hatred thus aroused in the breast of Elizabeth was never allayed.

Henry II., in 1559, was accidentally slain in a tournament, and Francis and Mary were crowned at Rheims. The health of the young king was rapidly declining, and in a few months Mary was a widow. Exposed to the jealousy of Catharine de Medici, the queen-regent, and deprived of the countenance of her uncles the Guises, who had been banished from court, Mary decided to return to her native realm. In tears again and again she bade adieu to the shores of France, and when night came on, she lay upon a couch spread on the deck and wept herself to sleep. She landed in Scotland, Aug. 20th, 1561. The contrast between its roughness of soil and rudeness of manners, and the fertile plains and polished customs of France, was very keenly felt. During her absence the ancient religion to which she had been bred, had been supplanted by an austere Calvinism that found great offense in the "fiddling, uncemely skipping," and other joyousness wherewith she sought to dispel the gloom of Holyrood.

The conduct of the government she entrusted to her natural brother, Lord James Stuart, afterward Earl of Murray, an able, artful, and ambitious man. For two or three years after her return from France, her life was comparatively tranquil and happy. She had to bear severe and sometimes insolent reprimands from John Knox, whose zeal and undoubted piety were not tempered by mildness, and occasionally burst beyond his judgment; but she endeavored to conciliate the reformers, and win the affection of her subjects. Many desired her hand,—princes of foreign states, and aspiring men among her own nobility. She unfortunately selected her cousin, young Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, four years her junior, and also second cousin to Queen Elizabeth. They were married July 29th, 1565. He was a headstrong, conceited youth, and his drunkenness and ill temper soon alienated the love of the queen, while his ambition raised murmurs among the nobility. Mary relied much upon the advice of her secretary, David Rizzio, an

Italian. Darnley, the Earl of Morton, and others, resolved upon his murder. On the 9th of March, 1566, while sitting at supper with the queen and some other ladies, in Holyrood, he was attacked by the assassins, stabbed over Mary's shoulder as she tried to defend him, then dragged from the room and dispatched at the head of the staircase.

In the following June, Mary gave birth to a son at Edinburgh Castle. Her husband had deeply alienated her, and incurred general contempt and odium by the weakness and ill temper he everywhere displayed. It was now that James Hepburn, the restless, ambitious, dissolute, and daring Earl of Bothwell, found favor at court. His character was well known, but amid all the treason about her, he had been faithful to her interests. Bothwell, Murray, Huntley, Maitland, and others of her counselors, urged upon Mary a divorce from Darnley, but she was loath. It was Bothwell's design to make himself master of her and of the government; he decided upon the murder of Darnley, who was then recovering from the small-pox, and lodging for the benefit of the air in a house called the Kirk-of-Field, just out of Edinburgh. On Sunday night, the 9th of February, 1567, the house was blown up with gunpowder; the bodies of Darnley and his servant were found in a garden at some distance. Bothwell stood a mock trial, and was acquitted. His next object was to marry the queen. Mary was returning from Stirling with a small retinue, when Bothwell, at the head of a thousand armed men, encountered her near Linlithgow, seized the reins of her horse, and carried her to the castle of Dunbar, where he kept her closely sequestered for a fortnight. He procured certain leading nobles and prelates to recommend him as a fit and proper husband for the queen, and having got a divorce from his wife, Lady Jane Gordon, he brought Mary back to Edinburgh on the 3d of May; and on the 15th of May the guilty and disgraceful nuptials were solemnized. The month which Mary spent with Bothwell was the most miserable of her life. A powerful confederacy of nobles was formed against her husband; Mary placed herself in their hands, and Bothwell fled, to end his life miserably in Norway.

The confederate lords obliged Mary to sign

a renunciation of her crown in favor of her son, and she herself was committed as a prisoner, and secluded from her friends. The place of her confinement in the castle of Lochleven was all but inaccessible; but Mary's beauty had procured her a friend in one of her attendants, and by his means she contrived to escape. She found herself very speedily at the head of a considerable body of troops, who proclaimed her pretensions, and prepared to maintain them against those of the regent Murray. They were, however, worsted in an engagement which ensued near Glasgow; and Mary, panic-struck, fled toward England, and put herself under the protection of one of Elizabeth's governors.

This was exactly what that princess had hoped. She, however, disguised her designs under the mask of friendship; affected to pity the forlorn condition of the fugitive queen; and, under the idea of granting her an asylum, betrayed her into a prison. Elizabeth thus became the arbiter between Mary and her late subjects, and a sort of court was appointed to hear both parties, and decide between them; but the proceedings were stopped by Mary refusing to answer the accusations brought against her.

During Mary's continuance in confinement, she engaged the affection of the Duke of Norfolk, a favorite of Queen Elizabeth, but who seems very readily to have entered into those ambitious views which such an alliance would naturally open to him. The design, however, was discovered, and Norfolk was committed to the Tower, tried for high treason, condemned, and executed.

Elizabeth had no peace while Mary lived. She tried to inculcate the captive in various plots; she tampered with some of her officers to induce them to become assassins. At last the English parliament enacted that not only conspirators themselves, but those persons (however innocent or ignorant of their purpose) in whose cause they conspired, were equally guilty of treason. Under this infamous law, Mary was made an accomplice in Babington's plot in 1586.

Mary's character rose with her misfortunes, and now at their climax displayed a firmness and an energy of which her impetuous temper and fluctuating policy had excited little suspicion. After a long confinement at Cov-

entry, she was removed to Fotheringay Castle, to undergo the formality of a trial. When brought before the commissioners she disclaimed their authority, and asserted her innocence. The commissioners, after hearing her defense, declared her guilty of conspiring the death of Elizabeth, and condemned her to death. She received the tidings with complacency.

The last letter which Mary addressed to Elizabeth read as follows :—

"Madam, I thank God from the bottom of my heart that, by the sentence which has been passed against me, he is about to put an end to my tedious pilgrimage. I would not wish it prolonged though it were in my power, having had enough of time to experience its bitterness. I write at present only to make three last requests, which, as I can expect no favor from your implacable ministers, I should wish to owe to your majesty and to no other. First, as in England I can not hope to be buried according to the solemnities of the Catholic church (the religion of the ancient kings, your ancestors and mine, being now changed), and as in Scotland they have already violated the ashes of my progenitors, I have to request that as soon as my enemies have bathed their hands in my innocent blood, my domestics may be allowed to inter my body in some consecrated ground; and above all, that they may be permitted to carry it to France, where the bones of the queen, my most honored mother, repose. Thus that poor frame which has never enjoyed repose so long as it has been joined to my soul, may find it at last when they will be separated. Second, as I dread the tyranny of the harsh men to whose power you have abandoned me, I entreat your majesty that I may not be executed in secret, but in the presence of my servants and other persons who may bear testimony of my faith and fidelity to the true church, and guard the last hours of my life and my last sighs from the false rumors which my adversaries may spread abroad. Third, I request that my domestics, who have served me through so much misery and with so much constancy, may be allowed to retire without molestation wherever they choose, to enjoy for the remainder of their lives the small legacies which my poverty has enabled me to bequeath to them. I conjure you, madam, by the blood of Jesus Christ, by our consanguinity, by the memory of Henry VII., our common father, and by the royal title which I carry with me to death, not to refuse me those reasonable demands, but to assure me, by a letter under your own hand, that you will comply with them; and I shall then die as I have lived, your affectionate sister and prisoner, MARY Queen of Scots."

Whether Elizabeth ever answered this letter, does not appear; but it produced so little effect, that epistles from her to Sir Amias Paulet still exist, which prove that in her anxiety to avoid taking upon herself the re-

sponsibility of Mary's death, she wished to have her privately assassinated or poisoned. Paulet, however, though a harsh and violent man, positively refused to sanction so nefarious a scheme. Yet in the very act of instigating murder, Elizabeth could close her eyes against her own iniquity, and affect indignation at the alleged offenses of another. But perceiving, at length, that no alternative remained, she ordered her secretary Davidson to bring her the warrant for Mary's execution, and after perusing it, she deliberately affixed her signature. She then desired him to carry it to Walsingham, saying, with an ironical smile, and in a "merry tone," that she feared he would die of grief when he saw it. Walsingham sent the warrant to the chancellor, who affixed the great seal to it, and dispatched it by Beal, with a commission to the Earls of Shrewsbury, Kent, Derby, and others, to see it put in execution. Davidson was afterward made the victim of Elizabeth's artifice; to complete the solemn farce she had been playing, she pretended he had obeyed her orders too quickly, and doomed him in consequence to perpetual imprisonment.

From tyrants like these who would have expected either mercy or justice? Mary was perfectly resigned to her fate, and met it like one who placed the most unwavering reliance in the efficacy of the religion she professed. After hearing the warrant for her execution, she said that though "she was sorry it came from Elizabeth, she had long been expecting the mandate for her death, and was not unprepared to die." "For many years," she added, "I have lived in continual affliction, unable to do good to myself or to those who are dear to me; and as I shall depart innocent of the crime which has been laid to my charge, I can not see why I should shrink from the prospect of immortality." She then laid her hand on the New Testament, and solemnly protested that she had never either devised, compassed, or consented to the death of the Queen of England. Before leaving the world, Mary felt a natural curiosity to be informed upon several subjects of public interest, which, though connected with herself, and generally known, had not penetrated the walls of her prison. She asked if no foreign princes had interfered in her behalf;

if her secretaries were still alive; if it was intended to punish them as well as her; if they brought no letters from Elizabeth or others; and, above all, if her son, the King of Scotland, was well, and had evinced any interest in the fate of a mother who had always loved and never wronged him. Being satisfied upon these points, she proceeded to inquire when her execution was to take place? Shrewsbury replied that it was fixed for the next morning at eight. She appeared startled and agitated for a few minutes, saying that it was more sudden than she had anticipated, and that she had yet to make her will, which she had hitherto deferred, in the expectation that the papers and letters which had been forcibly taken from her would be restored. She soon, however, regained her self-possession; and informing the commissioners that she desired to be left alone to make her preparations, she dismissed them for the night.

Upon Bourgoine making the remark that "more than a few hours was allowed to the meanest criminal," she said "she must submit with resignation to her fate, and learn to regard it as the will of God." She then requested her attendants to kneel with her, and she prayed fervently for some time in the midst of them. Afterward, while supper was preparing, she employed herself in putting all the money she had by her into separate purses, and affixed to each, with her own hand, the name of the person for whom she intended it. At supper, though she sat down to table, she ate little. Her mind, however, was in perfect composure; and during the repast, though she spoke little, placid smiles were frequently observed to pass over her countenance. The calm magnanimity of their mistress only increased the distress of her servants. They saw her sitting among them in her usual health, and with almost more than her usual cheerfulness, partaking of the viands that were set before her; yet they knew that it was the last meal at which they should ever be present together, and that the interchange of affectionate service upon their part, and of condescending attention and endearing gentleness on hers, which had linked them to her for so many years, was now about to terminate forever. Far from attempting to offer her consolation,

they were unable to discover any for themselves. As soon as the melancholy meal was over, Mary desired that a cup of wine should be given to her; and putting it to her lips, drank to the health of each of her attendants by name. She requested that they would pledge her in like manner; and each, falling on his knee, and mingling tears with the wine, drank to her, asking pardon at the same time for all the faults he had ever committed. In the true spirit of Christian humility, she not only willingly forgave them, but asked their pardon also. The inventory of her wardrobe and furniture was then brought to her; and she wrote in the margin opposite each article the name of the person to whom she wished it should be given. She did the same with her rings, jewels, and all her most valuable trinkets; and there was not one of her friends or servants, either present or absent, to whom she forgot to leave a memorial.

These duties being discharged, Mary sat down to her desk to arrange her papers, to finish her will, and to write several letters. She then drew up her last will and testament; and without ever lifting her pen from the paper, or stopping at intervals to think, she covered two large sheets with close writing, forgetting nothing of any moment, and expressing herself with all that precision and clearness which distinguished her style in the very happiest moments of her life. She named as her four executors, the Duke of Guise, her cousin-german; the Archbishop of Glasgow, her ambassador in France; Lesley, Bishop of Ross; and Monsieur de Ruysseau, her chancellor. She next wrote a letter to her brother-in-law, the King of France, in which she apologized for not being able to enter into her affairs at greater length, as she had only an hour or two to live, and had not been informed till that day after dinner that she was to be executed next morning. "Thanks be unto God, however," she added, "I have no terror at the idea of death, and solemnly declare to you that I meet it innocent of every crime. The bearer of this letter, and my other servants, will recount to you how I comported myself in my last moments." The letter concluded with earnest entreaties that her faithful followers should be protected and rewarded. Her anxiety on

their account at such a moment indicated all that amiable generosity of disposition which was one of the leading features of Mary's character. About two in the morning she sealed up all her papers, and said she would now think no more of the affairs of this world, but would spend the rest of her time in prayer and commune with her own conscience. She went to bed for some hours; but she did not sleep. Her lips were observed in continual motion, and her hands were frequently folded and lifted up toward heaven.

On the morning of Wednesday, the 8th of February, Mary rose with the break of day; and her domestics, who had watched and wept all night, immediately gathered round her. She told them that she had made her will, and requested that they would see it safely deposited in the hands of her executors. She likewise besought them not to separate until they had carried her body to France; and she placed a sum of money in the hands of her physician to defray the expenses of the journey. Her earnest desire was, to be buried either in the church of St. Denis in Paris, beside her first husband, Francis, or at Rheims, in the tomb which contained the remains of her mother. She expressed a wish, too, that, besides her friends and servants, a number of poor people and children from different hospitals should be present at her funeral, clothed in mourning at her expense, and each, according to the Catholic custom, carrying in his hand a lighted taper.

She now renewed her devotions, and was in the midst of them, with her servants praying and weeping round her, when a messenger from the commissioners knocked at the door, to announce that all was ready. She requested a little longer time to finish her prayers, which was granted. As soon as she desired the door to be opened, the sheriff, carrying in his hand the white wand of office, entered to conduct her to the place of execution. Her servants crowded round her and insisted on being allowed to accompany her to the scaffold. But contrary orders having been given by Elizabeth, they were told that she must proceed alone. Against such a piece of arbitrary cruelty they remonstrated loudly, but in vain; for as soon as Mary passed into the gallery, the door was

closed, and believing that they were separating from her forever, the shrieks of the women, and the scarcely less audible lamentations of the men, were heard in distant parts of the castle.

At the foot of the staircase leading down to the hall below, Mary was met by the Earls of Kent and Shrewsbury; and she was allowed to stop and take farewell of Sir Andrew Melvil, the master of her household, whom her keepers had not allowed to come into her presence for some time before. With tears in his eyes Melvil knelt before her, kissed her hand, and declared that it was the heaviest hour of his life. Mary assured him that it was not so to her. "I now feel, my good Melvil," said she, "that all this world is vanity. When you speak of me hereafter, mention that I died firm in my faith, willing to forgive my enemies, conscious that I had never disgraced Scotland my native country, and rejoicing in the thought that I had always been true to France, the land of my happiest years. Tell my son," she added, and when she named her only child, of whom she had been so proud in his infancy, but in whom all her hopes had been so fatally blasted, her feelings for the first time overpowered her, and a flood of tears flowed from her eyes—"Tell my son that I thought of him in my last moments, and that I have never yielded, either by word or deed, to aught that might lead to his prejudice; desire him to preserve the memory of his unfortunate parent; and may he be a thousand times more happy and more prosperous than she has been."

Before taking leave of Melvil, Mary turned to the commissioners, and told them that her three last requests were, that her secretary Curl, whom she blamed less for his treachery than Naw, should not be punished; that her servants should have free permission to depart to France; and that some of them should be allowed to come down from the apartments above to see her die. The earls answered that they believed the two former of these requests would be granted; but that they could not concede the last, alleging, as their excuse, that the affliction of her attendants would only add to the severity of her sufferings. But Mary was resolved that some of her own people should witness her last mo-

ments. "I will not submit to the indignity," she said, "of permitting my body to fall into the hands of strangers. You are the servants of a maiden queen, and she herself were she here, would yield to the dictates of humanity, and permit some of those who have been so long faithful to me to assist me at my death. Remember, too, that I am cousin to your mistress, and the descendant of Henry VII. ; I am the dowager of France, and the anointed queen of Scotland." Ashamed of any farther opposition, the earls allowed her to name four male and two female attendants, whom they sent for, and permitted to remain beside her for the short time she had to live.

The same hall in which the trial had taken place was prepared for the execution. At the upper end was the scaffold, covered with black cloth, and elevated about two feet from the floor. A chair was placed on it for the Queen of Scots. On one side of the block stood two executioners, and on the other the Earls of Kent and Shrewsbury ; Beal and the sheriff were immediately behind. The scaffold was raised off from the rest of the hall, in which Sir Amias Paulet with a body of guards, the other commissioners, and some gentlemen from the neighborhood, amounting altogether to about two hundred persons, were assembled. Mary entered, leaning on the arm of her physician, while Sir Andrew Melvil carried the train of her robe. She was in full dress, and looked as if she were about to hold a drawing-room, not to lay her head beneath the axe. She wore a gown of black silk, bordered with crimson velvet, over which was a satin mantle ; a long veil of white crape, stiffened with wire, and edged with rich lace, hung down almost to the ground ; round her neck was suspended an ivory crucifix, and the beads which the Catholics use in their prayers were fastened to her girdle. The symmetry of her fine figure had long been destroyed by her sedentary life ; and years of care had left many a trace on her beautiful features. But the dignity of the queen was still apparent ; and the calm grace of mental serenity imparted to her countenance at least some share of its former loveliness. With a composed and steady step she passed through the hall, and ascended the scaffold ; and as she listened unmoved

while Beal read aloud the warrant for her death, even the myrmidons of Elizabeth looked upon her with admiration.

Mary Queen of Scots died in the forty-fifth year of her age. Her remains were interred in Peterborough cathedral ; they were removed by her son, and now repose in Westminster Abbey, about ten yards from the tomb of Elizabeth.

James had been reared to condemn and detest his unfortunate mother ; to regard her with selfish fear as one who might deprive him of his throne ; and when Mary sent him a present of a vest embroidered with her own hands, accompanied by a tender letter, and some jewels which remained in her possession, all were returned to her with disdain, and the messenger refused even an audience, because his mother, never having surrendered her own rights, addressed him as the Prince, and not as the King of Scotland. He had Buchanan for his instructor, who, when accused of having made his pupil a pedant, replied, "that he could make nothing else of him." In 1589 he married Anne, daughter of Frederick of Denmark, whom he brought from Copenhagen. In 1600 while hunting, an attempt was made to seize his person by the Earl of Gowrie, who, with his brother, was slain, while the king escaped unhurt. In 1603 he succeeded to the English throne ; and the year following, the Hampton Court conference, between the divines of the established church and the Puritans, was held in his presence. The next year the gunpowder plot was discovered. The condemnation and death of Raleigh was the greatest blot on the character and reign of James, who also lessened his popularity by undertaking the defense of the Protestants of Germany, and then abandoning their cause. He died in March, 1625.

James was succeeded by his son Charles I., an unfortunate monarch, whose disasters were prepared for him by his predecessors, and by the increasing spirit of liberty, but precipitated and increased by the alternate obstinacy and fickleness of his disposition. He ascended the throne in 1625, and found that his reign was likely to be troubled by a strong opposition ; but he could not find courage to make those concessions which the people were minded to demand of royalty.

The friends of liberty were disposed to view with a stern eye, the stand which the king took. They had already impeached his favorite minister, and his unsuccessful attempt to relieve Rochelle in 1627 increased their enmity. Charles, blinded by the monarchical doctrines of his father James, although he saw that his popularity was daily declining, took no steps to gain the affections and confidence of his people. The parliament refused to sanction the wishes of the monarch, and passed the famous bill of rights, which he was obliged to confirm.

Having made peace with France and Spain, Charles determined to rely on his own resources, but resorted to the desperate expedient of levying ship money. This, and the king's attempt to force the liturgy on the Scotch, brought upon him the opposition of Hampden and the Covenanters, to both of whom he was forced to submit. After several parliaments had been called and dissolved, Charles called the *long parliament* of 1640. Strafford and Laud were impeached, and the fury of the Puritans was excited against the church and the bishops. The signal for insurrection was given by the king going himself to the house and demanding the persons of five members whom he accused of treason. Civil war broke out; many engagements took place, with various success, but on the king's defeat at Naseby, he retired to Oxford, and on the approach of Fairfax, the parliamentary general, threw himself on the protection of the Scots, who sold him to the parliament. The army, now divided from the parliament, conveyed him to Hampton Court, whence he escaped with the intention of quitting the kingdom, but was retaken and brought back. Charles now professed himself ready to grant all the terms demanded for his release, except the abolition of episcopacy. He was arraigned for high treason, tried, and condemned. His conduct during his trial was a noble pattern of Christian meekness and firmness, and this he retained to his death. He was beheaded at Whitehall, on the 30th of January, 1648.

Charles had wedded Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France, and several children issued from the union. Charles II. succeeded to his father's rights. He was born in 1630, and was at the Hague when

his father was executed. The Scots, who had betrayed the father, sent an invitation to the son which he accepted; he was crowned at Scone, in 1651, when he was obliged to take the covenant. But he had no mean opponent in Cromwell, who defeated the Scotch at Dunbar, and Charles at Worcester. The appearance of the two armies was strikingly contrasted. The parliamentarians were remarkable for the plainness of their dress and equipments, their hair being cropped close (whence their appellation of *round heads*), and nothing merely ornamental appearing on their persons. The cavaliers, on the contrary, despising the austerity of their antagonists, were distinguished by their long curling locks, the finish of their equipments, and the reckless gayety of their bearing. From the battle of Worcester, Charles made his escape, and lay hidden in the thick branches of an oak in Boscobel wood, while his pursuers actually seated themselves under the tree. After many journeyings, in various disguises, he escaped to France.

In 1660 he was restored; and with him licentiousness and infidelity returned in a full tide. In 1662 he married the Princess Catherine of Portugal, by whom he had no children, although his illegitimate offspring were numerous. With the exception of the sale of Dunkirk to supply his extravagances, the acts of Charles's reign can scarcely be considered as his own, and belong rather to the history of his country. He lived in the indulgence of his appetites, interfering little in matters of state policy. The few he meddled with were of an odious nature. Charles died of an apoplectic fit, Feb. 6th, 1685, and by receiving, in his last moments, the sacrament from a popish priest, proved that he lived a hypocrite as well as a libertine.

By affability and wit, by going abroad without ostentation, and mixing with the lowest of his subjects, Charles obtained a certain degree of popularity, and the name of the Merry Monarch distinguished him during his life. His wit was ready and pleasant, as Rochester, whose disposition much resembled the monarch's, happily expressed in the epigram in which he speaks of Charles as one—

"Who never said a foolish thing,
And never did a wise one."

To this the king replied: "The matter was easily accounted for: his discourse was his own; his actions were his ministry's."

Charles and his courtiers being one day present at the exhibition of a man who daringly climbed to the point of the spire of Salisbury cathedral, and planted a flag there, the king said to his favorite, "Faith! Rochester, this man shall have a patent, that no one may do this but himself!"

James II., Charles's brother and successor, had as bad traits as he, without his popularity. An insurrection headed by the Duke of Monmouth, was the first disturbance in his reign. Monmouth had ever been the darling of the people, and some averred that Charles had married his mother, and owned his legitimacy on his death-bed. The Duke of Argyll, in the north, seconded his views, and, with Monmouth, planned a double insurrection, but both were defeated and executed. James suspended the exercise of the Protestant religion, acknowledged the supremacy of the pope, and allowed the Jesuits to establish themselves in the kingdom. The indignation of the people was now roused, and they hailed with joy the arrival of the Prince of Orange, before whom James fled. He was hospitably received by Louis XIV. of France, who aided him in his subsequent unsuccessful attempts to regain his throne. James died at St. Germain in France, 1701.

James's first wife was Anne Hyde, daughter of the Earl of Clarendon, who died before her husband's accession. Mary, their oldest daughter, was the consort of William of Orange, and reigned jointly with him. Anne, her sister, succeeded to the crown, and is known by the grateful title of good Queen Anne. Though thirteen children were born to her and her husband, Prince George of Denmark, all died young.

James's second wife was Mary Beatrice of Modena. Their son is known in English history as the Pretender, or the Chevalier de St. George. [See PRETENDER.] He was acknowledged by Louis XIV. as James III. of England, and Anne is said to have long entertained the hope of securing the succession to him; her dying words were, "O my dear brother, how I pity thee!"

Charles Edward, the Young Pretender, was the grandson of James II., and was born at

Rome in 1720. In 1745 he landed in Scotland, and published a manifesto, exhibiting the claims of his father to the English throne. He was joined by several Highland chiefs, who, entering Edinburgh, caused his father to be proclaimed. Charles Edward was passing the night in the village of Stateford, and had thrown himself upon his couch in a state of agitation, which prevented his sleeping for more than two hours. As soon as he learned that Edinburgh was occupied by the Highlanders of Lochiel, Keppoch, Arlshied, and O'Sullivan, he mounted his horse, and on the given signal, the army was in readiness to enter the city. The castle still held out for the house of Hanover. To avoid the balls of the enemy, who commanded the most direct road, the prince and his followers, diverging from the main route, came by the way of Duddingston to the royal park, which they entered through a breach in the wall. The royal park, the favorite promenade of James II. when he was at Edinburgh, being then Duke of York, comprises Arthur's Seat, which seems to shelter Holyrood at its feet, the basaltic rocks of Salisbury crags, the hermitage of St. Anthony, and the valley of St. Leonard, spots to which poetry and romance have given an interest that history has failed to confer.

From an eminence near the hermitage, Charles could contemplate, for the first time, the palace of his ancestors, with its quadrangular court, and the round towers of the principal facade. No alteration had taken place since the time of his grandfather. The entire building was standing, and the standard of the Stuarts waved proudly in the wind that swept over the majestic pile. The gothic chapel only was in ruins, as if to remind the prince that, in the revolution of 1688, the war was particularly directed against the faith of his grandfather, who decorated this place with such pomp. Charles dismounted. Already the park and the surrounding gardens were filled with a dense crowd of all ranks, ages, and parties. There were many merely curious spectators, but more warm Jacobites, and the latter hastened to congratulate the prince, who received them with ease, and that smiling look of pleasure which was so seductive to all.

His youth, his fine form, his light locks,

his delicate complexion, so different from the bilious hue that characterized the countenances of his ancestry, the perfect oval of his face, his intelligent blue eyes, the correct arch of his eyebrows, his regular nose, and mouth of aristocratic diminutiveness, were all curiously analyzed by the spectators. Some troubled whigs declared that there was in the countenance of the prince an air of melancholy, which was a presage of disaster in the midst of his triumph; but the Jacobites, and particularly the ladies of Edinburgh and Perth, were in raptures at the graces of their Charlie, as he was familiarly and popularly termed. They delighted to dwell upon his picturesque costume. Upon his vest of tartan plaid, glittered the national star of the order of St. Andrew; a scarf of gold and azure served him as a baldric, and to his neat blue velvet cap was attached the white cockade, which called to mind the rose of Lancaster. When he mounted the splendid bay charger which had been presented to him by the Duke of Perth, the acclamations of the spectators redoubled, for the prince was, in fact, a most accomplished cavalier. "Our hero looks like Robert Bruce," cried the Jacobites, and they were not deceiving themselves, for the portrait of Bruce at Holyrood served to verify the resemblance.

In the midst of an enthusiasm which might almost be called general, Charles could well forget, in this concourse of his father's subjects, the hostile terms of whig and tory, and saw around him only Scotchmen, interested, like himself, in severing the bonds imposed upon Scotland under the specious name of the union. In all the manifestoes of the Stuart family, since 1715, they appealed as frequently to the memory of national independence, as to the claims of their house. Thus, when Charles Edward was approaching the gate of the palace, he was suddenly met by a hoary-headed gentleman, James Hepburn of Keith, who was known to be opposed from principle to the "right divine of kings," and who had more than once haughtily blamed the government of James II. This gentleman, who was esteemed by all parties, was the first to show himself the partisan of Charles Edward, whom he regarded as the champion of the deliverance of Scotland. Hepburn wished

to be, in a manner, his herald into the palace of his fathers, and drawing his sword, he marshaled the prince with dignity to the apartment destined for his reception.

At intervals, the hostile cannon of the castle growled upon the city, as if to still the exulting shouts of the people. A ball directed at the palace shattered a tower, to the indignation of the populace, who knew that the English soldiery would dishonor, without remorse, the most precious monument of their ancient city.

With what emotions must Charles Edward have explored the royal halls of Holyrood, condemned for sixty years to a kind of solitary widowhood by the exile of his family. In the first gallery he beheld that long range of royal portraits, which the pride of Edinburgh holds so dear. In adjacent apartments he found the first traces of that beautiful queen, whose tragic fate alone occupies the mind, even among the multitude of historical and fabulous images. Here were her bed and curtains, the chairs where she was seated, those which she herself embroidered; and alas! was there not the imperishable stain of Rizzio's blood?

The shouts of the people, eager to behold their prince, more than once banished the reflections in which Charles Edward was indulging, and forced him to appear at the windows and show himself to the citizens of Edinburgh. A part of the crowd was called off to assist at the ceremony at the Cross of the High street, now destroyed—a place where the proclamation of public acts had taken place from time immemorial. The gallery in which the heralds and pursuivant at arms, clad in their official costume, appeared, was decorated with tapestry. A troop of Highlanders were formed in lines two deep on each side of the street, the trumpets sounded a flourish, the bagpipes played their pibrochs, and when the crowd was silenced, James III. was proclaimed, the commission appointing Charles Edward regent read, as well as the manifesto of the prince, dated Paris, May 16th, 1745. The innumerable windows of the houses in the High street, some of which were more than ten stories high, were filled with ladies, who waved their white handkerchiefs, to excite the shouts of the people; the attachment to

the legitimate monarch appeared universal, as if the faults of the dynasty had been expiated by its misfortunes. While the heralds were proclaiming James and his son, at the foot of the gallery, the Lady Broughton of Murray, a woman of uncommon beauty, appeared upon a splendid horse, with a drawn sword in her hand, like a heroine of Ariosto or Tasso, while other ladies distributed white ribbons to their brothers and admirers.

Charles Edward was at first successful, defeating General Cope at Preston Pans, but he returned to Edinburgh and wasted his time in idle parades. Being, however, joined by several discontented chiefs, he marched as far as Manchester, but hearing that the king was about to take the field, he returned to Scotland, and defeated the English forces under Hawley at Falkirk. In the mean time the Duke of Cumberland advanced to Edinburgh, and thence to Aberdeen, the Pretender retreating before him. At length the two armies met at Culloden, when, after an obstinate conflict, in which the Highlanders displayed signal courage, the royal army was successful, and the rebels fled, leaving 3,000 of their number dead upon the field.

A well authenticated anecdote of this battle strikingly displays the simplicity and ferocity of the Highlanders. An English officer, having fallen into the hands of a muscular adversary, who had thrown away his musket, and was brandishing a broadsword, supplicated for quarter. "Quarter! quarter!" cried the irritated Highlander, "I hae nae the time to quarter ye, sae ye must een be contentit to be cuttit in twa," suiting the action to the word.

Charles Edward wandered for a long time in disguise, chiefly among the Hebrides, and finally effected his escape to France. Nothing throws a clearer light on the fidelity and honor of the Scotch, than the fact that although Charles was frequently at the mercy of some of the poorest mountaineers, the high price which was set upon his head could not tempt them to betray him. One time, after having been without food for days, his dress torn to tatters by his briery hiding-places, Charles, finding himself near the house of a whig gentleman, sought shelter in it. "I am your political opponent," said the high-minded whig; "but I am also your fel-

low-man. I scorn to take advantage of your distress, and will protect you as long as you choose to remain beneath my roof." He kept his word, and even furnished the unhappy prince with a disguise which facilitated his escape. This feeling of forbearance to Charles, after his defeat, was manifested in a higher quarter. King George, being at a ball, a lady, who did not know him, asked him to drink to the health of the Pretender. "Willingly," replied the king; "I can not refuse to drink to the health of every unfortunate prince."

With the defeat of the Pretender ended all the hopes of the unfortunate Stuart family. Charles Edward died at Florence, in 1788.

STUART, GILBERT, a celebrated American portrait-painter, born at Newport, R. I., in 1755. He studied under Sir B. West, in London, where he pursued his profession with great success. Upon his return to America, he resided successively in Philadelphia, Washington, and Boston, in which latter city he died in 1828.

SUCHET, LOUIS GABRIEL, a brave and skillful general in the armies of Napoleon, was born at Lyons in 1772. He gained the rank of marshal and Duke of Albufera, and died in 1826.

SUE, EUGENE, a celebrated French novelist, born at Paris in 1807, the son of an eminent surgeon. Having squandered his patrimony in extravagant living, he was driven to writing romances. "The Mysteries of Paris" and "The Wandering Jew" were his most successful works. He died in exile in Savoy, Aug. 3d, 1857.

SUEVI. In the time of Cæsar, the Suevi were numbered among the most warlike nations of Germany, and agreed in customs and manners with the other inhabitants of that extensive country. Their situation is said to have been between the Elbe and the Vistula. Tiberius transported some thousands of them into Gaul, and assigned lands to others beyond the Danube. The Suevi formed a kingdom in the vicinity of the towns of Merida, Seville, and Carthagena, in Spain, which, in the year 585, was reduced to a province of the Gothic monarchy, by Leovigild, king of the Visigoths, after it had subsisted one hundred and seventy-four years.

SULLIVAN, JAMES, brother of Gen. Sullivan, was born at Berwick, Maine, April 22d, 1744, and studied law under his brother. He was for several years governor of Massachusetts, and held some high judicial offices. He died Dec. 10th, 1808, in the sixty-fifth year of his age.

SULLIVAN, JOHN, was born at Berwick, Me., Feb. 17th, 1740. For a few years before the Revolution, he practiced law in New Hampshire. He resigned his seat in the congress of 1774, to enter the army, in which he was appointed brigadier-general in 1775. In the battle of Long Island he was taken prisoner, but was soon exchanged, and intrusted with the command of the right division in the battle of Trenton. He also commanded the right wing at the battles of Brandywine and Germantown. The differences between Count d'Estaing and Sullivan caused the failure of the siege of Newport in August, 1777. In 1779 he defeated the Six Nations of Indians in New York. His extensive calls for military stores, and strictures on the conduct of Congress with regard to him, were followed by his resignation of his command on the 9th of November. After the close of the war, in 1786, he was elected president of New Hampshire, and held the office for three years. In October, 1789, he was appointed district judge of New Hampshire. He died Jan. 23d, 1795.

SULLY. MAXIMILIAN DE BETHUNE, Baron de Rosni, and Duke of Sully, was born at the castle of Rosni in 1559. At the age of eleven, his father presented him to the Queen of Navarre, who gave him an appointment about the person of her son Henry, with whom Sully was educated. Soon after this the queen, on the invitation of Charles IX., went to Paris, and died there, not without suspicion of poison; which opinion received confirmation when the massacre of St. Bartholomew occurred soon afterward. In that carnage, Sully escaped by passing through the crowd as a student to the college of Burgundy, where the principal locked him up in a closet for three days. In 1576 Henry of Navarre eluded the vigilance of his guards and arrived at Tours, accompanied by Sully, who, in the war that ensued, carried his valor almost to excess, which made Henry say to him one day, "I admire your courage, but

wish you to reserve it for better occasions." In all the battles and sieges that followed, he bore a prominent part. Henry IV. made him governor of Poitou, grand master of the ports and harbors of France, and erected, in his favor, the lands of Sully upon the Loire into a duchy. To the wise counsels and reforms of Sully, who now shone as a great statesman, the reign of Henry IV. owes a major part of its renown. On the murder of that great monarch, in 1610, the duke retired from court, and employed himself in writing his memoirs. He died at his castle at Villabon, Dec. 22d, 1641.

SUMATRA, an island in the eastern seas, the largest of the Sunda Isles, is divided obliquely by the equator, and contains about 160,000 square miles; it is fertile, but the interior is little known. It is partly subject to native tribes, and partly to the sway and influence of the Dutch.

SUMMERFIELD, JOHN, a very popular preacher of the Methodist church, died at New York, in 1825, aged twenty-seven. He was born in England.

SUMTER, THOMAS, a distinguished partisan officer, during the American revolutionary war, whose operations were principally confined to South Carolina, where he died in his ninety-eighth year, June 1st, 1832. In the halls of congress he served his country, as well as in the field. Sumter was younger than Marion, larger in frame, better fitted in strength of body for the toils of war, and, like his compeer, devoted to the freedom of his country. His aspect was manly and stern, denoting insuperable firmness and lofty courage. Determined to deserve success, he risked his own life and the lives of his associates without reserve.

SUWARROW, PETER ALEXIS, field-marshal and generalissimo of the Russian armies, was born about 1730. He made his first campaign in the seven years' war, and distinguished himself so much, that in 1762 he was appointed colonel of infantry. In 1768 he was made brigadier; soon after which he was raised to the rank of major-general; and for his services in Poland, he received the orders of St. Anne, St. George, and Alexander. In 1773 he had a command against the Turks, whom he defeated at Tourtakaye; on which occasion he wrote to Marshal Roman-

SUW

zoff, as follows: "Glory to God! Glory to thee! Tourtakaye's taken, and taken by me!" On the renewal of the war in 1787, Suwarrow defended Kinburn, and was wounded at the siege of Oxzakow. Sept. 22d, 1789, he gained, in conjunction with the Austrian general Saxe Coburg, the victory of Rymnik, though the Turks mustered four to one against the allies. This achievement was followed by the taking of Bender and Belgrade, for his share in which, Suwarrow was created, by the Emperor Joseph, a count of the Roman empire, and by his own sovereign, a count of the empire of Russia, with the title of Rymnikski. In 1790 he took Ismail, where, though the plunder was immense, Suwarrow would not take a single article for himself. After this, Suwarrow had a principal concern in the operations which produced the partition of Poland, for which he was made a field-marshal, and presented with an estate. When the Emperor Paul embarked in the confederacy against France, Suwarrow was appointed commander of the combined army in Italy, where he gained some advantages, particularly the battle of Novi. After this he crossed the Alps, and marched into Switzerland, but being disappointed of re-enforcements, he was obliged to retreat toward the lake of Constance. He was then recalled, and died of chagrin, May 18th, 1800.

SWEDEN occupies the eastern and larger portion of the Scandinavian peninsula in the north of Europe. It contains 170,715 square miles, and has 3,641,600 inhabitants. Its only foreign possession is St. Bartholomew's Island in the West Indies. The north of Sweden is mountainous, wild, and thinly populated. The number of lakes is very great: it is estimated that they cover nearly one-eighth of the area of the kingdom: Wener, Wetter, and Malar are the principal. The only navigable rivers are those that have been made so by art. The climate and soil do not favor the growth of grain. Forests cover over a fourth of the surface, principally pines, firs, and birch. Besides timber, tar, and pitch for export, they supply firewood and charcoal, of which there is a large consumption, since Sweden has no coal. She is rich in other minerals; there are valuable

copper mines, but her subterranean stores of iron are the most important.

The government is a constitutional monarchy. The supreme legislative power is vested in the diet, which, as of old, consists of the four orders of nobles, clergy, burghers, and peasants (landholders who are not noble). It meets at Stockholm every fifth year, and the sessions are limited to three months, unless protracted by press of business. The Lutheran religion is the established creed. There is a large university at Upsala, and another at Lund. Subordinate schools of various grades are sustained by the government. In many districts sparseness of population renders it necessary that the schoolmasters should be ambulatory. It is a general practice for parents, especially those in the country, to instruct their children in the long winter evenings.

Stockholm, the capital, is situated at the junction of Lake Malar with an inlet of the Baltic, about thirty-six miles from the sea as the channel goes. It is built partly on the mainland and partly on nine islands. It is a handsome city, surrounded by delightful environs, and is the most industrious and commercial town in Sweden. It contains 93,000 inhabitants.

The early chronicles of Sweden are a mass of fables and heroic legends. The introduction of Christianity, by Ansgarius, Bishop of Bremen, in 829, seems to present the first certain period of Swedish history. The early history of all the northern nations, even during the first ages of Christianity, is confused and uninteresting, and often doubtful, but sufficiently replete with murders, massacres, and ravages. That of Sweden is void of consistency, till about the middle of the fourteenth century, when it assumes an appearance more regular and consistent. The Swedes perished in the dissensions between their prelates and lay barons, or between those and their sovereigns; they were drained of the little riches they possessed, to support the indolent pomp of a few magnificent bishops; and, what was still more fatal, the unlucky situation of their internal affairs exposed them to the inroads and oppression of the Danes, who, by their neighborhood and power, were always able to avail themselves of the dissensions in Sweden. In

1397 Margaret, Queen of Denmark and Norway, joined Sweden with them. The tyranny of her grand-nephew Eric was not endurable, and the Danes were expelled in 1433. For nearly a century the Danish monarchs strove to subjugate the land. In 1520 Christian II. of Denmark determined to destroy at once all the Swedish nobility, in order to revenge the troubles they had occasioned, and to prevent the people from revolting in future, by depriving them of proper persons to conduct their operations. He cut off the chief men of the nation with the axe of the executioner. The entire senate were conducted to death before the eyes of the citizens of Stockholm. The cruelty of Christian is almost inconceivable; he indiscriminately pillaged all ranks of people, erected every where scaffolds and gibbets, and brandished the scythe of death over every head. He did not consider it as a sufficient gratification to deprive his victims of life; he took a pleasure in prolonging the duration of their sufferings by the sight of the preparations which preceded the execution, and he wished to give them as it were a full relish of all the bitterness of death. Among other instances of cruelty and barbarity, he obliged women to sew with their own hands the sacks in which they were to be tied up and drowned.

Gustavus Vasa, whose father was one of the victims of the massacre, roused his countrymen to arms, and the expulsion of the Danes (Christian II. being opportunely dethroned at the same time in Denmark) was followed by the coronation of Gustavus. In 1528 the confession of Augsburg was solemnly adopted as the national standard of faith. Under Gustavus Sweden rose from her semi-barbarous condition to a considerable affluence and prosperity. Gustavus Adolphus was the greatest of his successors. The illustrious Oxenstiern aided him in the improvement of the kingdom. He gained broad conquests in his wars with Russia and Poland, and fell in the moment of triumph as the champion of the Protestant faith in Germany. Christina, his daughter, succeeded at the age of six years, under the guardianship of Oxenstiern, who administered the kingdom with consummate ability. A war with Denmark (1643-1645) ended to the advantage of Sweden; and at the general

peace of Westphalia in 1648, Sweden received Pomerania, Rugen, Bremen, &c., with the annexed rights as a state of the empire,—acquisitions which raised her to the rank of a first-rate power. In 1654 Christina abdicating the crown in favor of her cousin, the Count Palatine of Deux-Ponts, retired to France, and afterward to Rome, where she died a Roman Catholic in 1689. The new monarch, Charles Gustavus, renewed war with Poland, overran the country, and attacked Denmark, which had sided with Poland, obtaining the cession of various Danish provinces. In a subsequent attack on Denmark, the Swedes were repulsed from Copenhagen by the aid of the Prussians and the Dutch, and the disappointed ambition of the king is said to have hastened his death. During the minority of his son Charles XI., the long contest with Poland was concluded by the peace of Oliva; Livonia, Esthonia, and Oesel were confirmed to Sweden, and the claim of the Polish kings to the Swedish crown was given up. In the war with Prussia and Denmark (1675-1679), the Swedes were worsted, but at the peace of Fontainebleau (1679) they regained all they had lost. This reign was the epoch of the first struggle between the crown, supported by the burghers and peasants, and the power of the senate and nobles. In 1693 the king was formally declared absolute by an act of the diet. He left his dominions in 1697 to his son, the famous Charles XII., then a lad of fifteen. The kingdom was in the highest state of prosperity and power; yet the inexperience of the young king tempted his neighbors to attack. A coalition was formed against him by Poland, Denmark, and Prussia. Charles assumed the offensive, humbled Denmark in six weeks, routed the Czar before Narva, and then invading Poland, expelled Frederick Augustus of Saxony from the throne. But Charles's invasion of Russia in 1708 and 1709 was fatal to his schemes of ambition: in the course of a few years his conquests were lost as rapidly as they had been won; and when in 1718 he fell at the siege of Frederichshall in Norway, Sweden was on the verge of ruin. His sister Ulrica Eleonora was soon forced to renounce the crown in favor of her husband, Frederick of Hesse Cassel. A treaty with Russia, by

which Livonia, Ingria, Esthonia, Carelia, Oesel, &c., were ceded to the czar, gained peace for the exhausted kingdom. For the next twenty years the court of Stockholm was a scene of foreign intrigue and corruption, in which the Hats, or French party, and the Caps, or Russian faction, alternately predominated. Agriculture and commerce flourished nevertheless; Linnaeus and his disciples gave a new impulse to science; and legislation was improved by a new code, 1634. In a war with Russia (1641) the Swedes were everywhere defeated, and at the peace of Abo (1743), through British mediation, part of Finland was given to Russia.

The reign of Adolphus Frederick was peaceful in its foreign relations, with the exception of the share taken against Russia, through the influence of the Hats, in the Seven Years' war. Gustavus III., in 1772, supported by the army and the body of the people, forcibly repealed the constitution of 1720, re-establishing the relative powers of the various branches of government nearly as before 1680; the party names of Hats and Caps were forever prohibited, the use of torture abolished, and the press declared free. In 1780 Sweden joined the armed neutrality of the northern powers against England; and in 1783 a commercial treaty was concluded with the United States. An alliance with the Porte in 1787 led to a war with Russia and her ally Denmark; and the mutinous conduct of the Swedish officers, who refused to invade Russia without orders from the states, produced the 'act of safety' (1789), which gave the king absolute power of war and peace, and abolished the senate, the last stronghold of aristocratic power. The peace of Werela (1790) was concluded on the basis of mutual restoration. In 1792 Gustavus III. was shot by Ankerström at a masquerade. His successor, Gustavus IV., formed an alliance with Russia and England against Napoleon in 1805: the French occupied Pomerania and Stralsund in 1807; Russia, after the conferences of Tilsit, turned her arms upon her late ally, and seized upon Finland, the impregnable fortress of Sveaborg being betrayed by the governor; an auxiliary force of 11,000 English, under Sir John Moore, was dismissed without effecting anything; the Danes also declared war:

and Tornea and the Aland Isles were taken by the Russians. These multiplied misfortunes were ascribed to the incapacity of the king, who had shown symptoms of mental derangement; he was deposed in 1809, and his uncle Charles XIII. called to the throne, to the exclusion of the son of Gustavus, who was declared incapable of ever inheriting. Peace with Russia was dearly purchased by the cession of Finland, East Bothnia, and Aland,—nearly a quarter of the territory of the kingdom, with a third of its population; but France restored Pomerania, in 1810, on the adoption of Napoleon's continental system. In 1810, on the election of a crown-prince, in consequence of the age of the king and the want of an heir, the choice of the states fell upon Bernadotte, one of Napoleon's ablest marshals. He assumed the reins of government, and soon leagued with Russia and England against the declining power of the great Corsican. The services of Sweden were rewarded in 1814 by the acquisition of Norway, which Denmark was compelled to yield, Sweden at the same time relinquishing to Prussia Pomerania and her remaining German possessions. The crowns of Sweden and Norway were declared indissolubly united, though each kingdom retained its separate constitution. In 1818 the king died, and Bernadotte ascended the throne as Charles XIV. His rule was marked by the uniform and increasing prosperity of the Scandinavian kingdoms.

KINGS OF SWEDEN.

- 1520. Christiern or Christian II. of Denmark.
- 1523. Gustavus Vasa: by whose valor the Swedes are delivered from the Danish yoke.
- 1560. Eric XIV., son of Gustavus: dethroned, and died in prison.
- 1568. John III., brother of Eric.
- 1592. Sigismund, King of Poland, son of John III.: disputes for the succession continued the whole of this reign.
- 1604. Charles IX., brother of John III.
- 1611. Gustavus (Adolphus) II., the Great.
- 1633. [Interregnum.]
- 1633. Christina, daughter of Gustavus Adolphus.
- 1654. Charles X. (Gustavus), son of John Casimir, Count Palatine of the Rhine.
- 1660. Charles XI., son of the preceding.
- 1697. Charles XII., styled the "Alexander," the "Quixote," and the "Madman of the North."
- 1719. Ulrica Eleonora, his sister, and her consort Frederick I.
- 1741. Frederick reigned alone.

1751. Adolphus Frederick, of Holstein-Gottorp, descended from the family of Vasa.
 1771. Gustavus (Adolphus) III.
 1792. Gustavus (Adolphus) IV.: dethroned, and the government assumed by his uncle, the Duke of Sudermania.
 1809. Charles XIII., Duke of Sudermania.
 1818. Charles (John) XIV. (Bernadotte), the French Prince of Ponte Corvo.
 1844. Oscar, his son, ascended the throne, March 8th.

SWEDENBORG, EMANUEL, an eminent mathematical, philosophical, and mystical writer, died in London, March 29th, 1772. He was born in Stockholm, Jan. 29th, 1688.

SWIFT, JONATHAN, was born in Dublin (some say at Cashel in Tipperary), Nov. 30th, 1667. Born a posthumous child, and bred up an object of charity by his uncle, this singular and haughty man early adopted the custom of observing his birthday as an occasion for sorrow rather than joy, and of reading, as it annually recurred, that striking scripture in which Job laments and curses the day upon which it was said in his father's house that a man-child was born. Swift was sent to Trinity College, Dublin, which he left in his twenty-first year, and was received into the house of Sir William Temple, a distant kinsman of his mother. Afterward he took orders in the Irish church, but soon tired of the life and income of an obscure country clergyman, threw up his living, and returned to the service of Sir William Temple. That gentleman died in 1699, and Swift was glad to accompany Lord Berkeley to Ireland as chaplain. From that nobleman he obtained the rectory of Aghar and the vicarages of Laracor and Rathveggan, to which was afterward added the prebend of Dunlavin; in all making his income only some £200 a year. At Moorpark Swift had contracted an intimacy with Miss Ilesier Johnson, daughter of Sir William Temple's steward; and on his settlement in Ireland, this lady, accompanied by another female, of middle age, came to reside in his neighborhood. He has immortalized her under the name of Stella. In 1701 Swift became a political writer on the whig side, and on his visits to England, he associated with Addison, Steele, and Arbuthnot. In 1710, conceiving that he was neglected by the ministry, he quarreled with the whigs, and was welcomed by Harley and the tory administration with open arms.

He carried with him shining weapons for party warfare—irresistible and unscrupulous satire, steady hate, and a dauntless spirit. From his new allies he received, in 1713, the deanery of St Patrick's. The accession of the house of Hanover ruined his hopes, and he retired to Ireland a disappointed man.

During his residence in England, he had engaged the affections of another young lady, Esther Vanhomrigh, who, under the name of Vanessa, rivaled Stella in poetical celebrity and in personal misfortune. After the death of her father, Miss Vanhomrigh and her sister retired to Ireland, where they had a small property near Dublin. Swift's pride or ambition led him to postpone indefinitely his marriage with Stella. Though he declared he loved her better than his life a thousand millions of times, he kept her in a state of hope deferred, injurious alike to her peace and her reputation. He dared not confess his situation to Vanessa when this second victim avowed her passion. He was flattered that a girl of eighteen, beautiful and accomplished, should sigh for 'a gown of forty-four,' and he did not stop to weigh the consequences. The removal of Vanessa to Ireland, as Stella had gone before, to be near his presence; her irrepressible passion, which no neglect could quench; her life of deep seclusion, chequered only by the occasional visits of Swift, each of which she commemorated by planting with her own hand a laurel in the garden where they met; her agonizing remonstrances, when all her offerings and devotion had failed,—are touching beyond expression. Swift could give but the coldest return. The tragedy deepened. Eight years had Vanessa nursed her hopeless attachment in solitude. At length she wrote to Stella, to ascertain the nature of her connection with Swift: the latter obtained the fatal letter, and rode instantly to Marley Abbey, Vanessa's residence. As he entered, the sternness of his countenance struck the unfortunate woman with such terror that she could scarce ask whether he would not sit down. He answered by flinging a letter on the table; and instantly leaving the house, mounted his horse and returned to Dublin. When Vanessa opened the packet, she found only her own letter to Stella. It was her death-warrant. She sunk at

SWI

once under the disappointment of the delayed yet cherished hopes which had so long sickened her heart, and beneath the unrestrained wrath of him for whose sake she had indulged them. She survived this last interview only a few weeks. Stella and Swift were at last secretly married in the garden of the deanery, when on her part all but life had faded away. Just before her death, he offered to acknowledge the union, but she replied, "It is too late." The fair sufferers were deeply revenged; in a few years the malady came which Swift had long foreseen and dreaded. After various attacks of giddiness and deafness, his temper became ungovernable, and his reason gave way. His almost total silence during the last three years of his life (for the last year he spoke not a word) appalls and overawes the imagination. He died on the 19th of October, 1745, and was interred in St. Patrick's cathedral, amid the tears and prayers of his countrymen. His fortune, amounting to about £10,000, he left chiefly to found a lunatic asylum in Dublin.

Swift's "Drapier's Letters" gave him unbounded popularity in Ireland. "Gulliver's Travels" and the "Tale of a Tub" are the chief corner-stones of his fame. His prose is a model of simple and vigorous English. His verse is of a homely stamp, but strikingly true to nature. There have been few so faithful depictees of human nature, in its frailties and weakness, as the misanthropic Dean of St. Patrick's.

In Swift's version of Æsop's fable of the apples and the ordure, when he came to the address of the latter to the former,—

"How we apples swim,"—

he subjoined the following lines upon a pompous, pragmatical limb of the law whom he disliked:—

"So at the bar the booby Bettesworth,
Though half a crown outpays his sweat's worth,
Who knows in law nor text nor margent,
Calls Singleton *his brother sergeant*."

Singleton was a first-rate barrister. The poem was sent to Bettesworth at a time when he was surrounded by his friends in a convivial party. He read it aloud till he had finished the lines relative to himself. He flung it down with great violence, trembled and turned pale. After some pause, his rage for a while depriving him of utterance, he

took out his penknife, and, opening it, vehemently swore, "With this very penknife I will cut off his ears." He went to the dean's house, and, not finding him at home, followed him to the house of a friend, where, being shown into a back room, he desired the dean might be sent for. On Swift entering the room, and asking what were his commands, "Sir," said he, "I am Sergeant Bettesworth."—"Of what regiment, pray, sir?" said Swift.—"Oh, Mr. dean, we know your powers of railery—you know me well enough; I am one of his majesty's sergeants-at-law, and I am come to demand if you are the author of this poem [producing it] and these villainous lines on me."—"Sir," said Swift, "when I was a young man, I had the honor of being intimate with some great legal characters, particularly Lord Somers, who, knowing my propensity to satire, advised me, when I lampooned a knave or fool, never to own it. Conformably to that advice, I tell you I am not the author." Bettesworth went off grumbling, saying Swift was like one of his own vile Yahoos, besmearing people with his filth, and out of the reach of punishment.

SWITZERLAND, a country in Europe, lying between France, Germany, and Italy, contains 15,179 square miles, and 2,400,000 inhabitants. More than half the country is mountainous, the Jura Mountains separating it from France, and the ranges of the Alps occupying the southern and eastern portions. Its picturesque and sublime scenery is well known; from the snowy summits and icy glaciers of the drear Alpine heights, enclosing pastoral valleys of surprising verdure and loud torrents plunging in wild cascades, to the placid lakes of Lemán, Constance, Zurich, Luzern, Neufchatel, and scores of lesser beauties, that sleep in the plains below. With such a variety of surface the climate and productions also widely vary. The valleys and plains are fertile, and the lower regions of the mountains afford fine pastures for herds and flocks.

The Swiss confederation consists of twenty-two cantons,—Aargau, Appenzell, Basel, Bern, Freyburg, St. Gall, Geneva, Glarus, Grisons, Luzern, Neufchatel, Schaffhausen, Schwyz (from which the country has its name), Soleure, Thurgau, Ticino, Unterwal-

den, Uri, Valais, Vaud, Zug, and Zurich. The sovereign authority is vested in the federal assembly, which consists of two representative chambers. The city of Bern is the federal metropolis. A majority of the Swiss are Calvinists; yet there are many Catholics, and some of the cantons are almost exclusively of the Romish faith. Liberty of conscience and freedom of worship are enjoyed by all. Education is generally diffused. Some of the private schools are famous for combining industrial training with scientific instruction. Hospitals for the infirm poor exist in every town, and some are richly endowed. The Swiss formerly sought service in large numbers in the armies of France, Holland, Spain, Naples, &c.; foreign enlistment is now generally prohibited.

Some portions of Switzerland have been busy with manufactures for centuries. The canton of Zurich has thousands of hands employed in making silks, handkerchiefs, ribbons, and cotton cloths and prints. The city of Basel (whose clocks in former times were an hour in advance of those of other places), a great centre of trade, makes many ribbons and satins, and much leather, paper, and tobacco. Geneva's watches and musical boxes are known to all Europe and America.

The exaggerated accounts given of the riches and milder climate of Italy, occasioned the successive inroads of various troops of barbarians who gloried in the common name of Gauls. In all these expeditions, the Helvetians took a considerable share, and afterward joined the Cimbri and the Teutones against the Romans. However, their want of discipline finally proved fatal to them; and the arms of Marius and Sylla obtained over the combined forces of Germany the most complete and decisive victory. From this era, the Helvetians lived in friendship and alliance with the Romans, till the arts of Orgetorix, one of their chieftains, involved them in that unfortunate expedition which ended in their being deprived of liberty and independence by Julius Cæsar, 57 B.C. Helvetia thus became a province of Rome. The decline of the Roman power, and the irruption of the Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other northern tribes hastened the downfall of the unhappy Helvetians. Of those who settled in Helve-

tia, the chief were the Burgundians and the more barbarous Alemanni, a German nation, who made their first appearance in 214, and settled in the duchy of Wirtemberg. On the downfall of the western nation, the Alemanni overran that part of Gaul since known by the name of Alsace; and being joined by their countrymen in Germany, they entered the territories of the Riparian Franks, and put all to fire and sword. This unprovoked attack, summoning Clovis, king of the Salian Franks, to the defense of his allies, the Alemanni were entirely defeated in a general engagement, with the loss of their king; and this nation acknowledged the sovereignty of Clovis, in 496, who gradually subdued, and afterward civilized the greatest part of Helvetia. Under the Franks it remained till 888, when, upon the death of Charles the Gross, it was seized by Raoul, and became part of the kingdom of Burgundy, which was given by Rodolf, the last king of Burgundy, to Conrad II., Emperor of Germany, in 1032; from which time it was esteemed a part of the empire; but being unjustly treated by Albert, Duke of Austria, the inhabitants revolted in 1308. Werner Stauffacher of Schwyz, Walter First of Uri, and Arnold von Melchthal of Unterwalden, conspired to free their land from the tyranny of Gessler, and the imperial minion was slain by brave William Tell. In a cavern near the lake of Luzern, the three founders of the Helvetic confederacy, are said, in Swiss traditions, to sleep. The herdsmen say that they lie there, in their antique garb, in quiet slumber; and when Switzerland is in her utmost need, they will awaken and regain the liberties of the land.

When Uri's beechen woods wave red
In the burning hamlet's light,
Then from the caverns of the dead,
Shall the sleepers wake in might!
With a leap, like Tell's proud leap,
When away the helm he flung,
And boldly up the steep
From the flashing billow sprung!

They shall wake beside their forest sea
In the ancient garb they wore,
When they linked the hands that made us free,
On the Grutli's moonlit shore;
And their voices shall be heard,
And be answered with a shout,
Till the echoing Alps are stirred,
And the signal-fires blaze out!

And the land shall see such deeds again,
 As those of that proud day,
 When Winkelried, on Sempach's plain,
 Through the serried spears made way!
 And when the rocks came down
 On the dark Morgarten dell,
 And the crowned helms o'erthrown
 Before our fathers fell!

For the Kùbreihen's* notes must never sound
 In a land that wears the chain,
 And the vines on Freedom's holy ground
 Untrampled must remain.
 And the yellow harvests wave,
 For no stranger's hand to reap,
 While within their silent cave
 The men of Grutli sleep!

In 1315 the several states of which this country was composed made their league perpetual; and in 1648 their liberty was absolutely fixed by the treaty of Westphalia. The peace of Aarau, in 1712, terminated the intestine struggles of the Swiss, which long rent in sunder the bonds of their union. Under the protection of the Helvetic league, the whole territory of Switzerland became, and for ages continued, an industrious, a free, a blameless, and a happy nation, until they were attacked by their neighbors the French. In 1798 the directory of France having become daring by the peace which they had dictated to the emperor, suddenly declared war against Switzerland.

Partly by force, and partly by treachery, they succeeded in their attempt, and, after changing the government from a federal into an united republic, continued to levy contributions, and impose exactions, with the most unpardonable severity. The treaties of Luneville and of Amiens held out to the Helvetic confederacy a guarantee of her ancient freedom and independence, which were never fully realized. By the treaty of Vienna, in 1815, the integrity of the nineteen cantons, as they existed in a political body, was recognized as the basis of the Helvetic system. To Switzerland were united the Valais, the territory of Geneva, and the principality of Neuchâtel, which formed three new cantons; and to the Helvetic confederation were added the bishopric of Basel, and the city and territory of Bienne, which form part of the canton of Bern.

* The Kùbreihen is the melody known by the name of the *Ranz des Vaches*, which was forbidden to be played by the royal bands in Paris, because it caused the Swiss guards to desert, and return to their native mountains, of which it powerfully reminded them.

The canton of Neuchâtel was formerly a principality, which finally came into the possession of Frederick I. of Prussia. In 1806 it was ceded to France, and Napoleon bestowed it upon his general Berthier, who enjoyed it till 1815, when it fell at the disposal of the allies. They restored the king of Prussia the title of prince, with certain rights, but made the country part of the Swiss confederation. In 1848 the inhabitants repudiated their allegiance to Prussia, and proclaimed Neuchâtel a free and independent member of the Swiss republic. In 1856 Prussia threatened a war to regain possession. Great energy and determination were shown by the Swiss in reply. On the intervention of France and England the dispute was at last adjusted by treaty in 1857. For a pecuniary compensation the Prussian king renounced his claims, retaining the title of Prince of Neuchâtel without any political rights.

SYLLA, L. CORNELIUS, a celebrated Roman, of a noble family. He first entered the army under the great Marius, whom he accompanied in Numidia, in the capacity of quaestor. He rendered himself conspicuous in military affairs, and Bocchus, one of the princes of Numidia, delivered Jugurtha into his hands for the Roman consul. The rising fame of Sylla gave umbrage to Marius, who was always jealous of an equal, as well as of a superior; but the ill language which he made use of, rather inflamed than extinguished the ambition of Sylla. He left the conqueror of Jugurtha, and carried arms under Catullus. For his services in the Social or Marsic war, he was rewarded with the consulship, in the fiftieth year of his age. In this capacity he wished to have the administration of the Mithridatic war; but he found an obstinate adversary in Marius, and he attained the summit of his wishes only when he had entered Rome sword in hand. After he had slaughtered his enemies, set a price upon the head of Marius, and put to death the tribune Sulpitius, who had continually opposed his views, he marched toward Asia, disregarding the flames of discord which he left behind him unextinguished. Mithridates was already master of the greatest part of Greece, and Sylla, when he reached the coast of Peloponnesus, was de-

laid by the siege of Athens, and of the Piræus. His boldness succeeded, the Piræus surrendered, and the conqueror spared the city of Athens. Two celebrated battles, at Chæronea and Orchomenus, rendered him master of Greece. He crossed the Hellespont, and attacked Mithridates in the very heart of his kingdom. The artful monarch, who well knew the valor and perseverance of his adversary, made proposals of peace, and Sylla did not hesitate to put an end to a war which had rendered him master of so much territory, and which enabled him to return to Rome like a conqueror. Murræna was left at the head of the Roman forces in Asia, and Sylla hastened to Italy. In the plains of Campania, he was met by a few of his adherents, and was informed that if he wished to contend with Marius, he must encounter fifteen generals, followed by twenty-five well disciplined legions. Pompey embraced his cause, and marched to the camp with three legions. Soon after he appeared in the field to advantage; the confidence of Marius decayed with his power, and Sylla entered Rome, a tyrant and a conqueror. The streets were daily filled with dead bodies, and seven thousand citizens, to whom the conqueror had promised pardon, were suddenly massacred in the circus.

Wholesale confiscation of the property of his opponents enabled Sylla to reward his partisans. When unbridled murder had raged for several days, one ventured to ask the dictator when there was to be an end of it. "We do not ask," said he, "to save those whom you wish to destroy, but to free from fear those whom you mean to save." Sylla answered that he did not yet know whom he would spare. "Then tell us whom you will punish." To this Sylla assented, and at once posted the names of eighty persons. Day by day he added to this list, which was hung up in the forum, and called the proscription. These atrocities were not confined to Rome: proscription and confiscation stalked throughout Italy. Sylla's object was to break down the democracy, and establish the ancient aristocratic form of the government. In the height of his supremacy,—in the struggle for which more than a hundred thousand lives had been sacrificed, throngs thrust into exile, and multi-

tudes reduced to beggary by confiscation,—the cold-blooded tyrant laid down his dictatorship, and calmly retired to private life! He took up his abode at Cumæ, where he passed his time in writing his memoirs, hunting and fishing, and licentious debauches. Within a year he was attacked by a most loathsome disease, and one day hearing that a magistrate of the adjacent town of Puteoli was putting off the payment of a debt to the corporation, in expectation of his death, he had him brought to his chamber, and strangled in his presence. The exertions he made caused him to throw up a quantity of blood, and he died that night, in the sixtieth year of his age, B.C. 78.

SYPHAX, a king of Numidia, married Sophonisba, the daughter of Asdrubal, and forsook the alliance of the Romans to join himself to the interest of his father-in-law, and of Carthage. He was conquered in a battle by Masinissa, the ally of Rome, and given to Scipio the Roman general. The conqueror carried him to Rome, where he adorned his triumph. Syphax died in prison, B.C. 201, and his possessions were given to Masinissa.

SYRACUSE, a celebrated city of Sicily, founded about B.C. 732, by Archias, a Corinthian, and one of the Heraclidae. It was under different governments; and after being freed from the tyranny of Thrasybulus, B.C. 466, it enjoyed security for sixty-one years, till the usurpation of the Dionysii, who were expelled by Timoleon, B.C. 343. In the age of the elder Dionysius, an army of one hundred thousand foot and ten thousand horse, and four hundred ships, were kept in constant pay. It fell into the hands of the Romans, under the consul Marcellus, after a siege of three years, B.C. 212. Modern Syracuse has only 14,000 inhabitants.

SYRIA, a country of western Asia, bordering on the Mediterranean Sea, forming part of the Ottoman empire, and containing about 70,000 square miles, and 1,500,000 inhabitants. We mention its principal towns. Aleppo once ranked as the third city of the Ottoman dominions. The population in 1795 is said to have amounted to 250,000: it is now less than a third of that. Seen from a distance, this city presents a picturesque appearance; its gay terraces, graceful mosques, airy arches, and shadowing trees, afford a

combination which is grateful to the senses; but a nearer approach, like daylight on a phantasmagoria, dispels the illusion. Walking through the streets, the eye wanders over high stone walls which flank the way, or turns baffled from the lattices with which the infrequent windows of the houses are churlishly guarded. The inhabitants of Aleppo differ but little from those of other Mohammedan cities and countries. They have the same love for indolent pleasures, the same fondness for the luxuries of the bath. The Jews of Aleppo have in their synagogue a manuscript of the Old Testament which they consider to be of great antiquity. As a commercial place, Aleppo has degenerated in modern times. The English, in the reign of Elizabeth, established a factory here, and consuls of various nations reside in the place at present. The city, including the suburbs, is seven or eight miles in circumference. Eight thousand inhabitants, together with two-thirds of the city, were destroyed by earthquakes in 1822 and 1823. The plague has often made fearful ravages here. Aleppo has also been the scene of fanatical massacres. In October, 1850, the Mohammedans mercilessly attacked the Christian inhabitants, slew many, and burned or plundered their dwellings and churches.

Antioch is another famous town. It is fifty miles west of Aleppo, on the Orontes, twenty-one miles from the sea. The population is less than 10,000, the houses low, and the land neglected. The appearance of the city is melancholy, and no remains recall the splendors of the day when it was the third city in the world, for beauty, greatness, and population. It was built by Seleucus Nicator, B.C. 300, partly on a hill, and partly in a plain, and named for Antiochus, his father. It was for a great length of time the residence of the Macedonian kings of Syria, and of the Roman governors when Syria became a province of that empire. The Christian faith was established at Antioch by St. Paul

and St. Barnabas, and here their disciples first bore the name of Christians. It continued to be a city of great importance, notwithstanding frequent and awful earthquakes, till A.D. 538, when Chosroes the Persian razed it to the ground. It was rebuilt by Justinian, again became a considerable place, and continued such till the time of the crusades. In 1098 it was taken by Godfrey, and became the seat of an European principality, which was overthrown by the Turks in 1269. Its commerce and importance passed to Aleppo.

Damascus is one of the most ancient towns in the world, being mentioned as existing in the days of Abraham (Genesis xiv. and xv.), and it is one of the few that have maintained a flourishing prosperity in all ages, though often subject to the devastating fortune of war. It was possessed in turn by Assyrians, Persians, Greeks, Romans, Saracens, and Turks. Tamerlane destroyed it in 1400. Here St. Paul began to preach the gospel, A.D. 52. Damask linens and silks were first manufactured at Damascus; and damask roses were transplanted to Europe from its gardens, whence the name in each case.

Syria formed a part of the Assyrian, Babylonian, Persian, and Macedonian empires in succession. After the battle of Ipsus, B.C. 301, it became the centre of the kingdom of the Seleucidæ, the usual abode of the kings being at Antioch, its capital. Their dominion was destroyed, and Syria declared a Roman province by Pompey, B.C. 65. Under the Cæsars it was one of the most populous, flourishing, and luxurious provinces of the empire. It had a considerable commerce, and proved indeed the emporium that connected the eastern and western quarters of the world. The Saracens wrested the land from the declining eastern empire in the seventh century. In 1516 it was conquered and united to the Turkish empire by the Sultan Selim II.

T.

TACITUS, **CAIUS CORNELIUS**, a celebrated Roman historian, was born about A.D. 58. The month of his death is unknown.

TALavera, a town of Spain, situated on the Tagus, thirty-five miles west of Toledo, famous for the battle fought here July 28th, 1809, between the French and the allies under Sir Arthur Wellesley. The French army amounted to 47,000 men, and the allied force to 19,000 British and 30,000 Spaniards. In the afternoon of the 27th, the French opened a cannonade on the left of the British position, while their cavalry attacked the Spanish infantry, and attempted to win the town of Talavera; they were finally repulsed. At nine in the evening, the action ceased, but Soult, the French commander, ordered a night attack to be made on the height occupied by General Hill, which he considered the key of the English position. Of this height the French gained a momentary possession, but it was recovered at the point of the bayonet. At daybreak, the 28th, the French again attacked Hill's position, and were repulsed; failing also in their other attempts, they rested about eleven, and, it is said, cooked their dinners on the field. At noon, Soult ordered a general attack along the whole line. At the close of the day, the French were repulsed at all points, and effectually defeated.

Marshals Victor and Sebastiani commanded the French advance. Soult, Ney, and Mortier being in the rear, compelled Wellesley to retire after the battle.

TALBOT, Lord, born at Blechmore, in Shropshire, in 1373. In the first year of Henry V. he was appointed lieutenant of Ireland, where he suppressed a rebellion, and brought the chief, Donald McGuire, to England. He next served in France, to the conquest of which he greatly contributed. His name struck terror into the French soldiers, till the appearance of Joan of Arc, as a supernatural being, turned the scale, and the English army retreated. The battle of Patay completed the disaster, and Lord Talbot fell wounded into the hands of the enemy. At the end of three years and a half, he was

ransomed, and again led the English to victory. He took a number of strong places, and carried his arms to the walls of Paris, for which he was created Earl of Shrewsbury. In 1443 he concluded a treaty with the French king; and the following year went again to Ireland as lord lieutenant; but in 1450 he was recalled to serve in France, where he fell at the battle of Castillon, in his eightieth year, July, 1453.

TALLARD, **CAMILLE D'HOTUN**, Count and Duke de, marshal of France, was born in 1652, in Dauphiny. He served under Turanne in Holland, in 1672. In 1693 he was made lieutenant-general, and in 1697 was sent ambassador to England. The war being renewed, he assumed the command on the Rhine in 1702, and the year following made himself master of Landau, after defeating the Prince of Hesse; but in 1704 he lost the battle of Blenheim, and was taken prisoner by Marlborough, to whom he said, "Your grace has beaten the finest troops in Europe." The duke replied, "You will except, I hope, those who defeated them." Marshal Tallard remained in England till 1712, when he returned to Paris, and was created a duke. He died in 1728.

It is said that he was the first to introduce celery to the English tables, during his captivity.

TALLEYRAND-PERIGORD, **CHARLES MAURICE DE**, was born in Paris in 1754, bred to the church, and though his life was not very consistent with the cloth, he rose to be Bishop of Autun. His participation in the measures that preceded the outbreak of the revolution, led to his excommunication by the pope, and he became a diplomatist, the part for which nature destined him. A failure in some of his intrigues rendered flight necessary, and he remained in the United States till after the reign of terror. Returning, he became minister of foreign affairs under the Directory, and retained the post under Napoleon, by whom he was made Prince of Benevento. In 1809 he was deprived of his offices, and conspired against the emperor. He was minister under Louis

XVIII., retired from public life before the storm of 1830, came forth under Louis Philippe, and was ambassador to England till 1835. He died in 1838. Napoleon said, "Talleyrand was always in a state of treason, but it was a treasonable complicity with Fortune herself; his circumspection was extreme; he conducted himself toward his friends as if at some future time they might be his enemies, and toward his enemies as if they might become his friends."

TALMA, FRANCIS JOSEPH, the Garrick of the French stage, was born in Paris about 1770, but his youth was passed in London, where his dramatic taste was formed by witnessing the acting of Kemble and the matchless Siddons. He died at Paris, Oct. 19th, 1826.

TAMERLANE (a corruption of Timour Lenk, Timour 'the lame') was, according to some authorities, the son of a shepherd, and to others, of royal descent. He was born in 1335, at Kesch, in the ancient Sogdiana, and became sovereign of Tartary in 1369. His first conquest was that of Balkh, the capital of Khorassan, on the frontiers of Persia. He next made himself master of Kandahar, and after reducing all ancient Persia under his dominion, he turned back in order to subdue the people of Transoxana. Thence he marched to lay siege to Bagdad, which he took, and proceeding with his victorious army into India, he subdued the whole of that nation, and entered Delhi, the capital of the empire. After Tamerlane had completed the conquest of India, he marched his army back, and falling upon Syria, he took Damascus. Thence, in 1401, he suddenly returned to Bagdad, which had partly shaken off the yoke. He soon became master of it again, and gave it up to the fury of the soldiers, on which occasion eight hundred thousand inhabitants are said to have been destroyed, and the city was razed to the ground. About this time five Mohammedan princes, who had been dispossessed by the Sultan Bajazet of their dominions, situated on the borders of the Euxine Sea, implored Tamerlane's assistance; and at length he was prevailed on to march his army into Asia Minor. He began with sending ambassadors to Bajazet, who were ordered to insist on his raising the siege of Constantinople, and doing

justice to the five Mohammedan princes whom he had stripped of their dominions. Bajazet disdaining these proposals, Tamerlane declared war against him, and put his troops in motion. Bajazet raised the siege of Constantinople, and July 28th, 1402, the ever memorable battle took place, between Cæsarea and Angora. After an obstinate contest Bajazet was defeated and taken prisoner. Tamerlane, who had hitherto fought with the scymitar and with arrows, employed several field-pieces in this engagement, and the Turks employed cannon and the ancient Greek fire. Tamerlane's splendid victory did not, however, deprive the Turkish empire of a single city. Musa, the son of Bajazet, became sultan, but notwithstanding the protection of Tamerlane, he was unable to oppose his brothers; and a civil war raged thirteen years among the family. Soon after this, Tamerlane ravaged Syria, and from thence he repassed the Euphrates, and returned to Samarcand. He conquered nearly as great an extent of territory as Genghis Khan. He was scarcely settled in his newly acquired empire, India, when he began to plan the conquest of China, but he died in the midst of his extraordinary career, early in the year 1405.

TARQUINIUS, LUCIUS, surnamed *Priscus*, the fifth king of Rome. He distinguished himself so much by his liberality and engaging manners, that Ancus Martius, the reigning monarch, nominated him the guardian of his children, and after his death the people chose Tarquin king. Tarquin reigned with moderation and popularity. He increased the number of the senate, and made himself friends by electing one hundred new senators from the plebeians. The glory of the Roman arms, which was supported with so much dignity by the former monarchs, was not neglected in this reign, and Tarquin showed that he possessed vigor and military prudence in the victories which he obtained over the united forces of the Latins and Sabines, and in the conquest of the twelve nations of Etruria. He laid the foundations of the capital, and to the industry and the public spirit of this monarch, the Romans were indebted for aqueducts and subterranean sewers, which supplied the city with fresh and wholesome water, and removed all the filth and

ordure, which, in a great capital, too often breed pestilences and diseases. Tarquin was the first who introduced among the Romans the custom to canvass for offices of trust and honor; he distinguished the monarch, the senators, and other inferior magistrates, with particular robes and ornaments, with ivory chairs at spectacles, and the hatchets carried before the public magistrates, were, by his order, surrounded with bundles of sticks, to strike more terror, and to be viewed with greater reverence. Tarquin was assassinated by the two sons of his predecessor, in the eightieth year of his age, thirty-eight of which he had sat on the throne, B.C. 576.

TARQUINIUS *Superbus* was grandson of Tarquinius Priscus. He ascended the throne of Rome after his father-in-law Servius Tullius, and was the seventh and last king of Rome. He murdered his father-in-law, and seized the kingdom. The crown which he had obtained with violence, he endeavored to keep by a continuation of tyranny. He paid no regard to the decisions of the senate, or the approbation of the public assemblies, and by wishing to disregard both, he incurred the jealousy of the one and the odium of the other. He was successful in his military operations, and the neighboring cities submitted; but while the siege of Ardea was continued, the wantonness of the son of Tarquin at Rome forever stopped the progress of his arms; and the Romans, whom a series of barbarity and oppression had hitherto provoked, no sooner saw virtuous Lucretia stab herself, not to survive the loss of her honor, than the whole city and camp arose with indignation against the monarch. The gates of Rome were shut against him, and Tarquin was forever banished from his throne, B.C. 509. Tarquin died in the ninetieth year of his age, about fourteen years after his expulsion from Rome.

TARQUINIUS, SEXTUS, the eldest of the sons of Tarquin the Proud, rendered himself known by a variety of adventures. When his father besieged Gabii, young Tarquin publicly declared that he was at variance with the monarch, and the report was the more easily believed when he came before Gabii with his body all mangled and covered with stripes. This was an agreement between the father and the son, and Tarquin

had no sooner declared that this proceeded from the tyranny and oppression of his father, than the silly people of Gabii intrusted him with the command of their armies, fully convinced that Rome could never have a more inveterate enemy. When he had thus succeeded, he dispatched a private messenger to his father, but the monarch gave no answer to be returned to his son. Sextus inquired more particularly about his father, and when he heard from the messenger that when the message was delivered, Tarquin cut off with a stick the tallest poppies in his garden, the son followed the example by putting to death the most noble and powerful citizens of Gabii. The town soon fell into the hands of the Romans. The violation of Lucretia by Sextus led to the expulsion of the family from the throne. Sextus was at last killed in battle during a war which the Latins sustained against Rome in the attempt of re-establishing the Tarquins on the throne.

TASSO, TORQUATO, one of the most celebrated of Italian poets, was born at Sorrento, on the southern shore of the Bay of Naples, about 1544. His unfortunate days were partly spent in a madhouse. He died at Rome in 1595. "Jerusalem Delivered" is his greatest work.

TAYLOR, GEORGE, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Ireland in 1716. He came to America while a young man, with no fortune but good character and sound honesty. He obtained a humble position in the extensive iron works of Mr. Savage on the Delaware, rose to be clerk, and afterward married his employer's widow, and became possessed of large property. After having been a member of the colonial legislature, he was chosen to congress in 1776. He died Feb. 23d, 1781.

TAYLOR, JEREMY, the most eloquent and imaginative of England's divines, was born at Cambridge in August, 1613. He has been styled by some the Shakspeare, and by others the Spenser, of theological literature. In the civil war he accompanied the royal army as chaplain, and in 1644 he was taken prisoner in the battle fought before Cardigan Castle in Wales. He was soon released, and continued in Wales, writing discourses that form so noble a monument to his memory. After the restoration he was made

TAY

Bishop of Down and Connor in Ireland. He was a man of learning, fervent piety, enlightened toleration, and great gentleness of demeanor. He died Aug. 13th, 1667.

TAYLOR, ZACHARY, twelfth president of the United States, was born in Orange county, Virginia, Nov. 24th, 1784; being the second son of Col. Richard Taylor, whose ancestors emigrated from England in 1692, and settled in Eastern Virginia. Col. Richard was a companion in arms of Washington, and distinguished alike for patriotism and valor; his wife, the mother of Zachary, was a woman of high spirit and intelligence. In 1790 Col. Taylor removed with his family to Kentucky, settling on the 'dark and bloody ground,' where Zachary was reared amid the startling and nerving incidents of a border life, to which doubtless was owing the hardihood that marked him during his military life. Till the age of twenty-one he followed the life of a farmer. The military service very early engaged his affections and excited his ambition. When the movements of Aaron Burr began to excite suspicion, volunteer companies were raised in Kentucky, to oppose his designs by arms should occasion demand. In such a troop Zachary and his brothers were enrolled; but events did not require the services of the volunteers, and Zachary returned to his farm.

On the death of his brother, Lieut. Hancock Taylor, who held a commission in the United States army, a chance for the vacancy was afforded to Zachary. Through the influence of his relative, James Madison, then secretary of state, and of his uncle, Major Edmund Taylor, he received from President Jefferson, May 3d, 1808, his commission as first-lieutenant in the seventh regiment of infantry. In the twenty-fourth year of his age, he was in the enjoyment of a competency as a farmer; but his active mind, and his love for a soldier's life, led him to prefer the care and privations of the camp and the field to the quiet comfort of a landed proprietor at home. The outbreak of the war with England in 1812 found him promoted to the rank of captain. He distinguished himself by the successful defense of Fort Harrison on the Wabash against a large force of Miami Indians. The garrison numbered but fifty-two men, of whom nearly two-

thirds were invalids, and he himself was just recovering from a fever. This gallant repulse, at odds so unfavorable, was highly praised, and it forthwith procured from President Madison a preferment to the rank of brevet major, the first brevet, it is said, ever conferred in the American army.

Taylor rose from grade to grade till he became general in the Indian wars of Florida and Arkansas. His greatest achievement in Florida was the victory of Okeechobee, which was gained on Christmas day, 1837; one of the most memorable battles in our annals of Indian wars, and remarkable for skill and bravery on both sides. But he acquired his greatest reputation as a military chieftain, in the invasion of Mexico in 1846. The victories of his little army at Palo Alto, Resaca de la Palma, Monterey, and Buena Vista, were largely due to his merit as a commander, which was acknowledged by his countrymen in every form of popular rejoicing and congratulation. He was nominated for the presidency by the whig party, and was successful over his competitor, Gen. Cass. His inauguration took place March 4th, 1849. He was not destined to serve out his term: a short illness terminated his life, July 9th, 1850. Among his last words were, "I have done my duty. I am not afraid to die." His sudden death was sincerely mourned throughout the land.

TCHERNAYA, BATTLE OF THE. Aug. 16th, 1855, the lines of the allied army in the Crimea, on the river Tchernaya, were attacked by 50,000 Russians under Prince Gortschakoff. The brunt of the attack was borne by the French and Sardinians, and the Russians were severely repulsed.

TEKELI, EMERIC, Count of, a Hungarian noble who went into Transylvania in 1671, and with some others soon distinguished himself at Prince Abafti's court, where he became, in a little time, first minister of state, and afterward generalissimo of the troops sent to assist the insurgent Hungarians against Austria, with which he made himself master of several places in Upper and Lower Hungary. Eventually he was forced to seek refuge in Turkey, and died at Constantinople in 1705.

TELL, WILLIAM, a Swiss patriot, was an inhabitant of Burgelm in Uri. In 1307 Her-

man Gessler, the Austrian governor of that province, set his cap on a pole, to which all who passed were required to pay obeisance. This order Tell disobeyed, for which Gessler commanded him, on pain of death, to shoot an arrow at an apple placed upon the head of his own son. Tell, who was an excellent marksman, cleft the apple without hurting the child; after which he declared, that if he had missed his aim, it was his intention to have directed another arrow through the heart of the tyrant. Gessler then caused Tell to be taken into a boat, for the purpose of conveying him out of the province; but in crossing the lake a storm arose, and as the prisoner was an experienced steersman, he was intrusted with the helm, of which he was no sooner possessed than he steered close to a rock, leaped on shore, and soon afterward shot Gessler near Kuznacht. The Swiss rose in arms, and the Austrian government was overthrown. Tell perished in an inundation in 1254.

TEMPLARS. The Knights Templars, one of the most celebrated orders of knighthood, originated in the following manner. In the year 1118, Hugh de Paganis and Godfrey de St. Amor, with seven gentlemen, went to the Holy Land, where they determined to erect and enter into a brotherhood. Being at Jerusalem they consulted what they should do, that might be a service acceptable to God; and being informed that in the town of Zaff, there resided many thieves that used to rob the pilgrims that resorted to the Holy Sepulchre, they resolved to make the passage more free by dispersing these robbers; and for the encouragement of these gentlemen in so good an undertaking, the king of Jerusalem assigned them lodgings in his palace adjoining to Solomon's palace, from which place they were called Knights Templars.

Baldwin II., third king of Jerusalem, and Guarimond the patriarch, finding their actions successful, furnished them with necessary provisions; and though their charitable services made them acceptable unto all, yet for the first nine years they were in so great distress, they were forced to accept the charity of well disposed people. But many Christians resorted to them, and increased their numbers greatly. When at war, their banner was one half black, the other half

white, signifying that they were white and fair to Christians, but black and terrible to their enemies. Pope Honorius, at the request of Stephen, patriarch of Jerusalem, prescribed unto them an order of life, whereby they were to wear a white garment, to which Pope Eugenius added a red cross. They made their vows, in the presence of the before mentioned patriarch, of obedience, poverty, and chastity, and to live under the rule of the regular canons of St. Augustine.

The Knights Templars (according to Dugdale) wore linen coifs and red caps close over them: on their bodies shirts of mail, and swords girded on with a broad belt: over all they had a white cloak reaching to the ground, with a cross on their left shoulder. They used to wear their beards of great length, whereas most of the other orders shaved. The badge of the order was a patriarchal cross, enameled red, and edged with gold, worn on the breast pendant to a ribbon.

The Templars being numerous and famous for their enterprises, not only for securing the passages, but for fighting both by sea and land against the infidels, they became highly favored by the Christian princes, who assigned to them great revenues to be spent in God's service. In process of time, they became exceedingly wealthy and powerful, so that they grew proud, and withdrew themselves from their obedience to the patriarch of Jerusalem, and attached themselves to the pope. But in the end they did not receive that favor they expected from the pope, for by him or through his consent, upon some infamous crimes charged against them, their lands and possessions were seized upon, and otherwise disposed of, their order suppressed, and they themselves imprisoned, condemned, and cruelly executed. According to the opinions of many authors, they were unjustly accused by subornation of witnesses, merely to gain their revenues, which were exceedingly great, having no less than sixteen thousand lordships in Europe.

The first settlement of this order in England (according to Dugdale) was in Holborn in London, but their chief residence, in the reign of Henry II., was the Temple in Fleet street, which was erected by them, and the church (built after the form of the Temple at Jerusalem) dedicated to God and our

Blessed Lady, by Heraclius, patriarch of Jerusalem, in the year 1185.

On Wednesday after the feast of the Epiphany, in the year 1307, the first of Edward II., by the king's special command, and a bull from the pope, the Knights Templars generally, throughout England, were seized and cast into prison, and in a general council held at London, being convicted of various impieties, all their possessions were confiscated by the crown.

The order was condemned in a general council at Vienna, under Pope Clement V., in 1311, and by a general decree of the said Clement, in the seventh year of his papacy, they were incorporated with the Knights Hospitallers. After this numbers of the order were burned alive and hanged, and it suffered

great persecution throughout Europe, particularly in France in the reign of Philip of Valois. It was finally extirpated in England in 1340.

TEMPLE, Sir WILLIAM, a celebrated statesman, born in London in 1628. In 1665 he went on a secret mission to the Bishop of Munster; after which he was employed in forming the triple alliance between England, Sweden, and Holland. He next became the resident minister at the Hague, and in that capacity promoted the marriage of the Prince of Orange and the Princess Mary. In 1679 he was appointed secretary of state; but the next year he resigned that situation, and retired to his country seat in Surrey, where he was often visited by Charles II., James II., and William III. He died in 1698.



TENNESSEE, with an area of 44,000 square miles, had in 1850 a population of 1,109,801, of whom 7,300 were free negroes and 275,719 slaves.

The western part of this state is level or gently undulating, the middle is broken by hills, and the eastern part is mountainous. There can be nothing grand and imposing in scenery, nothing striking and picturesque in cascades and precipitous sides of mountains covered with woods, nothing romantic and delightful in deep and sheltered valleys, through which wind still and clear streams, that is not found in this state.

Tennessee is bountifully supplied with noble rivers, and fine pure streams. The Mississippi washes its western border; the

Tennessee and the Cumberland have a large part of their course within its limits. Gold has been found in the south-eastern section of the state; iron occurs throughout the region east of the Tennessee; and coal of abundance and excellent quality is found among the Cumberland Mountains. Salt is also a valuable product. Agriculture forms the principal occupation of the inhabitants. A large portion of the land is productive, and many of the valleys of East Tennessee, and much of the middle and western sections, are eminently fertile. Indian corn and cotton are the staple crops, and a good deal of tobacco, hemp, and wheat are raised. In East Tennessee large droves of live stock are raised for eastern markets. The pine

forests of this section yield tar, turpentine, rosin, and lampblack. The chief articles which are sent to the New Orleans market are cotton, corn, whiskey, hogs, horses, cattle, flour, gunpowder, saltpetre, poultry, bacon, lard, butter, apples, pork, coarse linen, tobacco, &c.

Tennessee appears to have been first visited by hunters and Indian traders from North Carolina, about 1730. Like Kentucky, it was found to abound in buffalo, elk, and other game. Fort Loudon was built on the Little Tennessee in 1757, and several settlements were made. These were broken up by the Indians, the Cherokees, Choctaws, Chickasaws, and Shawnees; but they were renewed a few years afterward, and though hostilities continued to retard their progress, immigrants continued to pour into the new country, which belonged to the province of North Carolina. In 1784 the settlers of Tennessee made an abortive attempt to form a separate government under the name of Frankland. In 1790 a territory south-west of the Ohio, including the present states of Kentucky and Tennessee, was organized; in 1794 the latter was constituted a separate territory by its present name; and in 1796 it was admitted into the Union as a sovereign state.

Tennessee did not secede in form, but the center and west of the state were strongly rebel. In the east, intensely Unionist, the rebels exercised great brutality. The principal military occurrence here was Longstreet's siege of Burnside in Knoxville, which he however raised Dec. 4, 1863, and retreated. After the fall of Forts Henry and Donelson, Nashville at once fell into Union hands (Feb 24, 1862), and so remained. The surrender of Island No. 10, soon after, and that of Memphis, (April and June, '62,) gave the Unionists possession of most of the state. Rosecrans's victory at Murfreesboro, in the last days of 1863, drove Bragg from the southern part, and the only serious attempt on it afterwards was Hood's invasion in the end of 1864, which resulted in his defeat at Franklin, Nov. 30, 1864, and the utter annihilation of his army at Nashville shortly afterwards. Tennessee passed an emancipation law in January, 1865.

Nashville, the capital, is situated on the southern bank of the Cumberland, in a rich

and picturesque tract; population in 1860, 17,000. Murfreesboro was formerly the capital. Memphis, on the Mississippi, occupies the only advantageous site between the Ohio and Vicksburg, on either bank of the great river, a distance of 650 miles; population in 1860, 22,623.

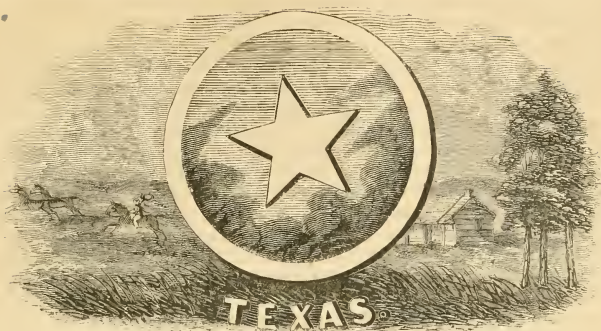
Knoxville, the leading town of East Tennessee, at the head of navigation on the Holston, a head-stream of the Tennessee, had 4,000 inhabitants in 1853.

TERENCE, a celebrated author of comedies, was born at Carthage, and a slave in Rome; his master Terentius Nuncanus gave him a good education and his liberty; he was drowned on his voyage home from Greece, 159 B.C.

TEWKESBURY, a market town of Gloucestershire, in England. It was at this place that the last battle was fought between the adherents of the houses of York and Lancaster, May 4th, 1471. This battle, it is well known, proved fatal to the Lancastrians; Queen Margaret and her son were taken prisoners. The field in which it was fought is still called the Bloody Meadow, and is situated about half a mile from the town. In the civil war in the reign of Charles I., Tewkesbury was the scene of severe contests between the contending forces.

TEXAS comprises an area of 325,520 square miles. In 1860 it had 604,215 inhabitants, of whom 182,566 were slaves. This does not include the Indians, who were estimated at 29,000. The country along the coast is low and level; back of this, an undulating prairie region, and the western section is hilly and mountainous. Cotton is the staple product; tobacco, sugar-cane, and the cereal grains produce abundant crops; the vine grows abundantly; the fruits of northern and southern climes ripen here side by side. Texas is believed to have a very rich store of minerals. Her forests of live oak and cedar surpass those of any other state in the Union. The entire coast, the river bottoms, and the chief part of the eastern section, are heavily timbered with pine, oak, ash, hickory, cedar, cypress, and other forest trees, often of noble dimensions. Her prairies furnish pastures for thousands of horses and cattle; swine are also raised in large numbers.

TEX



Until 1836 Texas formed a part of Mexico. Upon the defeat of Santa Anna, then president of Mexico, by Gen. Houston at San Jacinto, he was made prisoner. As a condition of release, he signed a treaty acknowledging the independence of Texas. In 1845 the republic was annexed to the United States as a sovereign member of the Union.

Texas was a seceding state, and within her limits the main body of the small regular army of the United States was treacherously surrendered to the rebels by the contrivance of General Twiggs, early in the year 1861. The remote situation of the state saved it in a great measure from the sufferings of war, but it contributed many men to the rebel army, and aided in maintaining the war also by the introduction of supplies from Mexico.

Austin, the capital, had 3,000 inhabitants in 1853. Galveston is the chief town and port of the state; population in 1853, 7,000.

THAMES, BATTLE OF THE. This was a decisive contest between the Americans under Gen. Harrison, and the British and Indians commanded by Col. Proctor and the celebrated Tecumseh, fought Oct. 5th, 1813, near the Moravian towns on the river Thames in Upper Canada. Harrison's troops were victors, and Tecumseh was slain.

THEBES, a celebrated city, capital of Boetia, situated on the banks of the river Ismenus. Cadmus is supposed to have first begun to found it by building the citadel Cadmea. It was afterward finished by Amphion and Zethus; but, according to Varro, it owed its origin to Ogyges. The early gov-

ernment of Thebes was monarchical, and many of the sovereigns are celebrated for their misfortunes, such as Laius, Œdipus, Polyneices, Eteocles, &c. The war which Thebes supported against the Argives, is famous, as well as that of the Epigoni. Under Epaminondas, the Thebans, though before dependent, became masters of Greece, and everything was done according to their will and pleasure. When Alexander invaded Greece, he ordered Thebes to be totally demolished, because it had revolted against him, except the gates, the temples, and the house where the poet Pindar had been born and educated. In this dreadful period, 6,000 of its inhabitants were slain, and 30,000 sold for slaves. Thebes was afterward repaired by Cassander, the son of Antipater, but it never rose to its original consequence, and Strabo, in his age, mentions it merely as an inconsiderable village. The monarchical government was abolished there at the death of Xanthus, about 1190 years before Christ, and Thebes became a republic.

THEBES, the No of Scripture, an ancient celebrated city of Egypt, called also Hecatompylos on account of its hundred gates, and at a later day, Diospolis, as being sacred to Jupiter. The original circumference of this gigantic city is said to have been 140 stadia. It was ruined by Cambyses, king of Persia. Its most magnificent ruins are those of Luxor and Karnac.

It is difficult to describe the stupendous and noble ruins of Thebes. Beyond all others they give you the idea of a ruined, yet

imperishable city ; so vast is their extent, that you wander a long time confused and perplexed, and discover at every step some new object of interest. The ruins of the great temple of Luxor are near the water's side, and its lofty yellow pillars, each thirty feet in circumference, and ranged in long colonnades, instantly arrest the attention. The entrance is through a magnificent propylon, or gateway, covered with elaborate sculptures. From the temple of Luxor to that of Karnac, the distance is a mile and a half, and they were formerly connected by a long avenue of sphinxes, the mutilated remains of which, the heads being broken off the greater part, still line the whole path. Arrived at the end of this avenue, you first pass under a very elegant arched gateway, seventy feet high, and quite isolated. About fifty yards farther you enter a temple of inferior dimensions. You then advance into a spacious area, strewn with broken pillars, and surrounded with vast and lofty masses of ruins,—all parts of the great temple : a little on your right is the magnificent portico of Karnac, the vivid remembrance of which will never leave him who has once gazed on it. Its numerous colonnades of pillars, of gigantic form and height, are in excellent preservation, but without ornament. Passing hence, you wander amidst obelisks, porticoes, and statues, the latter without grace or beauty, but of a most colossal kind. If you ascend one of the hills of rubbish, and look around, you see a gateway standing afar, conducting only to solitude ; detached and roofless pillars, while others lie broken at their feet ; the busts of gigantic statues appearing above the earth, while the rest of the body is yet buried, or the head torn away, while others lie prostrate or broken into useless fragments. On the left spread the dreary deserts of the Thebais, to the edge of which the city extends. In front is a pointed and barren range of mountains : the Nile flows at the feet of the temple of Luxor ; but the ruins extend far on the other side of the river, to the very feet of those formidable precipices, and into the wastes of sand.

THEMISTOCLES, a celebrated statesman and general of Athens. When Xerxes invaded Greece, Themistocles was at the head

of the Athenian republic, and in this capacity the fleet was intrusted to his care. While the Lacedæmonians under Leonidas were opposing the Persians at Thermopylæ, the naval operations of Themistocles and of the combined fleet of the Peloponnesians were directed to destroy the armament of Xerxes, and to ruin his maritime power. The battle which was fought near the island of Salamis, B.C. 480, was decisive ; the Greeks obtained the victory, and Themistocles the honor of having destroyed the formidable navy of Xerxes. These signal services to his country endeared Themistocles to the Athenians, and he was universally called the most warlike and most courageous of all the Greeks who fought against the Persians. He was received with the most distinguished honors ; and by his prudent administration, Athens was soon fortified with strong walls, the Piræus was rebuilt, and her harbors were filled with a numerous and powerful navy, which rendered her the mistress of Greece. Yet in the midst of that glory, the conqueror of Xerxes incurred the displeasure of his countrymen, which had proved so fatal to many of his illustrious predecessors. He was banished from the city, and after he had sought in vain a safe retreat among the republics of Greece and the barbarians of Thrace, he threw himself into the arms of a monarch whose fleets he had defeated, and whose father he had ruined. Artaxerxes, the successor of Xerxes, received the illustrious Athenian with kindness. Themistocles died in the sixty-fifth year of his age, about 449 years before the Christian era.

THEOCRITUS, a Greek pastoral poet, flourished 260 B.C.

THEODORIC I., king of the Visigoths, in the south of France, succeeded Wallia, in 419. He laid siege to Arles, but was repulsed by Aetius ; some time after he defeated Litorius, general of the Roman army, and led him prisoner to Toulouse. But when the formidable forces of Attila, king of the Huns, put all the princes of the Gauls into a great consternation, he united his forces with Merovee, king of France, Aetius, and Gundicaire, king of the Burgundians, and fought and defeated Attila at Chalons. Theodoric was killed in the battle, in 451.

THEODORIC II., son of the above, mur-

dered his eldest brother Thorismond, in 453, and made himself master of the town of Narbonne, which was surrendered to him by Count Agrippin, in 462. Advancing into Spain, Rechaire, king of the Suevi, his brother-in-law, gave him battle; but having worsted and taken Rechaire in his retreat, Theodoric sentenced him to death, and was himself killed soon after by the contrivance of one of his brothers called Evaric, who ascended the throne in 466.

THEODORIC, king of the Ostrogoths, founded their dominion in Italy, 493. His name, like that of Charlemagne after him, was celebrated in heroic songs, while political writers and historical critics commend alike his talents and his virtues. He died at Ravenna in 526, aged sixty-one.

THEODOSIUS FLAVIUS, a Roman emperor, surnamed Magnus, from the greatness of his exploits. He was invested with the imperial purple by Gratian, and appointed over Thrace and the eastern provinces, which had been in the possession of Valentinian. The first years of his reign were marked by different conquests over the barbarians. The Goths were defeated in Thrace, and four thousand of their chariots, with an immense number of prisoners of both sexes, were the reward of the victory. Conspiracies were formed against the emperor, but Theodosius totally disregarded them; and while he punished his competitors for the imperial purple, he thought himself sufficiently secure in the love and the affection of his subjects. He triumphed over the barbarians, and restored peace in every part of the empire. He died of a dropsy at Milan in the sixtieth year of his age, after a reign of sixteen years, the 17th of January, A.D. 395. Theodosius was the last of the emperors who was the sole master of the whole Roman empire. His want of clemency, in one awful instance, was too openly betrayed; for when the people of Thessalonica had unmeaningly, perhaps, killed one of his officers, the emperor ordered his soldiers to put all the inhabitants to the sword, and no less than six thousand persons, without distinction of rank, age, or sex, were cruelly butchered in that town in the space of three hours. This violence irritated the ecclesiastics, and Theodosius was compelled by St. Ambrose to do open pen-

ance in the church, and publicly to make atonement for an act of barbarity which had excluded him from the bosom of the church and the communion of the faithful. In his private character Theodosius was an example of soberness and temperance; his palace displayed becoming grandeur, but still with moderation. He never indulged luxury, or countenanced superfluities. He was fond of bodily exercise, and never gave himself up to pleasure and enervating enjoyments. The laws and regulations which he introduced in the Roman empire, were of the most salutary nature.

THERAMENES, an Athenian philosopher and general in the age of Alcibiades, was one of the thirty tyrants of Athens. He was accused by Critias, one of his colleagues, because he opposed their views, and he was condemned to drink hemlock, though defended by his own innocence and the friendly intercession of the philosopher Socrates. He drank the poison with great composure, and poured some of it on the ground, with the sarcastical exclamation of, "This is to the health of Critias." This happened about 404 years before the Christian era.

THERMOPYLÆ, a small pass leading from Thessaly into Locris and Phocis. It has a large ridge of mountains on the west, and the sea on the east, with deep and dangerous marshes, being in the narrowest part only twenty-five feet in breadth. It is celebrated for a battle which was fought there B.C. 480, on the 7th of August, between Xerxes, and the Greeks under Leonidas. Xerxes assembled his troops and encamped on the plains of Thracis. Xerxes having no particular quarrel with the Spartans, sent messengers to desire them to lay down their arms; to which the Lacedæmonians boldly replied, "Let Xerxes come and take them." On the evening of the seventh day after Xerxes had arrived at the straits of Thermopylæ, twenty thousand chosen men, commanded by Hydarnes, and conducted by the traitor Epialtes, who had offered to lead them through another passage in the mountains, left the Persian camp. The next morning they perceived a thousand Phocians, whom Leonidas had sent to defend this important, but generally unknown, pass. The immense shower of darts from the Persians

compelled the Phocians to abandon the passage they had been sent to guard; and they retired to the highest part of the mountain. This gave the Persians an opportunity of seizing the pass, through which they marched with the greatest expedition. In the dead of the night the Spartans, headed by Leonidas, and full of resentment and despair, marched in close battalion to surprise the Persian camp. Dreadful was the fury of the Greeks; and on account of want of discipline, there being no advance guard or watch, greatly destructive to the Persians. Numbers fell by the Grecian spears, but far more perished by the mistakes of their own troops, who, in the confusion that prevailed, could not distinguish friends from foes. Wearied with slaughter, the Greeks penetrated to the royal tent; but Xerxes, with his favorites, had fled to the extremity of the encampments. The dawn of day discovered to the Persians a dreadful scene of carnage. The handful of Greeks by whom this terrible slaughter had been made, retreated to the straits of Thermopylæ; and the Persians, by menaces, stripes, and blows, could scarcely be compelled to advance against them. The Greeks halted where the pass was widest, to receive the charge of the enemy. The shock was dreadful. After the Greeks had blunted or broken their spears, they attacked with sword in hand, and made an incredible havoc. Four times they dispelled the thickest ranks of the enemy, in order to obtain the sacred remains of their king Leonidas, who had fallen in the engagement. Two days had they held the pass: on the third, when their unexampled valor was about to carry off the inestimable prize, the hostile battalions under the conduct of Epialtes, were seen descending the hill. All hopes were now dispersed, and nothing remained to be attempted but the last effort of a generous despair. Collecting themselves into a phalanx, the Greeks retired to the narrowest part of the strait; and on a rising ground, took post behind a wall which the Phocians had sometime raised, now mostly in ruins. As they made this movement, the Thebans, whom fear had hitherto restrained from defection, revolted to the Persians; declaring that their republic had sent earth and water in token of their submission to Xerxes; and

that they had been reluctantly compelled to resist the progress of his arms. In the mean time, the Lacedæmonians and Thespians were assaulted on every side; the wall was beaten down, and the enemy entered the breaches. But instant death befel the Persians that entered. In this last struggle, the most heroic and determined courage was displayed by every Grecian. It being observed to Diocenes, the Spartan, that the Persian arrows were so numerous as to intercept the light of the sun, he replied this was a favorable circumstance, because the Greeks thereby fought in the shade. At length it became impossible for the Greeks to resist the impetuosity and weight of the darts and other missiles continually poured upon them. They therefore fell, not conquered, but buried under a trophy of Persian arms. In this dreadful conflict, the Persians lost 20,000 men, and according to some historians, the whole of the Persian army amounted to five millions!

Of the 300 Spartans one only returned, and he was fiercely reproached for escaping from a field where all his companions had fallen. After the defection of the Thebans, Leonidas had only his countrymen and 700 Thespians.

THESPIA, a famous Greek tragic poet, and first representer of tragedy at Athens; flourished 536 B.C. His stage was a wagon.

THESSALY was one of the principal divisions of Northern Greece. It contained four provinces, mostly surrounded with mountains. In the centre of Thessaly, on the river Enipeus, were the city and plain of Pharsalus, famous for the battle fought there between Cæsar and Pompey. Thessaly was governed by its own kings till it became subject to Macedon.

With the exception of a short period under Jason of Phæræ, B.C. 371, Thessaly never assumed a prominent position in the affairs of Greece. This region was the cradle of many of the Grecian nations, as the Dorians, the Achæians, the Ætolians, &c. Here were Olympus, Ossa, and Pelion, mountains great in fable, and here was laid the scene of many a classical adventure.

THISTLEWOOD, ARTHUR, a disappointed man and desperate politician, who, in 1819, planned a conspiracy to assassinate the Brit-

ish ministers, at a cabinet dinner in Grosvenor square, and overthrow the government. He, and his confederates, fifteen or sixteen in number, assembled in a stable-loft in Cato street, Mary-le-bone, on the evening on which they proposed to effect their purpose, but the police having notice, they were surrounded, and most of them captured. Thistlewood and four others were tried at the Old Bailey, and being convicted, were executed in the usual manner in which death is inflicted for high treason, May 1st, 1820.

The plot is called the Cato street conspiracy. Rumor attributed this, with other combinations of the time, to the machinations of ministerial spies, who perfidiously abetted the designs of malcontents, so as to bring them within the clutch of the law.

THOMSON, CHARLES, secretary of the continental Congress, was born in Ireland, November, 1729, and came to America at the age of eleven. He went into business in Philadelphia, where he distinguished himself by his early opposition to the obnoxious measures of the British ministry. From 1774 till his resignation in 1789 he was the untiring secretary of Congress. He died Aug. 16th, 1824.

THOMSON, JAMES, was born in Roxburghshire, Scotland, in 1700, and spent his boyhood among the Cheviot Hills. After studying at Edinburgh, he sought his fortunes in London. The publications of the "Seasons" gained him friends and fame at once. He died at Kew, near London, Aug. 27th, 1748.

THORNTON, MATTHEW, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Ireland in 1714, and when only three years of age was brought by his father to America. He was bred at Worcester, Mass., studied medicine, and served as surgeon in the expedition of 1745 against Louisburg. He settled as a physician in Londonderry, N. H.; was sent to the continental congress in 1776. The same year he was made chief-justice of the court of common pleas of New Hampshire and afterward he was raised to the bench of the superior court. He died in Massachusetts, June 24th, 1803.

THORWALDSEN, ALBERT, was born at Copenhagen, Nov. 19th, 1770. He was long a student and resident in Rome, and gained a

lofty reputation as a sculptor. He died at Copenhagen, March 24th, 1844.

THRACE, a large country of ancient Europe, south of Scythia, bounded by Mount Hæmus. It had the Ægean Sea on the south, on the west Macedonia and the river Strymon, and on the east the Euxine Sea, the Propontis, and the Hellespont. Its northern boundaries extended as far as the Ister (now the Danube), according to Pliny and others. The Thracians were looked upon as a cruel and barbarous nation; they were naturally brave and warlike, addicted to drinking and licentious pleasures, and they sacrificed, without the smallest humanity, their enemies on the altars of their gods. Their government was originally monarchical, and divided among a number of independent princes. Thrace received its name from Thrax, the son of Mars, the chief deity of the country. The first inhabitants lived upon plunder; and on the milk and flesh of sheep.

THRASYBULUS, a famous general of Athens, who began the expulsion of the thirty tyrants of his country, though he was only assisted by thirty of his friends. His efforts were attended with success, B.C. 401, and the only reward he received for this patriotic action, was a crown made with two twigs of an olive branch; a proof of his own disinterestedness and of the virtues of his countrymen. The Athenians employed a man whose abilities and humanity were so conspicuous, and Thrasybulus was sent with a powerful fleet to recover their lost power in the Ægean, and on the coast of Asia. After he had gained many advantages, this great man was killed in his camp by the inhabitants of Aspendus, whom his soldiers had plundered without his knowledge, B.C. 391.

THRASYMENUS, a lake of Italy near Perugia, celebrated for a battle fought on its shore between Hannibal and the Romans, under Flaminius, B.C. 217. No less than 15,000 Romans were left dead on the field of battle, and 10,000 taken prisoners, or, according to Livy, 6,000, or Polybius 15,000. The loss of Hannibal was about 1,500 men. About 10,000 Romans made their escape, covered with wounds. This lake is now called the Lake of Perugia.

THUCYDIDES was an Athenian, born

about B.C. 471. He held a command in the Peloponnesian war, and for failing to raise the siege of Amphipolis, was sent into exile. For twenty years he was a refugee. During this time he busied himself with the history of the war, which has given him a high rank among classic authors. When peace was concluded between Athens and Sparta, B.C. 404, the return of exiles was permitted, and Thucydides was restored to his country the next year. It is supposed that he was assassinated at Athens, about 391 B.C.

THURLOW, **LORD EDWARD**, a famous chancellor of England during the reign of George III., died in 1806, at the age of seventy-four.

TIBERIUS, **CLAUDIUS NERO**, a Roman emperor after the death of Augustus, was descended from the family of the Claudii. His first appearance in the Roman armies was under Augustus, in the war against the Cantabri; and afterward in the capacity of general, he obtained victories in different parts of the empire, and was rewarded with a triumph. He had the command of the Roman armies in Illyricum, Pannonia, and Dalmatia, and seemed to divide the sovereign power with Augustus. At the death of this celebrated emperor, Tiberius, who had been adopted, assumed the reins of government. The beginning of his reign seemed to promise tranquillity to the world; Tiberius was a watchful guardian of the public peace; he was the friend of justice; and never assumed the sounding titles which must disgust a free nation, but he was satisfied to say of himself that he was the master of his slaves, the general of his soldiers, and the father of the citizens of Rome. That seeming moderation, however, which was but the fruit of the deepest policy, soon disappeared, and Tiberius was viewed in his real character. The armies mutinied in Pannonia and Germany, but the tumults were silenced by the prudence of the generals and the fidelity of the officers, and the factious demagogues were abandoned to their condign punishment. This acted as a check upon Tiberius in Rome; he knew from thence, that his power was precarious, and his very existence in perpetual danger. He continued, as he had begun, to pay the greatest deference to the senate: all libels against him he disregarded,

and he observed, that, in a free city, the thoughts and the tongue of every man should be free. While Rome exhibited a scene of peace and public tranquillity, the barbarians were severally defeated on the borders of the empire, and Tiberius gained new honors, by the activity and valor of Germanicus and his other faithful lieutenants. He at last retired to the island of Capreae on the coast of Campania, where he buried himself in unlawful pleasures. The care of the empire was intrusted to favorites, among whom Sejanus for a while shone with uncommon splendor. In this solitary retreat, the emperor proposed rewards to such as invented new pleasures, or could produce fresh luxuries. While the emperor was lost to himself and the world, the provinces were harassed on every side by the barbarians, and Tiberius found himself insulted by those enemies whom hitherto he had seen fall prostrate at his feet with every mark of submissive adulation. At last grown weak and helpless through infirmities, he thought of his approaching dissolution; and as he well knew that Rome could not exist without a head, he nominated, as his successor, Caius Caligula. Tiberius died at Misenum, the 16th of March, A.D. 37, in the seventy-eighth year of his age, after a reign of twenty-two years, six months, and twenty-six days. It has been wittily observed by Seneca, that he never was intoxicated but once all his life, for he continued in a perpetual state of intoxication from the time he gave himself to drinking, till the last moment of his life.

TICONDEROGA, **FORT**, was situated on a peninsula at the junction of the outlet of Lake George with Lake Champlain. The French built a fortress here in 1756. An English army under Abercrombie attacked it, July 6th, 1758, and was severely repulsed by the forces of Montcalm. Lord Amherst was more successful in 1759. He commenced a siege; the garrison saw that surrender would be inevitable, so that they dismantled the works, and their flight left it to the possession of the English. The bold exploit of Ethan Allen secured it to the Americans in 1775, the 10th of May. It was evacuated by Gen. St. Clair when threatened by the host of Burgoyne in 1777. The fortress is now in ruins.

TIGRANES, a king of Armenia, who made himself master of Assyria and Cappadocia. By the advice of Mithridates, his father-in-law, he declared war against the Romans. He despised these distant enemies, and even ordered the head of the messenger to be cut off who first told him that the Roman general was boldly advancing toward his capital. His pride, however, was soon abated, and though he ordered the Roman consul Lucullus to be brought alive into his presence, he fled with precipitation from his capital, and was soon after defeated near Mount Taurus. This totally disheartened him; he refused to receive Mithridates into his palace, and even set a price upon his head. His mean submission to Pompey, the successor of Lucullus in Asia, and a bribe of 60,000 talents, insured him on his throne; he received a garrison in his capital, and continued at peace with the Romans. His second son, of the same name, revolted against him, and attempted to dethrone him with the assistance of the king of Parthia, whose daughter he had married. This did not succeed, and the son had recourse to the Romans, by whom he was put in possession of Sophene, while the father remained quiet on the throne of Armenia. The son was afterward sent in chains to Rome, for his insolence to Pompey.

TILLOTSON, JOHN, an eminent English divine (1630-1694), was the son of a clothier at Sowerby, near Halifax and was bred in the Calvinistic faith of the Puritans. While studying at Cambridge, his views were somewhat modified, and at the passing of the act of uniformity in 1662, he submitted to the law, and accepted a curacy. He quickly became noted as a preacher, rose in the church, and after the revolution was made Archbishop of Canterbury.

TILLY, JOHN TZERKLES, Count de, a celebrated general in the 'thirty years war' in Germany, was born near Brussels, and is said to have been originally a Jesuit, which order he quitted for the Spanish army, and served under Alva in Flanders. He commanded the Bavarian troops under Duke Maximilian, and had a great share in the battle of Prague, Nov. 8th, 1620. At that of Lutter, in Lunenburg, in 1626, he defeated the king of Denmark, with whom he afterward concluded a treaty. In 1631 he took the city of Magdeburg, where

he committed a horrible massacre. The same year he was routed by Gustavus Adolphus; and while defending the passage of the Lech against the Swedes, he received a mortal wound, April 30th, 1632.

TILSIT, a town on the Niemen in East Prussia, celebrated for a memorable treaty concluded between France and Russia, July 7th, 1807, whereby Napoleon restored to the Prussian monarch one-half his dominions, and Russia recognized the confederation of the Rhine, and the elevation of Joseph, Louis, and Jerome Bonaparte to the thrones of Naples, Holland, and Westphalia. Napoleon and Alexander met on a raft in the middle of the Niemen to arrange the terms of this peace.

TIME. THE YEAR.—The Egyptians, it is said, were the first who fixed the length of the year. The Roman year was introduced by Romulus, 738 B.C. The *solar* or *astronomical year* was found to comprise 365 d., 5 h., 48 m., 51.6 s., 265 B.C. The *sidereal year*, or return to the same star, is 365 d. 6 h., 9 m., 11 s. A *lunar year* is the space of time comprehended in twelve lunar months, or 354 d., 8 h., 48 m., and was in use among the Chaldeans, Persians, and ancient Jews. Once in every three years was added another lunar month, so as to make the solar and the lunar years nearly agree. But though the months were lunar, the year was solar; that is, the first month was of thirty days, the second of twenty-nine, and so alternately; and the month added triennially was called the second Adar. The Jews afterward followed the Roman style of computing time. The *sabbatical year* was every seventh year among the Jews. Then the ground lay fallow, and people and beasts had rest. Every seventh sabbatical year was called the *jubilee year*. Then there was joy and rejoicing; all debts were forgiven; all slaves were set at liberty.

Different nations commenced the year at different seasons. The Jews dated the beginning in the month of March; the Athenians began the year in the month of June; the Macedonians on the 24th of September; the Christians of Egypt and Ethiopia on the 29th or 30th of August, and the Persians and Armenians on the 11th of the same month. Nearly all the nations of Christen-

dom now commence the year with the 1st of January. Charles IX. ordered this in France in 1564. The English began their year on the 25th of December, until the Conquest. William the Conqueror having been crowned Jan. 1st, the year thereafter began at that time. But though the historical year thus began, the civil or legal year did not commence till the 25th of March, and this continued as late as 1752, the time of the change from *old* to *new style*. This discrepancy caused great practical inconveniences; since January, February, and part of March sometimes bore two dates; and we often find in old records, 1745-1746, or 1745-6, or 1745½. Such reckoning often led to chronological errors; thus the revolution of 1688, as it is generally called, happened in February of the year 1688, according to the then mode of computation; but if the year were held to begin, as it does now, on the 1st of January, it would be the revolution of 1689.

The Roman calendar has in great part been adopted by almost all nations. Romulus divided the year into ten months, comprising three hundred and four days. Being fifty days shorter than the lunar year, and sixty-one less than the solar, its commencement of course did not correspond with any fixed season. Numa Pompilius (713 B.C.) corrected this calendar, by adding two months; and Julius Cæsar, desirous to make it more correct, fixed the solar year as being three hundred and sixty-five days, six hours, 45 B.C. The six hours were set aside, and at the end of four years forming a day, the fourth year was made to consist of three hundred and sixty-six days. The day thus added was called intercalary, and was counted before the 24th of February, which among the Romans was the 6th of the calendar, and which was therefore counted twice and called *bissextile*. It is now the 29th of February. This almost perfect arrangement was denominated the Julian style, and prevailed generally throughout the Christian world till the time of Pope Gregory XIII. It was defective in this particular; that the solar year consisted of three hundred and sixty-five days, five hours, and forty-nine minutes, and not of three hundred and sixty-five days, six hours. This difference of eleven minutes, each year, at the time of Gregory had amounted to ten

entire days, the vernal equinox falling on the 11th instead of the 21st of March. To obviate this error, Gregory ordained, in 1582, that *that* year should consist of three hundred and fifty-five days only; and to prevent further irregularity, it was determined that a year beginning a century should not be bissextile, with the exception of that beginning each fourth century: thus, 1700 and 1800 were not bissextile, nor will 1900 be so, but the year 2000 will be a leap year. In this manner three days are retrenched in four hundred years, because the lapse of the eleven minutes each year makes three days in about that period. The year of the calendar is thus made as nearly as possible to correspond with the true solar year, and future errors of chronology are avoided.

The new calendar was called the Gregorian, from the pontiff who had ordained the alteration, and was at once adopted in the Roman Catholic states of Europe. England, Denmark, and Sweden rejected it then; but in 1751 an act of parliament ordered its use in Great Britain. To the time of Gregory, the deficiency in the Julian calendar had amounted to ten days, we have seen; in 1751 there was a difference of another day. Eleven days, therefore, were dropped from the British September, in 1752, the third being made the fourteenth. The former reckoning is known as *old style*, while that of the Gregorian calendar is called *new style*.

THE MONTHS.—*January* was added to the year by Numa when he reformed the Roman calendar, and derives its name from Janus, a divinity among the early Romans. Numa placed it about the winter solstice, and made it the first month, because Janus was supposed to preside over the beginning of all business. The first day was a festival. *February* was also added by Numa, and so called from *Februa*, a feast which was held in behalf of the manes of deceased persons, when sacrifices were performed, and the last offices were paid to the shades of the dead. *March* was the first month of the year till the time of Numa. Romulus gave it the name of his supposed father, Mars; though Ovid observes that the people of Italy had the month of March before the rule of Romulus, but that they placed it very differently in the calendar. Of the origin of *April* we have no account.

May received its name, some say, from Romulus, who gave it this appellation in respect to the senators and nobles of his city, who were denominated *majores*; though others suppose it was so called from Maia, the mother of Mercury, to whom sacrifices were offered on the first day. On May-day the ancient Romans went in procession to the grotto of Egeria. It has been immemorially observed in England as a rural festival; and high poles, called May-poles, are yet in many places thickly hung with garlands wreathed in honor of the day. *June* some derive à *Junone*, and others à *Junioribus*, this being for the young, as the month of May was for aged persons. Ovid, in his *Fusti*, introduces Juno as claiming this month. *July* was named by Marc Antony in honor of Julius Cæsar, whose birth fell in it. *August*, in like manner, was so called in honor of Augustus Cæsar, because in this month he was born, was created consul, thrice triumphed in Rome, subdued Egypt to the Roman empire, and made an end of the civil wars. It was previously called *Sextilis*, or the sixth from March. *September* being the seventh month in the year before January and February were added, has its name from *septimus*, seventh. The emperor Domitian gave it his own name, Germanicus; the senate under Antoninus Pius called it Antoninus; Commodus gave it his surname, Hercules; and the emperor Tacitus his own name, Tacitus. But these names all fell into disuse. So, also, the senate ordered *October* to be called Faustinus, in honor of Faustina, wife of Antoninus the emperor; Commodus would have had it called Invinetus, and Domitian Domitianus: in spite of all these changes, the month retains the name denoting that it was at first eighth in the year. October was sacred to Mars. *November* was anciently the ninth month, whence its name. When the Roman senators would have called this month after Tiberius, in imitation of the similar honor paid to Julius Cæsar and Augustus, the emperor absolutely refused, saying, "What will you do, conscript fathers, if you have *thirteen* Cæsars?" *December* took its name from *decem*, being at first the tenth month. In the reign of Commodus, it was called Amazonius, in flattery of a courtesan whom that emperor passionately

loved, and had got painted like an Amazon.

DAYS OF THE WEEK.—The week is supposed to have been first used among the Jews, who observed the Sabbath every seventh day. They had three sorts of weeks: the first the common one of seven days; the second of years, which was seven years; the third of seven times seven years, at the end of which was the jubilee.

The following are the names of the days of the week among several nations:—

Latin.	Saxon	English.
Dies Solis,	Sun's Day,	Sunday,
Dies Lunæ,	Moon's Day,	Monday,
Dies Martis,	Tiw's day,	Tuesday,
Dies Mercurii,	Woden's day,	Wednesday,
Dies Jovis,	Thor's day,	Thursday,
Dies Veneris,	Friga's day,	Friday,
Dies Saturni,	Sa'erne's day,	Saturday.
German.	French.	Spanish.
Sonntag,	Dimanche,	Domingo,
Montag,	Lundi,	Lunes,
Dienstag,	Mardi,	Martes,
Mittwoche,	Mercredi,	Miercoles,
Donnerstag,	Jeudi,	Jueves,
Freitag,	Vendredi,	Viernes.
Sonnabend, or Samstag,	Samedi,	Sabado.

The present English names are all derived from the Saxon. *Sunday* was the day on which, anciently, divine adoration was paid to the sun. Among Christians it is commonly called *Dies Dominica*, or Lord's day, on account of the Saviour's appearance after the resurrection, in commemoration whereof it is observed as the Christian Sabbath. In the year 960 the Sabbath was ordained to be kept holy in England from Saturday at three in the afternoon till Monday at break of day. It is very remarkable that the heathen nations, who can not be supposed to have had any knowledge of the law or history of Moses, accounted one day of the seven more sacred than the rest. Hesiod styles the seventh day "the illustrious light of the sun;" and Homer says, "then came the seventh day, which is sacred or holy." Almost all nations, likewise, having any notions of religion, have appropriated one day in seven to the purposes of devotion, though they have differed with regard to the day. *Tuesday* was so called from Tuisto, Tiw, or Tuesco, a Saxon deity particularly worshiped on this day. Tuisto is mentioned by Tacitus. *Wednesday* is a corruption of Woden's day,

so called from the Saxon god Woden, or Odin, worshiped on this day. Woden was the reputed author of magic and the inventor of all the arts, and is thought to answer to the Mercury of the Greeks and Romans; others suppose him to be the same as Mars. *Thursday* derived its name from Thor, a deified hero worshiped by the ancient northern nations, especially by the Scandinavians and Celts. His authority extended over the winds and seasons, and particularly over thunder and lightning. He is said to have been the most valiant of the sons of Odin. This day, which was consecrated to Thor, still retains his name in the Danish, Swedish, and Low Dutch languages, as well as in the English. [See FRIDAY.] *Saturday* owes its name to the ancient Saxon idol Seater, or Saterne, the same with Saturn. The Jews still observe it as the Sabbath, in commemoration of the creation, and their redemption from the bondage of Egypt.

THE HOURS.—Day began at sunrise among most of the northern nations, at sunset among the Athenians and Jews, and among the Romans at midnight, as it does with us. It began to be divided into hours from the year 293 B.C., when L. Papirius Cursor erected a sun-dial in the temple of Quirinus at Rome. Before the invention of water-clocks, 158 B.C., the time was called at Rome by public criers. The Chinese divided the day into twelve parts of two hours each. The Italians reckon the day from sunset to sunset, counting twenty-four hours round, instead of two divisions of twelve hours each as we do. In England the measurement of time in early days was alike uncertain and difficult. One way was by wax candles, three inches burning an hour, and six candles burning a day. These candles were invented by Alfred, A.D. 886, clocks and hour-glasses not being then known in England. Seamen have a way of their own for reckoning time, by watches and bells. The watches are as follows: from twelve at night to four in the morning, from four to eight o'clock, and from eight till noon; then from noon to four, from four to six, from six to eight, and from eight till midnight. The two short watches in the afternoon are called the *dog-watches*. At the first half-hour of each watch, the ship's bell is struck once, at the

second half-hour twice, and so on; so that eight strokes, or *eight bells* as the phrase is, denote the end of the watch.

In the year 1792, the French nation, in their excessive desire to change all the existing institutions, decided to adopt a new calendar founded on philosophical principles; but as they were unable to produce any plan more accurate and convenient than that previously in use, they were contented to follow the old plan under a new name, merely changing some of the minor details and subdivisions, and commencing the year at a different period. The first year of the era of the republic began on the 22d of September, 1792. As all the public acts of the French nation were dated according to this altered style for a period of more than twelve years, its record here may be useful. Autumn: *Vendémiaire* (vintage month), from Sept. 22d to Oct. 21st; *Brumaire* (fog month), Oct. 22d to Nov. 20th; *Frimaire* (sleet month), Nov. 21st to Dec. 20th. Winter: *Nivose*, (snow month), Dec. 21st to Jan. 19th; *Pluviose* (rain month), Jan. 20th to Feb. 18th; *Ventose* (wind month), Feb. 19th to March 20th. Spring: *Germinal* (sprouts' month), March 21st to April 19th; *Floral* (flowers' month), April 20th to May 19th; *Prairial* (pasture month), May 20th to June 18th. Summer: *Messidor* (harvest month), June 19th to July 18th; *Fervidor* (hot month), July 19th to Aug. 17th; *Fructidor* (fruit month), Aug. 18th to Sept. 16th. *Sansculottides*, or feasts dedicated to—*Les Vertus* (the virtues), Sept. 17th; *Le Génie* (genius), Sept. 18th; *Le Travail* (labor), Sept. 19th; *L'Opinion* (opinion), Sept. 20th; *Les Récompenses* (rewards), Sept. 21st. Though this era commenced Sept. 22d, 1792, its establishment was not decreed until the 4th Frimaire of the year II. (Nov. 24th, 1793). This revolutionary calendar existed until the 10th Nivose, year of the republic XIV., being the 31st of December, 1805, when Napoleon restored the Gregorian mode of calculation.

TIMOLEON was born in Corinth about B.C. 410. His first exploit was the deliverance of Corinth from the tyranny of his elder brother Timophanes, in which it was necessary to put him to death. Timoleon's patriotism was not appreciated, and amid execrations for his share in the tragedy, he gloomily withdrew

from public life. When twenty years thereafter, the Syracusans, oppressed with the tyranny of Dionysius the younger, and of the Carthaginians, had solicited the assistance of the Corinthians, every one looked upon Timoleon as a proper deliverer; but all applications would have been disregarded, if one of the magistrates had not thus spoken: "Timoleon, if you accept of the command of this expedition, we will believe that you have killed a tyrant; but if not, we can not but call you your brother's murderer." This had due effect; and Timoleon sailed for Syracuse in ten ships, accompanied by about 1,000 men. The Carthaginians attempted to oppose him, but Timoleon eluded their vigilance. Ictas, who had the possession of the city, was defeated, and Dionysius, who despaired of success, gave himself up into the hands of the Corinthian general. This success gained Timoleon adherents in Sicily; many cities which hitherto had looked upon him as an invader, claimed his protection; and when he was at last master of Syracuse, by the total overthrow of Ictas, and of the Carthaginians, he razed the citadel which had been the seat of tyranny, and erected on the spot a common hall. When Syracuse was thus delivered from tyranny, Timoleon extended his benevolence to the other states of Sicily, and all the petty tyrants were reduced and banished from the island. A code of salutary laws was framed for the Syracusans; the armies of Carthage, which had attempted again to raise commotions in Sicily, were defeated, and peace was at last re-established. The gratitude of the Sicilians was shown everywhere to their deliverer. Timoleon was received with repeated applause in the public assemblies; and though a private man, unconnected with the government, he continued to enjoy his former influence at Syracuse; his advice was consulted on matters of importance, and his authority respected. He ridiculed the accusations of malevolence; and when some informers had charged him with oppression, he rebuked the Syracusans, who were going to put the accusers to immediate death. Timoleon died at Syracuse, about 337 years before the Christian era. His body received an honorable burial, in a public place, called, from him, Timoleon-teum; but the tears of a grateful nation

were more convincing proofs of the public regret, than the institution of festivals and games yearly to be observed on the anniversary of his death.

TIPPECANOE, BATTLE OF. In this fierce engagement, Nov. 7th, 1811, Gen. Harrison, then governor of the territory of Indiana, defeated a large body of Shawnees.

TIPPOO SAIB, the son of Hyder Ali, and the last Sultan of Mysore, resisted the spread of the British power in India with unavailing energy and bravery. Cooped up at last in Seringapatam, his capital, he refused the grasping terms his enemies offered. The British stormed the stronghold, May 4th, 1799, and Tippoo Saib fell amid heaps of slain. His age was fifty.

TITIAN. TIZIANO VECELLIO was born in the Venetian territories in 1477. He commenced the study of painting at the age of ten. He first appeared as a great painter in 1514, at the court of Alfonso I., Duke of Ferrara, where he executed several eminent works, and painted a portrait of Ariosto, who had commemorated him in the "*Orlando Furioso*." At Venice he produced a succession of magnificent pictures. In 1530 he painted a portrait of Charles V. at Bologna, and is supposed to have accompanied the emperor into Spain. There are many of his master-pieces at Madrid. Charles V. made him count palatine of the empire, and knight of the order of St. Iago. During a visit to Rome Michael Angelo visited him, praised highly a painting upon which he was engaged, and afterward said that "if Titian had been as much assisted by art as he is by nature, nothing could surpass him." Titian excelled as a colorist and portrait painter. He continued to wield the pencil till after he was ninety, and died of the plague at Venice, in 1576, at the advanced age of ninety-nine.

TITUS, FLAVIUS VESPASIANUS, son of Vespasian and Flavia Domitilla, became known by his valor in the Roman armies, particularly at the siege of Jerusalem. In the seventyninth year of the Christian era, he was invested with the imperial purple, and the Roman people had every reason to expect in him the barbarities of a Tiberius and the debaucheries of a Nero. When raised to the throne, he thought himself bound to be the father of his people, the guardian of vir-



ARCH OF TITUS AT ROME.

tue, and the patron of liberty; and Titus is, perhaps, the only monarch who, when invested with uncontrollable power, bade adieu to those vices, luxuries, and indulgences, which as a private man he had never ceased to gratify. All informers were banished from his presence, and even severely punished. A reform was made in the judicial proceedings, and trials were no longer permitted to be postponed for years. To do good to his subjects was the ambition of Titus; and it was at the recollection that he had done no service, or granted no favor, one day, that he uttered the memorable words, "My friends, I have lost a day!" Two of the senators conspired against his life, but the emperor

disregarded their attempts. He made them his friends by kindness, and, like another Nerva, presented them with a sword to destroy him. During his reign, Rome was three days on fire; the towns of Campania were destroyed by an eruption of Vesuvius; and the empire was visited by a pestilence, which carried off an infinite number of inhabitants. In this time of public calamity, the emperor's benevolence and philanthropy were conspicuous. The Romans, however, had not long to enjoy the favors of this magnificent prince. Titus was taken ill; and as he retired into the country of the Sabines, to his father's house, his indisposition was increased by a burning fever. He died the

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13th of September, A.D. 81, in the forty-first year of his age, after a reign of two years, two months, and twenty days.

TOULON, a seaport in the south-east of France. The most remarkable event in its history is the occupation of the town and harbor by the British, in the autumn of 1793, the subsequent siege by the republican troops of France, and the precipitate abandonment of the place by the British troops, on the 19th of December, 1793, after burning and carrying off about half the squadron contained in the port. Bonaparte, then only a lieutenant, commanded part of the besieging artillery, and conducted it with great judgment.

TOULOUSE, a city of France, formerly capital of the province of Languedoc, and now of the department of Upper Garonne, containing 85,500 inhabitants. An obstinate battle was fought here on the 10th of April, 1814, between the British under Lord Wellington, and the French, under Soult; neither commander having been apprised of the abdication of Bonaparte. The British troops were successful, but suffered severely; their loss, in killed and wounded, was between four and five thousand men; that of the French exceeded 10,000.

TOURNAMENTS. The first authentic mention of a tournament is to be found in the Chronicle of Tours, which records the death of Geoffrey de Friuli in 1066; adding the words, *qui torneamenta invenit*, "who invented tournaments." From the appearance of these exercises in Germany about the same time, we may conclude that this date is pretty nearly correct; and that if tournaments were not absolutely invented at that precise period, they were then first regulated by distinct laws. In England they did not appear till several years later, when the Norman manners introduced after the conquest had completely superseded the customs of the Saxons.

The ceremonies and the splendor of the tournament of course differed in different ages and different countries; but the general principle was the same. It was a chivalrous game, originally instituted for practicing those exercises, and acquiring that skill, which were likely to be useful in knightly warfare.

A tournament was usually given upon the occasion of any great meeting, for either military or political purposes. Sometimes it was the king himself who sent his heralds through the land to announce to all noblemen and ladies, that on a certain day he would hold a grand tournament, where all brave knights might try their prowess. At other times a tournament was determined on by a body of independent knights; and messengers were often sent into distant countries to invite all gallant gentlemen to honor the passage of arms.

The spot fixed upon for the lists was usually in the immediate neighborhood of some abbey or castle, where the shields of the various cavaliers who proposed combating, were exposed to view for several days previous to the meeting. A herald was also placed beneath the cloisters to answer all questions concerning the champions, and to receive all complaints against any individual knight. If, upon investigation, the kings of arms and judges of the field found that a just accusation was laid against one of the knights proposing to appear, a peremptory command excluded him from the lists; and if he dared in despite thereof to present himself, he was driven forth with blows and ignominy.

Round about the field appointed for the spectacle were raised galleries, scaffoldings, tents, and pavilions, decorated with all the magnificence of the age. Banners and scutcheons, and bandrols, silks and cloth of gold, covered the galleries and floated round the field; while all that rich garments and precious stones, beauty and youth, could do to outshine the inanimate part of the scene, was to be found among the spectators. Here too was seen the venerable age of chivalry; all those old knights whose limbs were no longer competent to bear the weight of arms, surrounding the field to view the prowess of their children, and judge the deeds of the day. Heralds and pursuivants, in the gay and many-colored garments which they peculiarly affected, fluttered over the field, and bands of warlike music were stationed near to animate the contest and to salute the victors.

The knights, as they appeared in the lists, were greeted by heralds and the people according to their renown; but the approba-

tion of the female part of the spectators was the great stimulus to all the chivalry of the field. Each knight, as a part of his duty, either felt or feigned himself in love; and it was upon these occasions that his lady might descend from the high state to which the mystic adoration of the day had raised her, and bestow upon her favored champion a glove, a riband, a bracelet, a jewel, which, borne on his crest through the hard-contested field, was the chief object of his care, and the great excitement to his valor. Often, too, in the midst of the combat, if accident or misfortune deprived the favored knight of the gaze of his lady's affection, her admiration or her pity won her to supply another token, sent by a page or squire, to raise again her lover's resolution, and animate him to new exertions.

The old romance of *Perce-forest* gives a curious picture of the effects visible after a tournament, by the eagerness with which the fair spectators had encouraged the knights. "At the close of the tournament, the ladies were so stripped of their ornaments, that the greater part of them were bareheaded. Thus they went their ways with their hair floating on their shoulders more glossy than fine gold, and with their robes without the sleeves; for they had given to the knights to decorate themselves, wimples and hoods, mantles and shifts, sleeves and bodies. When they found themselves undressed to such a pitch, they were at first quite ashamed; but as soon as they saw every one was in the same state, they began to laugh at the whole adventure, for they had all bestowed their jewels and their clothes upon the knights with so good a will, that they had not perceived that they uncovered themselves."

This is perhaps an exaggerated account of the enthusiasm which the events of a tournament excited in the bosom of the fair ladies of that day: still, no doubt can be entertained, that they not only decorated their knights before the tournament with some token of their approbation, but in the case of its loss, often sent him even a part of their dress in the midst of the conflict. The other spectators, also, though animated by less thrilling interest, took no small share in the feelings and hopes of the different parties. Each blow of the lance or sword, struck well and

home, was greeted with loud acclamations; and valor met both its incitement and its reward, in the expecting silence and the thundering plaudits with each good champion's movements were waited for and seen.

In the meanwhile, without giving encouragement to any particular knight, the heralds strove to animate all by various quaint and characteristic exclamations; such as, "The love of ladies!" "Death to the horses!" "Honor to the brave!" "Glory to be won by blood and sweat!" "Praise to the sons of the brave!"

It would occupy too much space to enter into all the details of the tournament, or to notice all the laws by which it was governed. Every care was taken that the various knights should meet upon equal terms, and many a precaution was made use of to prevent accidents, and to render the sport both innocent and useful. But no regulations could be found sufficient to guard against the dangerous consequences of such furious amusements; and Ducange gives a long list of princes and nobles who lost their lives in these fatal exercises. The church often interfered, though in vain, to put them down; and many monarchs forbade them in their dominions; but the pomp with which they were accompanied, and the excitement they afforded to a people fond of every martial stimulus, rendered them far more permanent than might have been expected.

The weapons in tournaments were, in almost all cases, restrained to blunted swords and headless spears, daggers and battle-axes; but, as may well be imagined, these were not to be used without danger; so that even those festivals that passed by without the absolute death of any of the champions, left, nevertheless, many to drag out a maimed and miserable existence, or to die after a long and weary sickness. And yet the very peril of the sport gave to it an all-powerful interest, which we can best conceive, at present, from our feelings at some deep and thrilling tragedy.

After the excitement, and the expectation, and the suspense, and the eagerness, came the triumph and the prize; and the chosen queen of the field bestowed upon the champion whose feats were counted best, that reward, the value of which consisted more in

the honor than the thing itself. Sometimes it was a jewel, sometimes a coronet of flowers or of laurel; but in all cases the award implied a right to one kiss from the lips of the lady appointed to bestow the prize. It seems to have been as frequent a practice to assign this prize on the field, as in the chateau or palace whither the court retired after the sports were concluded; and we often find that the female part of the spectators were called to decide upon the merits of the several champions, and to declare the victor as well as confer the reward. Mirth and festivity ever closed the day of the tournament, and song and sports brought in the night.

Everything that could interest or amuse a barbarous age was collected on the spot where one of these meetings was held. The minstrel, the juggler, the saltimbank, the story-teller, were present in the hall to soothe or to entertain; but still the foundation of tale and song was chivalry; the objects of all praise were noble deeds and heroic actions; and the very voice of love and tenderness, instead of seducing to sloth and effeminacy, was heard prompting to activity, to enterprise, and to honor—to the defense of virtue, and the search for glory.

It may be here necessary to remark, that there were several sorts of tournaments, which differed essentially from each other; but we shall not pause upon these any longer than merely to point out the particular differences between them. The joust, which was certainly a kind of tournament, was always confined to two persons, though these persons encountered each other with blunted arms.

The combat at outrance was, in fact, a duel, and only differed from the trial by battle in being voluntary, while the other was enforced by law. This contest was often the event of private quarrels, but was, by no means, always so; and, to use the language of Ducange, "though mortal, it took place ordinarily between two persons who most frequently did not know each other, or, at least, had no particular misunderstanding, but who sought alone to show forth their courage, generosity, and skill in arms." Sometimes, however, the combat at outrance was undertaken by a number of knights to-

gether, and often much blood was thus shed, without cause.

The *pas d'armes*, or passage of arms, differed from general tournaments, inasmuch as a certain number of knights fixed their shields and tents in a particular pass, or spot of ground, which they declared their intention to defend against all comers. The space before their tents was generally listed in, as for a tournament; and during the time fixed for the defense of the passage, the same concourse of spectators, heralds, and minstrels was assembled.

The round table was another distinct sort of tournament, held in a circular amphitheatre, wherein the knights invited jousted against each other. The origin of this festival, which was held, we believe, for the last time by Edward III., is attributed to Roger Mortimer, who, on receiving a knighthood, feasted a hundred knights and a hundred ladies at a round table. The mornings were spent in chivalrous games, the prize of which was a golden lion, and the evenings in banquets and festivities. This course of entertainment continued three days with the most princely splendor; after which Mortimer, having won the prize himself, conducted his guests to Warwick, and dismissed them.

From this account, taken from the history of the Priory of Wigmore, Monestrier deduces that those exercises called "round tables" were only tournaments, during which the lord or sovereign giving the festival, entertained his guests at a table which, to prevent all ceremony in respect to precedence, was in the form of a circle. Perhaps, however, this institution may have had a different and an earlier origin, though we find it mentioned in no author previous to the year 1279.

Chivalry, which, in its pristine purity, knew no reward but honor, soon—as it became combined with power—appropriated to itself various privileges, which, injuring its simplicity, in the end brought about its fall. In the first place, the knight was, by the fact of his chivalry, the judge of all his equals, and consequently of all his inferiors. He was also, in most cases, the executor of his own decree, and it would indeed have required a different nature from humanity to secure such a jurisdiction from frequent perversion. The

knight also took precedence of all persons who had not received chivalry, a distinction well calculated to do away with that humility which was one of knighthood's strictest laws. Added to this was the right of wearing particular dresses and colors, gold and jewels, which were restrained to the knightly class by very severe ordinances. Scarlet and green were particularly reserved for the order of knighthood, as well as ermine, minever, and some other furs. Knights also possessed what was called privilege of clergy; that is to say, in case of accusation, they could claim to be tried before the ecclesiastical judge. Their arms were legally forbidden to all other classes, and the titles of sire, monseigneur, sir, don, &c., were applied to them alone, till the distinction was lost in the course of time. [*See* CHIVALRY.]

In 1559, Henry II. of France, in a tilt with the Comte de Montmorency, when celebrating the nuptials of his sister with the Duke of Savoy, had his eye struck out, an accident which caused his death in a few days; and from this event tournaments were abolished in France. One was held in Smithfield so late as the twelfth century, when the taste for them declined in England.

TOUSSAINT L'OUVERTURE; a mulatto of St. Domingo, rose to the command of the blacks of that island, formed a constitution, and adopted the wisest and most humane regulations. He was treacherously betrayed and imprisoned by the French, and died in France in 1803, aged sixty.

TRAFALGAR, BATTLE OF, between the British fleet under Lord Nelson, and the combined fleet of France and Spain, on the 21st of October, 1805. On the 19th, it was communicated to his lordship that this fleet had put to sea, and as he concluded that their destination was the Mediterranean, he immediately made all sail for the entrance of the straits of Gibraltar with twenty-seven ships, three of them sixty-fours. On Monday, 21st, at daylight, the enemy was discovered off Cape Trafalgar. The commander-in-chief immediately made a signal for the fleet to bear up in two columns, as they formed in order of sailing; a mode of attack which he had previously directed, to avoid the inconvenience and delay in forming a line of battle in the usual manner, while he gave out, as the

signal, "England expects every man to do his duty." Never was expectation more amply fulfilled, or orders obeyed with more perfect regularity and effect. The enemy's line consisted of thirty-three ships, of which eighteen were French and fifteen Spanish; the French under Admiral Villeneuve, who was also commander-in-chief, and the Spaniards under Admiral Gravina. The action began at twelve o'clock, by the leading ships of the columns breaking through the enemy's line; the commander-in-chief about the tenth ship from the van, and Admiral Collingwood about the twelfth from the rear, leaving the van of the enemy unoccupied, the succeeding ships breaking through, in all parts, astern of their leaders, and engaging the enemy at the muzzles of their guns. The conflict was severe, and the enemy fought with great bravery, but the impulse of British skill and courage was irresistible. About three in the afternoon, many of the French and Spanish ships having struck their colors, their line gave way. Admiral Gravina, with ten ships, joining their frigates to leeward, stood toward Cadiz. The five headmost ships in their van tacked, and standing to the southward, to windward of the British line, were engaged, and the sternmost of them taken; the others went off, leaving to the English nineteen ships of the line, of which two were first-rates, with Villeneuve, commander-in-chief, and two other flag officers. Such a battle could not have been fought without sustaining great loss of men. The number of killed, however, did not exceed four hundred and twenty-three, nor that of the wounded eleven hundred and sixty-four. The gallant Nelson fell in the arms of victory. About the middle of the action, his lordship received a musket-ball in his left breast, which was aimed at him from the top of the ship with which the Victory was engaged. On his being carried below, he complained of acute pain in the breast, and of privation of sense and motion of the body and inferior extremities: his respiration became short and difficult; his pulse small, weak, and irregular; he frequently declared that his back seemed shot through; that he felt every instant a gush of blood within his breast, and that he had sensations which indicated to him the approach of death. In the course of an hour

his pulse became indistinct, his extremities and forehead cold, but he retained his wonted energy of mind, and exercise of his faculties, till the latest moment of his existence; and when victory, as signal as decisive, was announced to him, he expressed his heart-felt satisfaction at the glorious event, in the most emphatic language. He delivered his last orders with his usual precision, and in a few minutes after expired without a struggle.

TRAJAN, MARCUS ULPIS, a Roman emperor, was born near Seville in Spain, A.D. 53, and was adopted by Nerva. After Nerva died, the accession of Trajan to the vacant throne was confirmed by the unanimous rejoicings of the people, and the free concurrence of the armies on the confines of Germany and the banks of the Danube. The barbarians continued quiet, and the hostilities which they generally displayed at the election of a new emperor whose military abilities they distrusted, were now few. Trajan, however, could not behold with satisfaction and unconcern the insolence of the Dacians, who claimed from the Roman people a tribute which the cowardice of Domitian had offered. Decebalus, their warlike monarch, soon began hostilities, by violating the treaty. The emperor entered the enemy's country, by throwing a bridge across the rapid stream of the Danube, and a battle was fought, in which the slaughter was so great, that in the Roman camp linen was wanted to dress the wounds of the soldiers. Trajan obtained the victory; Decebalus, despairing of success, destroyed himself, and Dacia became a province of Rome. An expedition was now undertaken into the east, and Parthia threatened with immediate war. Trajan passed through the submissive kingdom of Armenia, and by his well directed operations made himself master of the provinces of Assyria and Mesopotamia. He extended his conquests in the east, obtaining victories over unknown nations; and when on the extremity of India, he lamented that he possessed not the vigor and youth of an Alexander, that he might add unexplored provinces and kingdoms to the Roman empire. Trajan had no sooner signified his intention of returning to Italy, than the conquered barbarians appeared again in arms, and the Roman empire did not acquire one single acre of territory from the conquests of

her sovereign beyond the Tigris. The return of the emperor toward Rome was hastened by indisposition. He expired in the beginning of August, A.D. 117, after a reign of nineteen years, six months, and fifteen days, in the sixty-fourth year of his age.

TRENCK, FREDERICK, Baron von, a Prussian officer, born at Königsberg, in 1726, aide-camp of Frederick the Great, served with distinction in the seven years' war; but, in consequence of an intrigue with the Princess Amelia, sister of Frederick, was imprisoned in the fortress of Glatz, from which he contrived to make his escape, entering the Austrian service. In 1758, having gone to Dantzic for the purpose of arranging the disposition of his mother's property, he was arrested and imprisoned in the fortress of Magdeburg, from which he was freed in 1763 by the interference of the Princess Amelia. He next went to Aix-la-Chapelle, where he married the daughter of a burgomaster of the city in 1765. Here he engaged in literature, politics, and commerce. On the failure of his wine-trade he returned to Germany, where he was received with favor and employed in various missions. In 1787, he revisited his native country and was favorably received by the successor of Frederick and the Princess Amelia. In 1791 he went to France, but falling under suspicion, was guillotined, July 25th, 1794.

TRENTON, the capital of New Jersey, on the eastern bank of the Delaware River, thirty miles north-east of Philadelphia, contains 20,000 inhabitants. Here was fought a memorable battle at early morn on the 26th of December, 1776. On the night of the 25th, the American army, under the command of Washington, crossed the Delaware, during the fury of a winter storm, and suddenly attacked the Hessians here, defeating them completely. Of the British, twenty men were killed, and nearly 1,000 taken prisoners; of the Americans, only two were killed, two frozen to death, and five wounded.

TRIPOLI, the most easterly of the Barbary states, is the least fertile. The great mountain range which diffuses verdure and fertility through the others, terminates, and the great desert presses close upon the cultivated territory. The tract in which the city of Tripoli stands is only an oasis, and a short

journey carries one into the midst of the sandy wastes. Tripoli thus can not equal the other capitals of Barbary; and its population does not exceed 20,000. Even this is supported rather by commerce and industry, than by the limited productions of the soil. It is a theatre of trade with the interior countries of Africa, by means of caravans across the desert. The rulers of Tripoli have shown a more enlightened spirit than has been displayed in the other states of Barbary. In the midst of the tenantless and desolate wastes eastward from the city of Tripoli, occur fertile districts, in which thick groves of the olive and the date rise about the villages, luxuriant crops of grain spring up, and flocks of sheep and goats browse on the welcome pasturage. Barca, the ancient Cyrenaica, across the ancient Gulf of Syrtis, so fearful to the mariners of old, exhibits a very improved aspect. It is traversed by a steep ridge, abounding in numerous springs, which sprinkle the surrounding deserts with valleys of brilliant verdure.

Throughout this land are the traces of cities that flourished in the times of Greece and Rome, now either wholly deserted, or dwindled into miserable Arab villages; the Cyrene of the Greeks, the Berenice of the Ptolemies, Leptis Magna, Teuchira, Ptolemeta, &c. Remains of their magnificence linger within the shattered columns and rich entablatures, that lie buried in the sand till borne away by some Arab utilitarian for millstones or building materials, and in the dismantled walls and gateways, whose strength vainly prolongs the struggle with time. Of all these ruins the best preserved are the tombs and sepulchral grottoes, over whose ornaments and inscriptions shrubs and weeds thickly cluster. The city of the living has gone to decay; the city of the dead has better survived; only the cry of the jackal and the hyena, the noise of the owl and the bat, disturb its pious solitude with discordant sounds of life.

After the conquest of Carthage, Tripoli became a Roman province. After the Vandals, it was under the dominion of kings, natives of the country, but afterward fell into the hands of the Saracens, who came from Egypt, and who carried away a great number of slaves, both from the kingdom and

the capital. The sceptre was then assumed by pirates or adventurers, from whom it was wrested by the Spaniards in 1510. The latter resigned it to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, who in 1551, were obliged to yield it to three famous corsairs, Salha Rais, Sinan Dassat, and Dragut, who were assisted with troops furnished by the grand seignior for this purpose, and who fully established the authority of the Turks. Tripoli then became famous, like the other Barbary states, for its piracies. In 1713 Hamet the Great massacred the Turkish officers and garrison, and established himself as bashaw independent of the Porte. The authority continued hereditary in his family till 1832, when Turkey recovered her power over the country, and it is now governed by a bashaw sent from Constantinople. The Arabs of the interior are substantially independent, and frequently war with the Turkish authority.

The depredations of the corsairs of Tripoli upon our commerce led in 1801 to a war between it and the United States. In August, 1804, Commodore Preble repeatedly bombarded the city of Tripoli. Soon after, the bashaw offered acceptable terms of peace, and a treaty was concluded June 3d, 1805.

TRIUMPH. The triumphal military procession of a victorious Roman general was a spectacle of great splendor and interest. When a general gained a considerable victory, he demanded a triumph of the senate. It was the highest military honor which could be obtained in the Roman state, and was reserved for those generals who, by hard-earned victories and glorious achievements, had added to the territories of the commonwealth, or delivered the state from threatened danger. The triumphal procession began from the Campus Martius, without the city, and passed through the most public places of the city to the capitol; the streets being strewed with flowers, and the altars smoking with incense. First went musicians of various kinds; the oxen destined for the sacrifice next followed, having their horns gilt, and their heads adorned with garlands; then in carriages were brought the spoils taken from the enemy, statues, pictures, plate, armor, &c., with the titles of the vanquished nations, and their images or representation. The spoils were succeeded by the captive kings

or leaders, with their children and attendants; after the captives came the lictors, having their *fusces* wreathed with laurel, followed by a great company of musicians and dancers, dressed like satyrs, and wearing golden crowns; and next came a long train of persons carrying perfumes. After these came the triumphant general, dressed in purple embroidered with gold, with a crown of laurel upon his head, a branch of laurel in his right hand, and in his left an ivory sceptre with an eagle on the top; the general's face was painted with vermilion, and a gold ball hung from his neck on his breast. The chariot in which the triumphant general stood was gilt, adorned with ivory, and drawn by four white horses abreast, or sometimes by elephants. That he might not be too much elated, a slave stood behind him, who frequently whispered in his ear, "*Remember that thou art a man!*" The general was attended by his relatives, and a great crowd of citizens all in white; after his car followed the consuls and senators; and last came the victorious army crowned with laurel, decorated with the gifts which they had received for their valor, and singing the general's praises, in which the citizens as they passed along also joined.

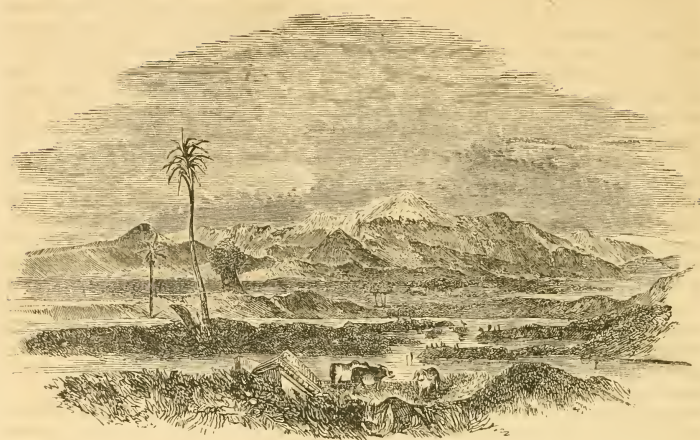
There was a lesser triumph, called the ovation, which was awarded to generals whose victories were not so considerable. He who was thus rewarded entered the city with a myrtle crown upon his head, that tree being consecrated to Venus; wherefore when an ovation was decreed to Marcus Crassus, he particularly desired it as a favor of the senate, to be allowed a laurel crown instead of one of myrtle. This triumph was called ovation, because the general offered a sheep when he came to the capital; whereas in the great triumph he offered a bull. Publius Posthumus Tubertus was the first who was decreed an ovation, B.C. 503. Triumphs were also distinguished into land and sea triumphs, according as the victory had been gained.

TRIVMIRI, were three magistrates appointed equally to govern the Roman state with absolute power. The first triumvirate, B.C. 60, was in the hands of Julius Cæsar, Pompey, and Crassus, who, at the expiration of their office, kindled a civil war. The second and last triumvirate, B.C. 43, was un-

der Augustus, M. Antony, and Lepidus, and through them the Romans totally lost their liberty. The triumvirate was in full force at Rome for the space of about twelve years. There were also officers who were called *triumviri capitales*, created A.U.C. 464. They took cognizance of murders and robberies, and everything in which slaves were concerned. Criminals under sentence of death were intrusted to their care, and they had them executed according to the commands of the prætors. The *triumviri nocturni* watched over the safety of Rome in the night time, and in case of fire, were ever ready to take the most effectual measures to extinguish it. The *triumviri agrarii* had the care of colonies, that were sent to settle in different parts of the empire. They made a fair division of the lands among the citizens, and exercised over the new colony all the power which was placed in the hands of the consuls at Rome. The *triumviri monetales* were masters of the mint, and had the care of the coin, hence their office was generally intimated by the following letters often seen on ancient coins and medals: *MIVIR, A.A.A.F.F.* i. e., *Triumviri auro, argento, ære, flando, feriendo*. The *triumviri valetudinis* were chosen when Rome was visited by a plague or some pestiferous distemper, and they took particular care of the temples of health and virtue. The *triumviri senatus legendi* were appointed to name those that were most worthy to be made senators from among the plebeians. The *triumviri mensarii*, were chosen in the second Punic war, to take care of the coin and prices of exchange.

TROMP, MARTIN HARPERTZON, a great Dutch naval commander, was born at the Brill, in Holland, in 1579. He rose from the lowest station to the rank of admiral. In the war between England and the United Provinces, Van Tromp fought five desperate engagements, in the last of which, July 29th, 1653, he was killed by a musket shot. The states-general struck medals to his honor. He carried a broom at the mast-head, to imply that he would sweep the English from the seas.

TROY, a city, the capital of Troas, in Asia Minor, or according to others, a country of which Ilium was the capital. Of all the



PLAINS OF TROY.

wars which have been carried on among the ancients, that of Troy is the most famous. The Trojan war was undertaken by the Greeks, to recover Helen, whom Paris, the son of Priam, king of Troy, had carried away from the house of Menelaus. The armament of the Greeks amounted to a thousand ships. Agamemnon was chosen general of all the forces; but the princes and kings of Greece were admitted among his counselors, and by them all the operations of the war were directed. The Grecian army was opposed by a more numerous force. The king of Troy received assistance from the neighboring princes in Asia Minor, and reckoned among his most active generals, Rhesus, king of Thrace, and Memnon, who entered the field with 20,000 Assyrians and Ethiopians. The army of the Greeks was visited by a plague, and the operations were not less retarded by the quarrel of Agamemnon and Achilles. After the siege had been carried on for ten years, some of the Trojans, among whom were Æneas and Antenor, betrayed the city into the hands of the enemy, and Troy was re-

duced to ashes. The poets, however, maintain, that the Greeks made themselves masters of the place by artifice. The greatest part of the inhabitants were put to the sword, and the others carried away by the conquerors. This happened, according to the Arundelian marbles, about 1184 years before the Christian era. Some time after, a new city was raised, about thirty stadia from the ruins of the old Troy: but though it bore the ancient name, and received ample donations from Alexander the Great, when he visited it in his Asiatic expedition, yet it continued to be small, and in the age of Strabo it was nearly in ruins.

TRUMBULL, JOHN, was born in Watertown, Conn., in 1750, and educated at Yale College, of which he became a tutor in 1771. He subsequently studied law in the office of John Adams, in Boston, and became acquainted with the leading patriots of Massachusetts. In 1775 was published the first part of "McFingal," a political satirical poem in the style of Hudibras, which passed through thirty editions. For many years Mr. Trumbull was a member of the legislature of Con-

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necticut, and was appointed a judge of the superior court in 1801, and afterward of the court of errors. In 1825 he removed to Detroit, Michigan, where he died May 12th, 1831.

TRUMBULL, JONATHAN, eminent lawyer of Connecticut, patriot of the revolution, chief justice of the supreme court of Connecticut, and fifteen years governor of that state, died in 1785, at Lebanon, Conn., in the seventy-fifth year of his age. Gen. Washington relied upon him as one of his main pillars of support. He was the original Brother Jonathan.

TRUXTON, THOMAS, a captain in the United States' navy, was born on Long Island, New York, Feb. 17th, 1755. Being impressed, he served a short time on board the President, a British sixty-four. In 1775 he brought some powder to the colonies, and was afterward captured, but escaped. He was then appointed lieutenant on board the Congress, a private armed ship, and, sailing in company with another vessel in 1776, took several valuable prizes. While in command of the St. James, of twenty guns, he beat off a British vessel of thirty-two guns. In the short war with France he commanded the frigate Constellation, and captured the French frigate L'Insurgente of fifty-four guns. In 1800 he retired from the service. He died May 5th, 1822, in his sixty-seventh year.

TUDOR, THE HOUSE OF. The sovereigns of this family who reigned over Britain and Ireland, were five in number: Henry VII., Henry VIII., Edward VI., Mary, and Elizabeth.

HENRY VII., the son of Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond, and Margaret, a descendant of John of Gaunt, was born in 1455. He was grandson of Catherine, queen of Henry V., who married Owen Tudor after her royal husband's death. Young Richmond landed at Milford Haven, Aug. 7th, 1485, and having defeated the usurper Richard III. at the memorable battle of Bosworth, in the same year, was proclaimed king. Jan. 18th, 1486, he married Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. By this marriage the claims of the royal houses of York and Lancaster were united. The queen died Feb. 11th, 1503. Henry, soon after his mar-

riage, went into the north, where the partisans of Richard were strong, and making hostile preparations, but they were quelled. The conspiracy of 1487, headed by Lambert Simnel, an impostor who pretended to be a Plantagenet, was also put down. Henry received, as a compromise for his claim upon the French crown, £186,250, besides twenty-five thousand crowns yearly. In 1492 the country was disturbed by an impostor named Osbeck, or Warbeck. [See WARBECK.] The schemes of another impostor, named Wilford, who personated the Earl of Warwick, afforded Henry a pretext for arresting the earl, and signing his death-warrant. Henry died of a consumption in 1509. By his avarice and rapacity, he is said, at one period, to have amassed £1,800,000.

HENRY VIII. was born in 1491. His elder brother, Prince Arthur, having died in 1502, he succeeded his father in 1509, and wedded his brother's widow, Catherine of Arragon, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. His interview with Francis I. of France, at Ardres, a small town within the English pale, near Calais, May 31st, 1520, is famous for its magnificence. The nobles attendant upon the monarchs, indulged in display so rich and expense so lavish, as to win for the plain of meeting the name of The Field of the Cloth of Gold. Many of Henry's retinue sank themselves in great debt, and were not able, by the penury of their whole lives, to repair the vain extravagance of these few days.

Henry began to dabble in theology, and wrote a tract in behalf of the church of Rome and against Luther, who had just commenced the reformation in Germany; upon which Pope Leo X. granted him in 1521 the title of Defender of the Faith, which is still retained by the sovereigns of Great Britain. In 1527 Henry having conceived a violent passion for the beautiful Anne Boleyn, one of the queen's maids of honor, was badly troubled in conscience that he should be the husband of his brother's widow, and he immediately set about procuring a divorce. But both the pope and Cardinal Wolsey were unwilling to sanction this unjustifiable scheme. Wolsey was therefore forced to give place to Thomas Cranmer, and after being arrested, died at Leicester Abbey, not with-



HENRY VIII.

out suspicion of having been poisoned. Henry privately married Anne Boleyn (whom he had created Marchioness of Pembroke), Nov. 14th, 1532. He had previously repudiated Catherine, and a formal divorce was declared, May 23d, 1533. The unhappy queen retired to a monastery, and died Jan. 6th, 1536. The royal amour involved a great religious revolution. Henry declared himself the "head of the church," and since Clement VII. would not sanction the union with Anne Boleyn, the authority of the pontiff in England was abolished. The abbeys and other ecclesiastical foundations were despoiled, and their great wealth seized by the crown, or bestowed upon citizens. Yet the Anglican church, as at first established in 1534, was not Protestant. It differed from the Romish church on the point of the papal supremacy, and on that point alone. Henry burnt as heretics those who avowed the tenets of Luther, while he hung as traitors those who owned the authority of the pope.

The wives of "bluff King Hal" held as ticklish hold on life or favor as those of Bluebeard. Conceiving a passion for Jane Seymour, maid of honor to Anne Boleyn, the latter, accused of high treason and adultery, was beheaded at the Tower, May 19th, 1536, and the former married on the following day. She died in giving birth to a prince, afterward Edward VI., Oct. 13th, 1537. Henry was inveigled by the advice of Cromwell, Earl of Essex, and by a flattering portrait of Holbein's painting, into wedding Anne of Cleves. Both her person and disposition he hated upon acquaintance: she was divorced July 10th, 1540, six months from the time of marriage; Cromwell was arrested for treason, was not allowed to be heard in defense, was convicted, and was beheaded July 28th, 1540. The vacancy in the royal bed was soon filled by Catherine Howard, niece of the Duke of Norfolk, married Aug. 8th, 1540. She, too, being accused of infidelity, was beheaded on Tower Hill, with the Lady

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Rochford, Feb. 12th, 1542. In 1543, Henry married his sixth and last wife, Catherine Parr. Though his health was declining apace, yet his implacable cruelties were not less frequent. The Duke of Norfolk, and his son, the Earl of Surrey, were the last who felt the effects of the tyrant's suspicions. The latter was arrested, tried, and condemned for high treason, notwithstanding his eloquent and spirited defense, and the sentence was soon after executed upon him on Tower Hill. The parliament meeting on the 14th of January, 1546, a bill of attainder was found against the Duke of Norfolk. The death-warrant was made out, and immediately sent to the lieutenant of the tower. The duke prepared for death, but was saved by the death of Henry.

Not men only, but women, of the noblest blood, greatest virtues, and most innocent lives, perished beneath the axe. The execution of the venerable Countess of Salisbury was remarkable for her resistance to the executioner. When he directed her to lay her head on the block, she would not; telling him that she knew of no guilt, and would not submit to die like a criminal. He chased her round and round the block, aiming at her hoary head, and at length took it off, after mangling the neck and shoulders with ghastly gashes. She was daughter of "perjured, fleeting Clarence," and the last of the royal line of Plantagenet.

Henry VIII. died Jan. 28th, 1547, at the age of fifty-six, after a reign of nearly thirty-eight years.

EDWARD VI., the heir of the crown, was a lad of ten years at his father's death, and ascended the throne under the protectorate of his maternal uncle, the Duke of Somerset. The most important event during the reign of the boy-king, was the progress of the Reformation. The ecclesiastical system of Henry VIII. was neither Roman Catholic nor Protestant, and was assailed with equal fury by all who were zealous either for the new or for the old opinions. The ministers who held the royal prerogatives in trust for the infant king could not venture to persist in so hazardous a policy; it was necessary to make a choice; the government must either submit to Rome, or must obtain the aid of the Protestants. The govern-

ment and the Protestants had only one thing in common, hatred of the papal power. The English reformers were eager to go as far as their brethren on the continent, and if left to themselves would have carried on the work of reform as unsparingly as it had been in Scotland. But, as the government needed the support of the Protestants, so the Protestants needed the protection of the government. Much was therefore given upon both sides; a union was effected, and the fruit of that union was the Church of England. Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, took the chief part in adjusting the new ecclesiastical polity. The liturgy was first framed in 1547-8, and afterward, in 1551, upon the solicitation of Calvin and others, reviewed and altered to nearly its present state. The book of common prayer and the church service were established in 1552. Concerning these beneficent measures, the king, who was an amiable and virtuous youth, acquiesced in the wishes of his sage counselors.

The might and ambition of the Protector Somerset made him many enemies, and by the machinations of Dudley, Earl of Northumberland, he was driven from power and at last beheaded; Dudley then swayed with a power as absolute. The king wasted with consumption, and died at Greenwich palace, July 6th, 1553. His father had settled the succession, in case of no issue from Edward, upon Mary, the daughter of Catherine of Arragon. The ambitious Dudley persuaded Edward to set aside his father's will, and appoint as his successor Lady Jane Grey, a grand-niece of Henry VIII., who favored the evangelical doctrines of the Reformation, while Mary was a bigoted papist. This being accomplished, Northumberland married his son, Lord Guilford Dudley, to the new heir of the crown. [*See GREY, LADY JANE.*]

MARY was in her thirty-ninth year when she ascended the throne. Her young rivals expiated a short-lived exaltation on the scaffold. Mary was gloomy, tyrannical, and sanguinary, and such was her reign. The persecutions and vexations she had endured in the time of her father and brother, for her adherence to the Romish faith, had soured her temper and taught her to oppress others.

Papacy was restored, Bishops Latimer, Ridley, and Crammer were burned at the stake, and the flames of martyrdom were lit throughout the realm. Three hundred persons suffered at the stake as heretics in the short space of Mary's reign, and throngs sought refuge abroad. In her blind zeal, the queen thought such horrors were for the glory of God and true religion. In 1554 she wedded Philip II. of Spain, whom she deeply loved, and who in return neglected and despised her. She died childless soon after the loss of Calais, Nov. 17th, 1558. She is popularly known as Bloody Mary.

ELIZABETH, the daughter of Anne Boleyn, had been named third in succession by her father. She was born in Greenwich palace, Sept. 7th, 1533, and was therefore in her twenty-fifth year when the death of Mary called her to the throne. The Elizabethan age is deservedly famous. It was the time of Shakspeare, Bacon, Sidney, Spenser, and Raleigh; while on the continent these great names were rivaled by those of Luther, Sully, Ariosto, Tasso, Cervantes, Camoens, Michael Angelo, Titian, and Correggio. In the century immediately preceding, printing had been invented, the new world had been discovered, and the reformation effected, and these great events were producing their results upon the world,—results that are yet unfinished and whose value can not be computed. So successful was the long reign of the virgin queen, and such a contrast did it afford to that of her predecessor, that she has since been known as Good Queen Bess. By her own sagacity, and the wisdom of her counselors, the power of England was greatly strengthened, and the attacks of Philip II. of Spain gloriously warded. Trade and navigation flourished, and the manufactures of England began to arise.

When Elizabeth came to the throne her course as to religion was in doubt. She dutifully notified the pope of her accession. The arrogant answer of the pontiff, threatening her for assuming the crown without his permission, decided her, papal authority was thrown off, and the independent church of England once more established. Those who had been driven from England in the days of Mary returned. While in exile they had become accustomed to a simpler worship and

a more radical churchdom than the Anglican, and on their return many desired a deeper reform than Elizabeth would sanction. Here was the beginning of the sectaries afterward called Puritans. Elizabeth knew not toleration, and Catholics and Puritans were persecuted with relentless vigor. The struggle between Papacy and Protestantism involved the nations of Europe in war. At the head of the Catholic party was the greatest monarch of the age, Philip II. of Spain. England became the head of the Protestant interest, although Elizabeth was persecuting Protestants at home. A succession of dark plots formed by Roman Catholics against the life of the queen and the existence of the English nation, kept society in constant alarm. Whatever might be the faults of Elizabeth, it was plain that, to speak humanely, the fate of the realm and of all reformed churches was staked on the security of her person and the success of her administration. To strengthen her hands was therefore the first duty of a patriot and a Protestant; and that duty was well performed. The Puritans, even in the depths of the prisons to which she had sent them, prayed, and with no simulated fervor, that she might be kept from the dagger of the assassin, that rebellion might be put down under her feet, and that her arms might be victorious by sea and land. One of the most stubborn of the stubborn sect, immediately after one of his hands had been lopped off by the executioner for an offense into which he had been hurried by his intemperate zeal, waved his hat with the hand that was left him, and shouted, "God save the queen!"

The private character of Elizabeth is far less bright and less noble than her public career. She had many of her father's traits; she was imperious, selfish, and avaricious; she was arbitrary and dangerous in caprice. Tremendous oaths she had in her mouth as often as a fishwoman. Yet she had strong desire to be lovely and be loved. From her courtiers she extorted the grossest flattery. She had a singularly homely face, the sight of which in a mirror, when she began to grow old, convulsed her with rage. Yet the warriors, statesmen, and scholars that adorned her court, called her a Venus, a goddess, a nymph, when she had reached the ugliness

of sixty-five. In the exasperation of offended power and jealous self-will, she signed the death-warrant of her favorite, Essex; the token that should have saved his life did not reach her; and ever after she writhed in remorse. [See DEVEREUX.] Her treatment of Mary, Queen of Scots, is a foul stain upon her reputation. During the sixteen years that she held the Scotch Queen in durance, she distinctly indicated how welcome would be the assassination of the captive. None would do such a deed, and Mary was at last sacrificed on the scaffold. Queen Elizabeth died unmarried at Richmond, March 24th, 1603, having reigned over forty-four years. She was the last of the race of Tudor, and the throne passed to the house of Stuart, in the person of James VI. of Scotland, son of the unhappy Mary.

The government of the Tudors was, on the whole, more arbitrary than that of the Plantagenets. Personal character may in some degree explain the difference, for courage and force of will were common to all the men and women of the house of Tudor. They exercised their power during a period of a hundred and twenty years, always with vigor, often with violence, sometimes with cruelty. They, in imitation of the dynasty which had preceded them, occasionally invaded the rights of individuals, occasionally exacted taxes under the name of loans and gifts, occasionally dispensed with penal statutes, and, though they never presumed to enact any permanent law by their own authority, occasionally took upon themselves, when parliament was not sitting, to meet temporary exigencies by temporary edicts. It was, however, impossible for the Tudors to carry oppression beyond a certain point; for they had no armed force, and they were surrounded by an armed people. The palace was guarded by a few domestics, whom the array of a single shire, or of a single ward of London, could with ease have overpowered. These haughty princes were therefore under a restraint stronger than any which mere laws can impose—under a restraint which did not, indeed, prevent them from sometimes treating an individual in an arbitrary and even in a barbarous manner, but which effectually secured the nation against general and long continued oppression.

They might safely be tyrants within the precinct of the court, but it was necessary for them to watch with constant anxiety the temper of the country. Henry VIII., for example, encountered no opposition when he wished to send Buckingham and Surrey, Anne Boleyn and Lady Salisbury, to the scaffold; but when, without the consent of parliament, he demanded of his subjects a contribution amounting to one-sixth of their goods, he soon found it necessary to retract. The cry of hundreds of thousands was that they were English and not French, freemen and not slaves. In Kent the royal commissioners fled for their lives. In Suffolk four thousand men appeared in arms. The king's lieutenants in that county vainly exerted themselves to raise an army. Those who did not join the insurrection declared that they would not fight against their brethren in such a quarrel. Henry, proud and self-willed as he was, shrank, not without reason, from a conflict with the roused spirit of a nation. He had before his eyes the fate of his predecessors who had perished at Berkeley and Pomfret. He not only canceled his illegal commissions, he not only granted a general pardon to all the malcontents, but he publicly and solemnly apologized for his infraction of the laws. His conduct on this occasion well illustrates the whole policy of his house. The temper of the princes of that line was hot, and their spirit high; but they understood the temper of the nation which they governed, and never once, like some of their predecessors, and some of their successors, carried obstinacy to a fatal point. The discretion of the Tudors was such that their power, though it was often resisted, was never subverted. The reign of every one of them was disturbed by formidable discontents; but the government never failed either to soothe the mutineers, or to conquer and punish them. Sometimes, by timely concessions, it succeeded in averting civil hostilities; but in general it stood firm, and called for help on the nation. The nation obeyed the call, rallied round the sovereign, and enabled him to quell the disaffected minority.—*Macaulay.*

TUNIS, one of the Barbary states, consists chiefly of a large peninsula, stretching into the Mediterranean in a north-easterly direction.

It contains about 30,000 square miles, and a population of 2,500,000, of which 100,000 are said to be Jews. The eastern part of the country possesses luxuriant fertility, but the western part is less favored by nature and contains a scanty population. Rich in mines of silver, lead, and copper, the Tunisian mountains have never been properly explored. The principal articles of export are grain, olive oil, wool, soap, sponge, orchilla seed, gold dust, ivory, and ostrich feathers. Tunis, the capital, an irregularly built city, about ten miles south-west of the site of ancient Carthage, contains from 130,000 to 200,000 inhabitants, of whom about 30,000 are Jews. It was once strongly fortified. The gates in its ruined walls are closed for two hours on every Friday in the middle of the day, because of a prediction that the Christians will take possession of the city on that day of the week, and in those hours. Tunis is the largest town in Barbary, and its commerce is quite important. About sixty miles south is Kairwan, founded by the Saracens about 669, and long the capital of their dominion in Northern Africa. It is the holy city of Africa, and strangers are obliged to pass through it in deep silence. The great mosque, said to be supported by five hundred granite or marble pillars, is the most magnificent and the most revered in all Barbary. Vestiges of antiquity are scattered through this country: the site of great Carthage is unoccupied, a few miserable huts stand where Utica was; and many another town of the ancient time or the middle ages has passed away, leaving amphitheatre, or temple, or arch, in ruins to mark its site. The city which the Romans erected on the site of ancient Carthage, was in a flourishing condition, when the Saracens conquered and destroyed it; and Tunis arose with considerable magnificence. The Normans of Sicily conquered the Tunisians, but were forced to give way, in turn, to Abdalmamun of Morocco. In 1530 Charles V. invaded Africa, and defeated the Algerine Turks, who under Barbarossa had gained possession of Tunis. In 1574 the Turks seized upon it, and established a government at the head of which was a pacha, subject to the grand seignior. The head of the government is now styled the bey, and pays an annual tribute to the

grand seignior, of whom he is otherwise independent.

Like the other Barbary states, Tunis was notorious for its corsairs. In 1816 Lord Exmouth threatened it with the fate of Algiers, and white slavery was forever abolished.

TURENNE, HENRI DE LA TOUR D'Auvergne, Viscomte de, a famous general, was the second son of Henri de la Tour d'Auvergne, Duke de Bouillon, and was born at Sedan in 1611. He first served under his uncles, the Princes Maurice and Henry of Nassau; and in 1634 was made major-general. In 1644 he became marechal of France; and though he lost the battle of Mariendal, in 1645, he soon after gained that of Nordlingen, which restored the Elector of Treves to his dominions; and the next year he formed a junction with the Swedish army, which compelled the Duke of Bavaria to sue for peace. But the same prince soon afterward broke the treaty, on which Turenne made himself master of his territories. In the civil wars of France, he joined the discontented party; but was shortly after brought over to the king's side. In 1654 he compelled the Spaniards to raise the siege of Arras; and in 1655 he took Conde, and gained the battle of the Downs, which produced the subjugation of Flanders. In 1667 Turenne renounced the Protestant religion; which measure is supposed to have proceeded from ambitious rather than pious motives. On the renewal of the war with Holland, in 1672, he took forty towns in less than a month, drove the Elector of Brandenburg to Berlin, and compelled the imperial army to recross the Rhine. In the midst of this career of victory, he was killed by a cannon ball, near Acheren, July 27th, 1675.

TURGOT, ANNE ROBERT JACQUES, a minister of finance in the reign of Louis XVI. of France, whose rigorous scrutiny and reduction of expenditure, in hope to retrieve the fearful condition of the exchequer, aroused such enmity amid the corruption of the court, that he was dismissed. He died in 1781, aged fifty-four.

TURKEY. The Ottoman empire is situated in Europe, Asia, and Africa. Turkey in Europe contains about 300,000 square miles and 15,500,000 inhabitants; and Turkey in Asia 560,000 square miles and 16,050,000 inhab-

itants; the possessions in Africa, made up of the states of Egypt, Tripoli, and Tunis, though tributary, are almost independent; and the same may be said of Servia, Moldavia, and Wallachia in Europe. The Sultan of Turkey is almost absolute, his power being less checked by any laws than by custom, public opinion, and the turbulence and fanaticism of his subjects. The inhabitants of the empire are divided into two great classes: the Turks, or more correctly, Turks-Osmanlis, who are the ruling race; and the Rayas, that is 'the flock,' who are descendants of the ancient inhabitants of the countries conquered by the Turks, and occupy the disadvantageous position of a subdued people. With the exception of some pagan tribes, they are Christians of the Greek or Romish faith. In recent years their position has been much mitigated by the sultans, who have also introduced many European improvements and innovations among the customs of the Turks.

The European countries subject to the Turks have enjoyed lofty renown. Here was Macedon, whose Alexander spread her power beyond the limits of the known world. Here was the seat of the Byzantine or Eastern empire, which shared with Rome the supremacy of the earth. Asiatic Turkey comprises regions of even greater memories.

Syria includes Palestine, or the Holy Land, a country which, as being the theatre of so many wonderful and appalling events, is still visited with intense interest, and holds a conspicuous place in the history of the world. In the south-east portion of Turkey in Asia, lies the ancient and famous Mesopotamia. Assyria was one of the earliest and most noted monarchies of Asia. The splendor of the Assyrians has been celebrated by all historical writers. To trace the fortunes and varied events of this kingdom alone, would require a much greater space than we can devote to this general view. The mighty kingdom of Babylon gave lustre to Asia in its early days. During the reign of Semiramis its fame was at the highest. This sovereign possessed fewer feminine than masculine attributes, and yet shone no less conspicuously in the court than the camp. She did much to beautify her city, and to extend the fame and power of her kingdom. The

hanging gardens of Babylon, in which trees of great size were supported on terraces at an elevation far above the earth, constituted one of the wonders of the ancient world. Bagdad, the once celebrated seat of the Saracenic caliphs, to the splendor of which Haroun al Raschid greatly contributed, has lost most of its former magnificence. Here, when the star of the Saracenic empire was at its zenith, literature and the arts flourished under the protection of the caliphs; poetry and romance shed a charm over every-day existence, and music, with other arts, received the most assiduous cultivation and encouragement. We can but briefly allude to other reigns and events which have distinguished Asiatic Turkey—the fate of the celebrated Queen Zenobia, who was compelled to grace the triumph of the Emperor Aurelian, after victory had smiled upon the Roman banners as they waved over the Asiatic plains; the siege of Jerusalem by Titus; the destruction of the sacred temple, with all its magnificence; the wild enthusiasm of the crusaders, who made Jerusalem the rallying point for the chivalry of Europe in the holy wars; the siege and fall of Troy, of which now not the slightest trace remains. Changed, indeed, is the face of all that was formerly glorious in these ancient countries! The footsteps of Time are deep, and his ravages lasting. A wretched village, inhabited by a handful of Turks, usurps the spot where once rose in splendor, Ephesus—that Ephesus which was the pride of Asia Minor,—that Ephesus which St. Paul has celebrated by his epistle,—that Ephesus which contained the superb temple of Diana, fired by Erostratus, that he might immortalize his name. "Great is Diana of the Ephesians!" was the cry of the proud inhabitants. Ages have passed—and the idol and the idolaters have passed away. What is to be the future of the world, the ruins of whose by-gone years are so great!

The Turks were of Asiatic origin. The foundation of their empire was laid by Osman, or Ochman, who seized the countries which had been in the possession of the Seleucidæ in Asia Minor, about A.D. 1300. He assumed the title of sultan, and, pursuing his conquests, took Prusa in Bithynia, which he made the seat of the Ottoman em-

pire or kingdom. He died in 1328, and was succeeded by his son, Orchan, who continued the conquests of his father in the Greek empire, and took Nicæa or Nicomedia.

Murad, or Amurath I., the son and successor of Orchan, succeeded also to his father's usurpation of the country, in 1356; and passing the straits of Gallipoli, he took Adrianople, which he made the seat of his empire. He was succeeded by his son, Bajazet I., in 1389, whose brother, attempting to supplant him, was strangled; and this is said to have been the first instance of that sanguinary custom, afterward so common, of putting to death princes of the royal blood. This prince is celebrated both by his victories and by the most distressing misfortunes. He flew from Asia to Europe, and returned to Asia, with such inconceivable rapidity, that the Turks have given him the surname of Ilderim, 'lightnings.' He provoked the attacks of Timur Bec, or Tamerlane, who wished to accommodate their differences, but who accepted the challenge of Bajazet, and in the plains of Prusa proved completely victorious, in one of the bloodiest battles that had ever been fought. It continued a whole day, and thousands on both sides fell by the sword; but, while displaying the utmost efforts of valor, Bajazet was defeated and made prisoner. The iron cage that he had designed for Tamerlane in the sure hope of victory, became his own prison, and against its bars he dashed himself to death.

An interregnum of twelve years succeeded, during which the three sons of Bajazet governed each a separate part of the empire; but, at length, in 1413, it was united under Mohammed, gifted by nature with strength, courage, and talents. He was succeeded by his son Murad, or Amurath II., in 1422, who took Thessalonica, or Salonica, and put the inhabitants to the sword; invaded and subdued Servia, destroying all before him; entered Transylvania, ravaging the country, and vanquishing the natives; and acted the same victorious parts in Wallachia. He gained the famous battle at Varna, in which Ladislaus, king of Hungary, was slain. Amurath was less successful against Scanderbeg, Prince of Epirus. He was succeeded by his son, Mohammed II., in 1451, the greatest warrior of all the Turkish sultans. His

reign lasted thirty years, and was a continued series of battles and victories, almost without a single reverse. However, he had to contend with generals capable of suspending his progress, and of checking his ambition, had their forces been equal to their courage. Among these were the celebrated Huniades, king of Hungary; Matthias Corvinus, his son; and above all, Scanderbeg, after whose death the Turks made relics of his bones, which they wore as a preservative against dangers. On the 29th of May, 1453, Mohammed took the city of Constantinople. Thus ended the Greek empire, and the seat of the Turkish was founded. After Mohammed had taken the capital, he turned his arms against what still remained of the Greek empire, in the isles and on the continent.

He was succeeded by his eldest son, Bajazet II., in 1481, who subdued the Moldavians; rendered several of the Asiatic princes tributary; had considerable success in Syria; reduced Croatia; occasioned great devastation in the Morea; landed a body of troops in the island of Rhodes; and paved the way for the conquest of Egypt, by depriving the Mamelukes, who commanded in that country, of the necessary succors which they derived from Circassia. Exhausted with fatigue and debauchery, Bajazet was desirous of placing the crown on the head of his eldest son, Ahmed. In this situation of affairs, Selim, the youngest, arrived in the neighborhood of Constantinople, under the pretense of paying a visit to his father. This young prince was soon surrounded by the whole court, who ranged themselves under his banners; and the aged monarch, foreseeing what would be the event of such a visit, resigned his crown into the hands of Selim.

Selim ascended the throne in the forty-fifth year of his age, in 1512, and caused his brothers, Ahmed and Korkud, with five of his nephews, and a great many of the nobility, to be put to death. As he had received the crown from the suffrages of the soldiers, who wished only for war, he endeavored to gratify their desires, and leading his army into Syria and Egypt, completely defeated the Mamelukes. However, as he imagined he could not insure the quiet possession of Egypt, but by the total extinction of that peo-

ple, he offered rewards to those who should discover any of them, and denounced the severest punishment against such as concealed them. When he thought he had them all assembled, he ordered a superb throne to be erected for him upon the banks of the Nile, without the gates of Cairo; and these unhappy wretches being brought into his presence, he caused them all to be murdered before his eyes, and their bodies to be thrown into the river. He also made conquests in Persia and Armenia.

Solyman, the son of Selim, had scarcely mounted the throne, in 1520, when he formed the design of extending his empire as much in Europe, as his father had done in Asia. He directed his attempts against the Christians, and soon took Rhodes from the knights of St. John, who had possessed the island for upward of two hundred years. He attacked Hungary, took Buda, and entered Austria with fire and sword. He laid siege to Vienna; where finding a desperate resistance, he withdrew with his troops, but previously massacred all his prisoners, men, women, and children. He made John, king of Hungary, tributary to him, and took Bagdad, the whole of Assyria, and Mesopotamia. In short, he extended his reputation as a warrior to both extremities of the world.

Selim, the son of Solyman, made peace with Germany and Persia, and took the island of Cyprus from the Venetians, in 1566. In 1572, the Turkish navy, heretofore the most formidable in Europe, was almost annihilated in the great battle of Lepanto. Amurath III., the eldest son of Selim, who became sultan in 1575, to give employment to his untractable soldiery, made war upon Russia, Poland, Germany, and Venice, and subdued Georgia. He is said to have been of a quiet disposition, a lover of justice, and very zealous in his religion. He left behind him twenty sons, of whom nineteen were strangled by the eldest, his successor. Mohammed III., having thus secured to himself the throne by the slaughter of his brothers, in 1596, thought it necessary also to take away the life of all the late sovereign's wives and concubines, by whom it was possible that there should be any posthumous progeny. The insolence of the Janissaries now greatly increased, and they were perpetually revolt-

ing and fighting with the other soldiers. The pachas also rebelled in many provinces; and the sultan, through fear, made peace with them, and confined them in their office. Immersed in the pleasures of the seraglio, Mohammed bestowed no other attention on public affairs than was absolutely necessary. He caused his eldest son, a prince of inestimable qualities, to be put to death.

Ahmed ascended the throne when he was scarcely fifteen years old, in 1605, and soon demonstrated that the sceptre was not unworthily intrusted to him. Under his reign, began those fires which are so common at Constantinople, and which seldom or never break out but when the people are discontented. Ahmed was succeeded by his brother Mustapha, in 1617. His cruelties rendered him so odious, that he was deposed and sent to prison in the castle of the seven towers, and his nephew, Othman, son of Ahmed, placed on the throne, in 1618. Othman, discontented with his Janissaries, meditated revenge against them; and as he could not drive them from Constantinople, he formed the design of transferring the seat of government into Asia. But the Janissaries discovering his intention, massacred the grand vizier, whom they supposed to be the author of the measure, imprisoned Othman, who was soon after put to death, and reinstated Mustapha on the throne. The uncle, however, derived very little benefit from this event. He was treated as an idiot, led about upon an ass, exposed to the derision and insults of the populace, and then carried back to prison, where he was strangled by the orders of his successor.

Amurath IV., brother to the unfortunate Othman, by intrepidity and courage repressed the turbulence of the Janissaries. His amusement was to run about the streets in the night, with a sabre in his hand, and to cut down all whom he met. He was succeeded by his brother Ibrahim, in 1639, who had languished four years in prison, and who, on being restored thus unexpectedly to liberty and empire, was so intoxicated by the new pleasures which they presented, that resigning the administration of government to the former ministers, he devoted himself entirely to the luxuries of the harem. The mufti having excited a revolt among the Janissa-

ries, and Ibrahim, finding himself unable to resist, he resigned the crown, and in a few days was put to death.

Mohammed IV., the eldest son of Ibrahim, succeeded his father, in 1648. His reign was long and glorious; but after so many years passed in prosperity, which ought to have established his power, he was forced to abdicate the throne, though he survived his deposition, and was not molested in his apartment, which served as a prison. The exploits of this emperor, which, if detailed at length, would fill a volume, are not so far distant from the present period as to be obscured by the veil of time. The famous siege of Candia, which subjected the ancient Crete to the dominion of the crescent, makes a conspicuous figure in the page of history. At the beginning of the eighteenth century, fathers at Vienna were accustomed to relate to their children the battles which they had witnessed under the walls of that city, when great Sobieski shattered the hopes of the Mohammedans. Mohammed IV. distinguished himself by his inclination to mercy, and seldom commanded his troops in person; which probably caused the revolt of the soldiers, who placed the crown on the head of one of his brothers. Solyman II. did not seat himself on the throne without apprehension, in 1687; and, while receiving the usual congratulations, seemed every moment to expect his formidable brother with the executioners and instruments of death. Solyman had to support a disastrous war against Germany and Venice, the misfortunes of which were attended with the most ruinous consequences. But Kiopruli Mustapha Pacha being appointed grand-vizier, regenerated the empire, and putting himself at the head of the main army, besieged and took the fortress of Belgrade. Solyman died of the dropsy, and was succeeded by his brother, Ahmed II., in 1691, who had as little judgment, and as little influence in the government. Kiopruli being killed on the banks of the Danube, when on the point of obtaining a victory, the sovereign soon followed his general to the grave.

Mustapha II., son of Mohammed IV., gave new vigor to the empire, in 1695, which had languished under his predecessors. He resolved to command his troops in person, but

met with a more disgraceful and more complete defeat than the Turks had ever experienced. His troops, not receiving their pay in due time, took up arms, deposed Mustapha, and invited Ahmed his brother to repair to the army. Ahmed III. in the course of five months put to death more than 14,000 soldiers who had taken the greatest share in the rebellion; they were carried away in the night-time, and drowned in the Bosphorus. A war broke out between the Porte and Russia; that with Germany and Venice was rekindled; and another was carried on in Persia. These military expeditions, though not always unsuccessful, reduced the empire to a state of general weakness, which was felt particularly in the capital: all tended to irritate the minds of men, and produced a revolt that dethroned Ahmed, after a reign of twenty-seven years. On the deposition of Ahmed, in 1730, and the elevation of his nephew, Mahmoud I. or Mohammed V., a considerable alteration took place in the mode of carrying on the government. From the time of Mohammed II. the whole administration had been usually delegated to the vizier; but as this and the preceding rebellion had originated in the overgrown power and ambition of these officers, Mohammed V. took the authority into his own hands, and determined to change his viziers frequently. This prince was unfortunate in his battles both with the Russians and Kouli Khan, whom he was obliged to acknowledge as sopher of Persia.

On the death of Mohammed, his brother Osman came from confinement to the throne, in 1754. Osman was succeeded by Mustapha III., the son of Ahmed, in 1757. Mustapha having attacked the Russians, in 1769, a bloody war commenced with the exploits of Prince Gallitzin, who gained four separate and complete victories over the Turks, whom he obliged to abandon Choczin. The Russians speedily overran Moldavia and Wallachia, and gained a great naval victory off Chesme, where the whole of the Turkish fleet was destroyed. These and other important successes of the Russians compelled the Turks to conclude a dishonorable peace, soon after the death of Mustapha, and the accession of his brother Abdulhamid or Ahmed IV. The peace of 1774 was the first great step toward the limitation of the Turk-

ish empire. On the death of Abdulhamid, in 1789, Selim III., son of Mustapha, ascended the throne, at a time when the empire was engaged in another unsuccessful war with Russia, which terminated greatly in favor of the latter power. From this period, the most interesting and important concerns relating to the Ottoman empire, were for some time connected with internal and civil broils. Civil war, which was probably fomented by the French, when they invaded Egypt, appeared likely to become general throughout Turkey. A revolution was effected by the Janissaries, who deposed Selim III. and raised to the throne Mustapha IV., son of Abdulhamid, in 1807. Mustapha was deposed in 1808, and succeeded by his brother, Mahmoud.

Russia declared war against Turkey, on the pretext of a peace concluded with England by the latter power, in 1809, and the Turks and Russians commenced hostilities against each other with no other apparent object than mutual destruction. At length mutual exhaustion rendered the operations on both sides languid; and Russia finding herself invaded by the formidable power of France, a treaty of peace was concluded with Turkey in 1812, which ceded the cities and districts on the east of the Pruth as the price of pacification.

The loss of Greece was a serious blow to Turkey, and in 1828 and 1829 another disastrous war was sustained with Russia. Mehemet Ali, who as pacha of Egypt had raised himself to independence, also resisted the arms of the sultan. Abdul Medjid, son of Mahmoud, succeeded in 1839. He carried on the reforms which had been commenced by his father, to civilize and enlighten the policy and customs of the Turks. The war with Russia, in which he was assisted by Great Britain and France, we have noticed in our sketch of Russia.

SULTANS OF TURKEY.

- 1299. Othman, or Ottoman, who assumed the title of Grand Seigneur.
- 1326. Orchan, son of Othman.
- 1360. Amurath I. : stabbed by a soldier, of which wound he died.
- 1389. Bajazet I., his son; defeated by Tamerlane, and died imprisoned.
- 1402. Solyman, son of Bajazet: dethroned by his brother and successor.
- 1410. Musa-Chelebi: strangled.
- 1413. Mohammed I., also son of Bajazet.
- 1421. Amurath II., succeeded by his son.

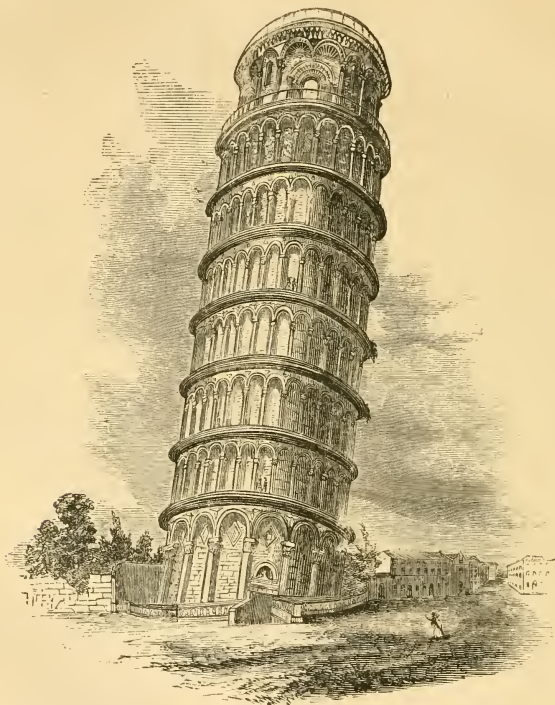
- 1451. Mohammed II., by whom Constantinople was taken in 1453.
- 1481. Bajazet II., deposed by his son.
- 1512. Selim I., who succeeded him.
- 1520. Solyman the Magnificent, son of Selim.
- 1566. Selim II., son of Solyman.
- 1574. Amurath III., his son.
- 1595. Mohammed III., son of Amurath.
- 1603. Ahmed, or Achmet, his son: succeeded by his brother.
- 1617. Mustapha I., succeeded by his nephew.
- 1618. Osman I. : strangled by the Janissaries, and his uncle restored.
- 1622. Mustapha I. again: again deposed.
- 1623. Amurath IV., succeeded by his brother.
- 1640. Ibrahim: strangled by the Janissaries.
- 1649. Mohammed IV., son of Ibrahim: deposed.
- 1687. Solyman III., his brother.
- 1691. Ahmed, or Achmet II. : succeeded by his nephew.
- 1695. Mustapha II., eldest son of Mohammed IV. : deposed; succeeded by his brother.
- 1703. Ahmed or Achmet III. : deposed.
- 1730. Mahmud, or Mohammed V., succeeded his uncle, the preceding sultan.
- 1754. Osman II., brother of Mahmud.
- 1757. Mustapha III., brother of Osman.
- 1774. Abdul-Ahmed.
- 1788. Selim III. : deposed by the Janissaries, and his nephew raised to the throne.
- 1807. Mustapha IV. : deposed, and, with the late sultan, Selim, murdered.
- 1808. Mahmud II. : succeeded by his son.
- 1839. Abdul-Medjid.
- 1861. Abdul Aziz, brother of Abdul Medjid.

TURNER, SHARON, an English historian of some note, and a solicitor by profession. In 1798 he published a "History of the Anglo-Saxons," and afterwards a "History of England during the Middle Ages." The first is the most valuable. He received a pension of £300 from government, and with the habits evinced by the following anecdote, must have made both ends meet. The third volume of his "Sacred History of the World" was written upon paper which did not cost him a farthing. The copy consisted of torn and angular fragments of letters and notes; of covers of periodicals,—gray, drab, or green,—written in thick, round hand over a small print; of shreds of curling paper, unctuous with pomatum or bear's grease; and of the white wrappers in which his proofs were sent from the printers. The paper, sometimes as thin as a bank-note, was written on both sides, and was so sodden with ink, plastered on with a pen worn to a stump, that hours were wasted in discovering on which side of it certain sentences were written. First-rate compositors could hardly gain

money upon it sufficient to keep them alive. Often, by way of hint, slips of stout white paper were sent with the proofs; but the good old gentleman could not afford to use them, and they never came back as copy. There are too many writers who are as careless in respect of copy, if not as niggardly, as Mr. Sharon Turner.

TURNER, JOSEPH MALLERD WILLIAM, one

of the greatest of English painters, was born in London, in 1775. After a life of almost unrivaled success and unsurpassed industry, this great landscape artist died unmarried, and under an assumed name, in an obscure lodging at Chelsea, Dec. 19th, 1851, bequeathing his pictures to the nation, and his funded property for the establishment of an institution to benefit decayed artists.



LEANING TOWER OF PISA.

TUSCANY, a grand duchy of central Italy, bounded north by Parma, Modena, and the States of the Church, east by the States of the Church, and south-west by the Tuscan Sea, a part of the Mediterranean. It includes Elba and a few smaller islands, and is divided into Florence, Pisa, and Sienna, containing 8,494 square miles, and 1,816,000

inhabitants. The face of the country is agreeably diversified, and the well-watered soil produces wheat, maize, beans, peas, clover, vines, mulberries, olives, oranges, lemons, figs and rice. The minerals are copper, lead, quicksilver, marble, &c. The Tuscan dialect is considered the purest Italian.

Florence, the capital, is one of the most

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beautiful cities of Italy, justly deserving the name which has been bestowed upon it—Florence the Fair. It contains 110,000 inhabitants. It is interesting from its historical associations, and from the invaluable monuments of art which it contains, and with which the Florentine gallery is founded. The Pitti palace, the cathedral, the church of St. Croce, the church del Carmine, &c., can never be sufficiently admired. The revival of the arts took place here, and thence the regeneration of Europe followed.

Tuscany anciently belonged to the emperors of Germany, who governed it by deputies till the year 1240, when the famous distinctions of the Guelphs, who were the partisans of the pope, and the Ghibellines, who were in the emperor's interest, took place. The popes then persuaded the imperial governors in Tuscany to put themselves under the protection of the church; but the Florentines, in a short time, formed themselves into a free commonwealth, and bravely defended their liberties against both parties by turns. Faction at last shook their freedom; and the family of Medici, long before they were declared either princes or dukes, in fact governed Florence, though the rights and privileges of the people seemed still to exist. The Medici, particularly Cosmo, who was called the father of his country, shared with the Venetians in the immense profits of the East India trade, before the discoveries made by the Portuguese. Pope Pius V. gave one of his descendants, Cosmo (the great patron of the arts), the title of Grand Duke of Tuscany, in 1570, which continued in his family to the death of Gaston de Medicis, in 1737, without issue. The great duchy was then claimed by the Emperor Charles VI. as a fief of the empire, and given to his son-in-law, Francis, Duke of Lorraine, in lieu of the duchy of Lorraine, which was ceded to France by treaty.

Francis had married Maria Theresa, and so became Emperor of Germany. On his death Leopold, his second son, succeeded to the throne of Tuscany. When the death of his brother Joseph gave him the imperial sceptre, Tuscany devolved to his second son, Ferdinand. By the treaty of Luneville (February, 1801), the grand duchy of Tuscany received the title of the kingdom of Etruria, and was

transferred to the hereditary prince of Parma. In the subsequent incorporations of Bonaparte, it was declared an integral part of the French empire; but on his downfall in 1814, it was restored to the Archduke Ferdinand, and resumed its proper designation of grand duchy.

In 1849, a republic was for a while established in Florence, but the fugitive grand-duke was restored by Austrian bayonets. He then greatly abridged the political privileges of his subjects, which had before been more liberal than those of any other nation of Italy.

Much interest and sympathy were excited in Protestant countries, by the imprisonment at Florence of the Madiai (husband and wife), who had embraced the English reformed religion, and read the Bible in due conformity with the teaching of their new faith. For this "crime" they were separately incarcerated in loathsome dungeons, and subjected to all the rigors of the Romish ecclesiastical law. A Protestant deputation from England, headed by the Earls of Shaftesbury and Roden, proceeded to Florence in October, 1852, with the view to their release from confinement; but the grand-duke refused to receive it. However, after some months' captivity, they were set at liberty, March, 1853.

Upon the breaking out of war between Austria and Sardinia in May, 1859, the people of Tuscany threw off the rule of the Grand-duke Leopold II.; and on March 22, 1860, the duchy was formally annexed to the kingdom of Italy.

TUSSAUD, Madame, the well known exhibitor of wax figures in London, died April 10th, 1850, in her ninetyeth year. She was a native of Berne, but left Switzerland when but six years old for Paris, where she became a pupil of her uncle, M. Curtis, "artiste to Louis XVI." by whom she was instructed in the fine arts, of which he was an eminent professor. Madame Tussaud prided herself upon the fact of having instructed Madame Elizabeth to draw and model, and she continued to be employed by that princess till October, 1789. She passed unharmed through the horrors of the revolution, perhaps by reason of her peculiar ability as a modeler; for she was employed to take heads

of most of the revolutionary leaders, which of course she could not have done had they taken hers. In 1802 she went to England, and from that time occupied herself in gathering the popular exhibitions of wax-work which is still known by her name.

TYLER, WAT, the leader of an insurrection celebrated in English history, which arose in the opposition of the people to the poll-tax levied in 1378, in the commencement of the reign of Richard II. Tyler was a blacksmith. A collector's indecent brutality to his daughter to prove her of age (fifteen) to pay the poll, the indignant father avenged by striking him dead on the spot. The incensed populace gathered upon Blackheath, to the number of a hundred thousand, June 12th, 1381. The king invited Tyler to a parley in Smithfield, to declare the popular grievances. Tyler ordered his companions to retire, till he should give them a signal, boldly ventured to meet the king in the midst of his retinue, and began the conference. He required that all slaves should be set free; that all commonages should be open to the poor as well as the rich; and that a general pardon should be passed for the late outrages. Whilst he made these demands he occasionally lifted up his sword in a menacing manner, which so raised the indignation of William Walworth, the mayor of London, attending on the king, that he stunned Tyler with a blow of his mace, and one of the king's knights, riding up, dispatched him with his sword. Richard soothed the insurgents with promises of redress, and awed by their leader's murder, they dispersed.

TYLER, JOHN, tenth President of the United States, was born in Charles City Co., Va., March 29, 1790. He was a graduate of William and Mary College in 1807, admitted to the bar 1809, member of State Legislature 1811-16, and 1823-25, member of Congress 1816-21, Governor of Virginia 1826-27, and U. S. Senator 1827-1836. He first supported Gen. Jackson, but favored the "nullification scheme" in South Carolina, and voted alone against the "Force Bill." Elected by the Whigs to the Vice Presidency in 1840, on the death of Gen. Harrison in 1841 he became President. His vetoes of two successive bank bills, and his seeking support and counsel from leading Democrats, lost him the

confidence of the Whigs. Betraying them, he selected a cabinet from the Democratic party. The most important event of his administration was the annexation of Texas. In February, 1861, he was President of the Peace Congress. Soon after, he avowed himself a secessionist, was elected Senator in the Confederate Congress, and died while serving as such, in Richmond, Jan. 18, 1862.

TYRANTS, an aristocratical council of thirty, who usurped and conquered the government of the Athenians, B. C. 404. Critias was at the head of this council, who condemned to death Niceratus, the son of Nicias, Leon, Theramenes, and Antiphan, and banished Thrasybulus and Anytus. After committing innumerable atrocities, they were deposed by the people, and ten decemvirs elected in their stead.

TYRE, a great city of Phœnicia, the site of which is now occupied by an insignificant village, eighteen miles southwest of Sidon. This city was built in 1048 B. C. by the Sidonians, who fled from the Edomites when they conquered Sidon, after having been expelled from their own country by David. It was demolished by Nebuchadnezzar in 572, after a siege of thirteen years. The Tyrians removed to an opposite island, and built a new and magnificent city. Having been under the rule of the Persians, Syrians, Romans, Franks, Tartars, and Christians, it was conquered by the Sultans of Egypt in 1292, with the fate of which it has since been connected.

The Tyrians in early ages colonized the coasts of Spain, Italy, and Africa. Their commerce reached to Britain and India. Carthage was the greatest of the colonies they planted.

TYROL, an Austrian province bordering on Bavaria, Illyria, Austria, the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, Switzerland, and Lake Constance, containing 11,141 square miles, and 859,000 inhabitants. The inhabitants have an invincible attachment to their country, sterile as it is. They are hardy, brave, honest, and cheerful. This country in 1359 was attached to Austria, and with the exception of the period from 1805 to 1814, has remained in her possession.

TYRONE, Earl of, a celebrated leader in the Irish rebellion, who, in 1696 assumed the title of King of Ulster, and entered into a

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TYROLESE PEASANTS.

correspondence with Spain, whence he received a supply of arms and ammunition. During the violent contentions between Tyrone and the forces of the Earl of Essex, then deputy of Ireland, every enormity was committed by both parties; but at length, in 1603, Tyrone's followers being reduced, he surrendered himself to the royal power. Thus the rebellion closed; but the reduction of Ireland, through the gloomy tracks of famine, pestilence, and blood, cost England no less a sum than £1,198,717.

TYRREL, Sir JAMES, employed by Richard, Duke of Gloucester, to murder his two nephews in the Tower. Tyrrel chose three associates, who, finding the young princes in bed, in a profound sleep, suffocated them with the bolster and pillows, and showed their naked bodies to Tyrrel, who ordered

them to be buried at the foot of the stairs, under a heap of stones. In the reign of Charles II. the bones of two persons were found in the place indicated, which corresponded, by their size, to the ages of Edward V. and his brother; and being judged the undoubted remains of these unhappy princes, they were deposited in Westminster Abbey, under a marble tomb.

TYRREL, WALTER, a French gentleman, who, when hunting in the New Forest with William Rufus, let fly an arrow, which, glancing from a tree, struck the king in the breast, and instantly killed him. Tyrrel, fearful lest he might be accused of murder, gained the sea-shore, embarked for France, and joined the crusade, as a penance for his involuntary crime.

TYR

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UKRAINE (the Frontier,) an extensive country in the southern part of Russia, now forming the governments of Kiew, Podolia, Charkow, and Poltava. The surface is level, extremely fertile, and the region is famous for its fine breed of horses and wild cattle. It includes part of the country of the Cossacks.

ULM, formerly a free imperial city, is situated at the confluence of the Danube with the Iller and Blau, and contains 14,000 inhabitants. After the battle of Blenheim (in 1704), it sustained a siege. In 1800 it was the scene of military manœuvres, conducted on the part of Moreau with great skill; and it was here that in 1805, the errors of Mack, and the combinations of Bonaparte, led to the surrender of a large Austrian army. In 1810 it was transferred from Bavaria to Wirtemberg, to which government it continues subject.

UMBRELLA. Described in early dictionaries as "a portable pent-house to carry in a person's hand to screen him from violent rain or heat." Umbrellas are very ancient: it appears, by the carvings at Persepolis, that umbrellas were used at very remote periods by the Eastern princes. Niebuhr, who visited the southern part of Arabia, informs us that he saw a great prince of that country returning from a mosque, preceded by some hundreds of soldiers, and that he and each of the princes of his numerous family caused a large umbrella to be carried by his side. The old china ware in our pantries and cupboards shows the Chinese shaded by an umbrella. It is said that the first person who used an umbrella in the streets of London was the benevolent Jonas Hanway, who died in 1786. He had become accustomed to it during his journeyings in the East.

For a long while it was not usual for men to carry them without incurring the brand of effeminacy. At first a single umbrella seems to have been kept at a coffee-house for extraordinary occasions—lent as a coach or chair in a heavy shower, but not commonly carried by the walkers. The *Female Tailor*

advertises: "The young gentleman belonging to the custom-house, who, in fear of rain, borrowed the *umbrella* from *Wilks's coffee-house*, shall the next time be welcome to the maid's *pattens*." As late as 1778, one John Macdonald, a footman, who wrote his own life, informs us that he had "a fine silk umbrella, which he brought from Spain; but he could not with any comfort to himself use it, the people calling out 'Frenchman! why don't you get a coach?' " The fact was, the hackney-coachmen and chairmen, joining with the true *esprit de corps*, were clamorous against this portentous rival. The footman, in 1778, gives us some farther information. "At this time there were no umbrellas wore in London, except in noblemen's and gentlemen's houses, where there was a large one hung in the hall to hold over a lady if it rained, between the door and her carriage." This man's sister was compelled to quit his arm from the abuse he drew down on himself and his umbrella. But he adds, that "he persisted for three months, till they took no further notice of this novelty. Foreigners began to use theirs, and then the English."

UNION of the crowns of England and Scotland, 1603; of the two kingdoms attempted, 1604, but failed; again ditto, 1670; carried into effect, May 1st, 1707, and thence the island is called Great Britain. Union of Great Britain and Ireland took place Jan. 1st, 1801.

UNITED STATES. The United States of America, originally colonies of Great Britain, declared themselves independent in 1776. Historical notices of the different states have been given under separate heads, and only a general view is requisite in the present article.

The following dates of the settlement of the original colonies, and of the admission of the latter states, are given for reference. Virginia, at Jamestown, 1607. New York, by the Dutch, 1614; taken by the English, 1664. Massachusetts, at Plymouth, 1620. New Hampshire, 1623. New Jersey, by the Dutch, 1624; occupied by the English, 1664.

Delaware, by the Swedes, 1631. Maryland, 1633. Connecticut, 1633. Rhode Island, at Providence, 1636. North Carolina, 1650. South Carolina, 1670. Pennsylvania, 1682. Georgia, 1733.

Vermont, admitted into the Union, 1791. Kentucky, 1792. Tennessee, 1796. Ohio, 1803. Louisiana, 1812. Indiana, 1816. Mississippi, 1817. Illinois, 1818. Alabama, 1819. Maine, 1820. Missouri, 1821. Arkansas, 1836. Michigan, 1837. Florida, 1845. Texas, 1845. Iowa, 1846. Wisconsin, 1848. California, 1850. Minnesota, 1857. Oregon, 1859. Kansas, 1861. West Virginia, 1863. Nevada, 1864. In all, 36 states. Territories, Arizona, Colorado, Dakota, Idaho, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Mexico, Utah, Washington.

The English settlers in the northern parts of America were influenced by different motives from those which actuated the Spaniards who quitted their native country for the shores of the New World. The latter were urged onward by a reckless spirit of adventure, by the promptings of heated imaginations, and by the most insatiable cupidity. The former were impelled by far worthier motives. Many causes operated together in the mother country, to favor emigration among the resolute and hardy.

The people of England had been led to examine into the nature of the power to which they were subjected, and the monstrous doctrines of royal prerogative and religious intolerance were denounced by many who had courage to think and speak for themselves upon the subjects. The friends of republican institutions multiplied with great rapidity, the natural result of the progress of literature and the increase of wealth with the commons. In 1628 the wealth of the house of commons far exceeded that of the house of lords. At the same time the reformation which had been carried into effect by Henry VIII., while it had purged the country of the abuses of the Romish church, had established a form of worship which was regarded by many as little better than that which had given way before it. Those who refused to conform to the established form, contemptuously termed *Puritans* by their opponents, anxiously sought scope for the exercise of religious rights, and, since the immunities they de-

manded were not granted them at home, determined to seek refuge from persecution in a remote quarter of the globe. The result was the founding of New England.

King James granted, in 1606, letters patent to two companies, called the London and Plymouth companies, by which possession was given them of the territories lying between the thirty-fourth and forty-fifth degrees of north latitude; the southern part to the London, and the northern part to the Plymouth company; the king himself having undertaken to frame for them a code of laws. Three ships were provided by the London company, on board of which were one hundred and five persons, who were expected to remain at Roanoke, which was the place of their destination. The command of this squadron was given to Captain Christopher Newport, who sailed from London on the 20th of December, 1606, and after a tedious and disastrous passage of four months, by the circuitous route of the West Indies, on the 26th of April, discovered Cape Henry, the southern cape of the Chesapeake, a storm having driven him in a northerly direction from his place of destination. He soon after discovered Cape Charles, and entered Chesapeake Bay. Charmed with the appearance of the country, the company determined to commence a settlement, and soon explored the neighborhood. Passing above Old Point Comfort, a party proceeded up a beautiful river, called by the Indians Powhatan, and by the colonists, in honor of the king, James River. They made a settlement on a peninsula, and called it Jamestown. This was the first permanent settlement made by the English in Virginia. Shortly after, the company received supplies from England, and an accession to their numbers, swelling the amount to two hundred. Two vessels were freighted for England; one loaded with a yellow and brilliant sand, common in many places in the vicinity, but supposed by the colonists to contain a large proportion of gold. The other vessel was loaded with tobacco.

The most efficient member of the council was Captain John Smith, who was taken by the Indians while on an exploring expedition. He was led to the place of execution, and his head placed upon a stone, while Powhatan, the Indian chieftain, stood over him

with uplifted club, regardless of the earnest solicitations of his daughter Pocahontas, then about thirteen years of age. The merciful maiden finding her entreaties unavailing, fell upon Smith, folded him in her arms, and laid her face upon his, determined to meet death with him she could not save. Moved by this touching devotion, Powhatan relented, and two days afterward sent Smith to Jamestown. In 1609 the destruction of the whole colony was planned by the Indians, but their plans were defeated by the exertions of Pocahontas, who, in a dark night, went to Jamestown, and put the president upon his guard. Pocahontas married an English gentleman by the name of Rolfe, embraced the Christian religion, and was baptized by the name of Rebecca. She died four years after at Gravesend, on her return with her husband from England.

In 1619 one hundred and fifty young women, "handsome and uncorrupt," were sent to Virginia and sold to the planters for one hundred and one hundred and fifty pounds of tobacco each, tobacco being then valued at about three shillings the pound. At the same time twenty negroes were brought to Virginia in a Dutch vessel, and sold to the colonists, whence one may date the commencement of the slaveholding system.

In 1614 Captain Smith was sent from England to explore North Virginia. He ranged the coast from Penobscot to Cape Cod, making observations on the shores, harbors, islands, and headlands; and made a map of the country, which on his return to England, he showed to Prince Charles (afterward Charles I.), who gave it the name of New England.

The Rev. Mr. Robinson, with his Puritan flock, removed to Amsterdam from the north of England, in 1608, and soon after to Leyden. A variety of motives led his congregation to turn their attention to the New World: the principal were, the enjoyment of perfect liberty of conscience; "the preservation of ecclesiastical affairs distinct from those of the state;" and a hope of laying the foundation of an extensive empire, that should be purged from all religious impurities. Having made an arrangement with the Virginia company, they sailed from Plymouth, England, on the 6th of September, 1620, and

on the 10th of November, anchored in Provincetown harbor. Perceiving that they were so far north as to be without the territory of the Virginia company, some hesitation arose; but the winter was at hand, and it was now too late to go in search of a settlement within the jurisdiction of that company. Previous to their landing, after prayer and thanksgiving, they formed themselves into a body politic, binding themselves by a written covenant to be governed by the decisions of a majority. This instrument was subscribed by forty-one persons, who with their children and domestics, composed a company of one hundred and one persons. Mr. John Carver was chosen, without one dissentient voice, governor for one year.

Parties were sent on shore to make discoveries. Some Indians were seen but could not be overtaken. A considerable quantity of corn was found in heaps of sand, secured in baskets, which served for seed the ensuing spring, and tended to save the adventurers from famine. On the 6th of December, Carver, Standish, Winslow, Bradford, and others, sailed to various places, to discover a suitable situation for a settlement. Monday, Dec. 11th, o.s., they landed at what was afterward called Plymouth, and from the excellence of the harbor, and the favorable appearance of the land, they resolved to commence a settlement here.

In 1628 the council for New England sold to several gentlemen in England a patent for all that part of New England, lying between three miles north of the Merrimack, and three miles south of Charles River. In 1629 King Charles incorporated "The governor and company of Massachusetts Bay in New England." Their colony soon became more important than the older settlement at Plymouth, and in 1692 the latter was incorporated with it.

Such was the origin of the early settlements of the English on the new continent. During the century they founded colonies from Maine to Georgia, and wrested New York, New Jersey, and Delaware from the Dutch. The colonists had to contend with the natural difficulties of their situation, to struggle in an almost constant warfare with a barbarous foe, and to bear a heavy burden in the wars of the mother country with France. In

spite of all these drawbacks they throve to a prosperity which aroused jealousy in England, whose uniform policy was to advance her own profit rather than benefit her own offspring.

We now come to the commencement of those acts which created that patriotic feeling in the colonies, which resulted in the declaration of their independence.

In 1764 the parliament of Great Britain passed an act, the preamble to which ran thus: "Whereas it is *just and necessary* that a *revenue* be raised in America, for defraying the expenses of defending, protecting, and securing the same," &c. The act then proceeded to lay a duty on sugar, indigo, coffee, silk, molasses, calicoes, &c., being the produce of a colony not under the dominion of his majesty. To this the colonists submitted; though not without complaint and remonstrance. Before this the subject of taxing the American colonies had been in agitation. "There is something curious," says Fox, "in discovering that even at this early period (1685) a question relative to North American liberty, and even to North American taxation, was considered as the test of principles friendly or adverse to arbitrary power at home. But the truth is, that, among the several controversies which have arisen, there is no other where the natural rights of man, on the one hand, and the authority of artificial institutions, on the other, as applied respectively by the whigs and tories to the English constitution, are so fairly put in issue, nor by which the line of separation between the two parties is so strongly and distinctly marked."

When a scheme for taxing the colonies was proposed to Sir Robert Walpole, he replied: "I will leave that for some of my successors who may have more courage than I have, and be less a friend to commerce than I am. It has been a maxim with me, during my administration, to encourage the trade of the American colonies in the utmost latitude. Nay, it has been necessary to pass over some irregularities in their trade with Europe; for, by encouraging them to an extensive, growing foreign commerce, if they gain £500,000, I am convinced that, in two years afterward, full £250,000 of their gains will be in his majesty's exchequer, by the labor and pro-

duct of this kingdom. This is taxing them more agreeably to their constitution and ours."

Instead of a repeal of the act imposing the first tax, parliament, the next year, imposed a duty on stamps. Resolutions were passed by the popular branches of most of the colonial legislatures, against this duty. Massachusetts recommended a colonial congress, to consult for the general welfare. A congress from most of the colonies, consisting of twenty-eight members, met at New York; remonstrated against the act of parliament; petitioned for its repeal; and made a declaration of the rights of the colonies; declaring that taxation and representation were inseparable, and that parliament had no right to take their money without their consent. Disturbances arose throughout the country. Business was conducted without stamped paper, and the validity of obligations was established by the courts. Meanwhile the colonists entered into associations to prevent the importation of British goods, till the stamp act should be repealed.

When information of the almost universal opposition of the Americans to the stamp act, reached the ears of parliament, great agitation arose. Mr. Pitt said, "You have no right to tax America. I rejoice that America has resisted. Three millions of our fellow-subjects so lost to every sense of virtue, as tamely to give up their liberties, would be fit instruments to make slaves of the rest." The act was repealed, but the repealing act had this sweeping sentence, "that the parliament had, and of right ought to have, power to bind the colonies in all cases whatsoever."

In 1767 Mr. Townshend, the chancellor of the exchequer, brought into parliament a bill for imposing a duty to be collected in the colonies on glass, paper, painters' colors and tea. The bill having passed, was, the next year, sent to the colonies. A bill was also passed for establishing at Boston a board of commissioners, to manage the revenue arising from the duties. An act was also passed to compel the colonies to provide for the British troops, and support them at their own expense. These various acts of parliament resuscitated the flames of resentment and opposition, which had been almost extinguished. The most spirited resolutions

were passed by the colonies, among which the non-importation resolutions were the most important.

On the 5th of March, 1770, some British soldiers, being insulted and pressed upon by a mob in King's (now State) street, Boston, fired upon the populace, killed three, and wounded six. Captain Preston, who commanded the party, and his men, were tried and acquitted, with the exception of two who were brought in guilty of manslaughter. In 1773, but little tea having been imported into America, parliament enjoyed her supposed right without benefit, and the Americans denied it without injury. Affairs therefore remained in the same state, till the East India company, who had on hand about seventeen million pounds of tea, were allowed by act of parliament to export to America free from the duties they had before paid in England; retaining those only which were to be paid in America. It was thought the colonists would pay the small tax of three pence a pound, as even then tea would be cheaper than in England. But the principle involved was the same odious one, and the Americans were determined not to accept the bribe.

The corresponding committees, which had been forming throughout the colonies for the last two years, excited resistance. The consequence was that the cargoes of tea, sent to New York and Philadelphia, were sent back, and those sent to Charleston were stored, but not offered for sale. The tea ships intended for the supply of Boston, after the inhabitants had tried in vain to have them returned, they being consigned to the relations of Gov. Hutchinson, were entered by about seventeen persons in the disguise of Indians, and three hundred and forty-two chests of tea were thrown into the dock, no other damage being done.

In 1774 parliament, receiving information of the treatment of the East Indian company with respect to their tea, were much exasperated. Though the opposition was general, the province of Massachusetts, and especially the town of Boston, were considered the fomenters of disobedience to their authority. Boston was therefore selected as the mark against which to direct their vengeance. Hence a bill was passed, by which the port of Boston was precluded from the privilege

of landing and discharging, or of lading and shipping, wares and merchandize. Another bill was also passed, essentially altering the charter of the province, making the appointment of the council, justices, judges, sheriffs, &c., dependent on the crown, or its immediate agent. Another act directed the governor to send to another colony or to Great Britain for trial, any person indicted for murder or any other capital offense. When these acts arrived in America, they were circulated with rapidity throughout the continent. But one sentiment of indignation and opposition governed the people. The town of Boston recommended an universal association to stop importations.

The house of burgesses in Virginia, which colony had ever been forward in seconding the spirits and measures of Massachusetts, ordered that the day on which the Boston port bill was to go into operation should be kept as a day of fasting and prayer. Pamphlets, newspaper discussions, addresses and essays, were multiplied without number, proving the wickedness of the acts of parliament, and urging an union of the colonies for resistance. Massachusetts recommended a meeting of delegates from all the colonies, the assembly electing five for that purpose. On the 4th of September, the deputies of eleven colonies appeared at Philadelphia, organized themselves by choosing Peyton Randolph president, and Charles Thompson secretary, and agreed to vote by states. A non-importation and non-consumption agreement were made; an address to the king, a memorial to the inhabitants of British America, and an address to the people of Great Britain, were also framed. After a few weeks they dissolved; recommending the 10th of the succeeding May, if their grievances should remain unredressed, for another session of congress.

Oct. 5th, General Gage, the governor of Massachusetts, as well as commander-in-chief of all the royal forces in North America, issued writs for holding a general assembly in Salem. He afterward countermanded the writs. Ninety members met, formed themselves into a provincial congress, adjourned to Concord, and chose John Hancock president. They afterward adjourned to Cambridge, and drew up a plan for placing

the province in a posture of defense, by enlisting men, choosing general officers, &c.

In January, 1775, the Earl of Chatham brought forward a conciliatory bill in the house of peers, which was rejected two to one. Lord North, the prime minister, introduced a bill for restraining the trade of the New England colonies. Receiving information of the general opposition in the southern colonies, he introduced another bill, equally restraining their trade, but excepting North Carolina, Delaware, and New York. The time had now come for testing the nerve of the colonists. An attempt was made by the British troops to seize the military stores at Concord, April 19th, but they had to encounter the armed opposition of the militia at Concord and Lexington. Boston was now blockaded by the colonists, Ticonderoga and Crown Point were taken. The battle of Bunker's Hill followed, and an unsuccessful expedition against Canada preceded the Declaration of Independence.

On May 10th, 1775, the continental congress met at Philadelphia, and on the 15th of June unanimously elected George Washington, then a member from Virginia, commander-in-chief of the forces raised, and to be raised, for the defense of the colonies. June 7th, 1776, Richard Henry Lee of Virginia, made a motion in congress, for declaring the colonies free and independent. After much debate, on the FOURTH OF JULY, the thirteen colonies were declared FREE AND INDEPENDENT, under the title of the United States of America. [See DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.]

Thus opened the great drama of our Revolution. Its glorious result was won by our fathers against heavy odds and through much suffering. [See REVOLUTION.]

On the 19th of October, 1781, Cornwallis surrendered at Yorktown. The fall of this large British army may be considered as the closing of the war. Gen. Washington ordered divine service in the different divisions and brigades. Congress went in solemn procession to the Dutch Lutheran church in Philadelphia, returned thanks to Almighty God for the success of the combined armies, and recommended a day of general thanksgiving and prayer throughout the United States. Savannah was evacuated in July

(1782) and Charleston in December. Great Britain acknowledged our independence Nov. 30th, 1782, and the cessation of hostilities was proclaimed April 19th, 1783. Holland acknowledged the independence of the United States in April; Sweden in February, 1783; Denmark in the same month; Spain in March; Russia in July.

The debt of the United States, at the close of the war, was about forty millions of dollars. Congress had power to make war, and to create debts, but no power to carry on the war, nor ability to pay debts, but by appeals or recommendations to thirteen independent sovereignties, whose unanimity alone, seldom to be expected, could support public credit, or give efficacy to the proceedings of congress. For the payment of the public debt, a proposal was made by congress to the several states to lay a duty of five per cent. on all goods imported from foreign countries, till the national debt should be paid. This plan failed; some states adopting it altogether, some agreeing to it in part, and some totally rejecting it. Thus, no efficient funds being provided, the evidences of the public debt began to decrease in value, till they were sold at length for two shillings in the pound. Another and less cumbrous form of government was a necessity. A convention accordingly met at Philadelphia in May, 1787, and framed a constitution, which was duly ratified by the several states. [See CONSTITUTION.]

The new federal government was established in 1789. Washington was unanimously chosen the first president, and John Adams vice-president. Mr. Jefferson was selected for the department of state; Alexander Hamilton was appointed secretary of the treasury; Gen. Knox secretary of war, and Edmund Randolph attorney-general of the United States. John Jay was made chief justice of the supreme court of the United States; John Rutledge, James Wilson, William Cushing, Robert Harrison and John Blair were named associate judges. The Indian war on the northwest frontier, and an insurrection in the western part of Pennsylvania, on account of the tax on domestic spirits, were favorably terminated. The insults and maritime depredations committed by the French, induced America to take up

arms in defense of her rights, but a change of rulers in France prevented the effusion of blood.

The claim of searching American vessels, and impressing from them British seamen, and the British orders in council prohibiting the exportation of the United States, together with other outrages committed by the British, produced a declaration of war against Great Britain in June, 1812. The successes of the British were but few and trifling, while the American navy triumphed in a series of brilliant exploits, and the gallant defense of New Orleans by Gen. Jackson, crowned the American arms with laurels. Peace was concluded at Ghent, Dec. 24th, 1814. The battle of New Orleans was fought the 8th of January, 1815, before the news of peace reached the United States.

The country continued to increase in power and prosperity. A rapid increase of population by emigration followed upon the conclusion of the war, and within ten years six states were added to the Union. The cession of Florida was obtained from Spain in 1820. In the summer of 1824 the venerable Lafayette came, at the invitation of Congress, once more to the land whose freedom he had so largely helped to win. During his stay he visited every state, and was everywhere hailed as the nation's guest. A new frigate was made ready to bear him home, and named the *Brandywine*, in memory of the battle in which he was wounded. He embarked at Washington, attended to the vessel by a large concourse, and President Adams bade him an affectionate farewell in behalf of the nation. In passing Mount Vernon the veteran landed to pay his last visit to the tomb of Washington. A prosperous voyage then bore him home. On the 4th of July, 1826, there occurred, in striking coincidence, the deaths of Thomas Jefferson and John Adams, two of the most illustrious champions of the independence of which the day was the fiftieth anniversary.

In 1835 the Seminoles, an Indian tribe in Florida, commenced hostilities in resistance to their removal to lands west of the Mississippi; Osceola, their most famous chief, said he "wished to rest in the land of his fathers, and his children to sleep by his side." The bloody and costly war is even now hardly

terminated. A portion of the Seminoles were removed to the west, but a remnant still lurk among the glades. Through the annexation of Texas, the country became involved in war with Mexico in 1847. The leading features of this contest were, the invasion of the north of Mexico, and the defeat of Santa Anna, by Gen. Taylor; the brilliant campaign of Gen. Scott, beginning with the capture of Vera Cruz, and ending with that of the city of Mexico; the conquest of New Mexico by Gen. Kearney; and the seizure of California by Fremont. [See BUENA VISTA, CERRO GORDO, &c.] Peace was restored by the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, Feb. 2d, 1848; by the terms of which the United States obtained a large cession of territory, in exchange for \$15,000,000 and the liquidation of all debts due American citizens from the Mexican government. California, which was included in this cession, speedily attracted the attention of the world by the discovery of her teeming mines of gold.

For the chief facts of the Rebellion, see the *Chronology* at the close of this volume.

The government of the United States is a pure democracy. Each of the states has a separate and independent legislature for the administration of its local affairs, but all are ruled in matters of common policy by two houses of congress, the senate and the house of representatives, to which delegates are sent from the different members of the confederacy. The president is elected by the free voice of the people. The Americans are truly a self-governed nation; and exhibit the first example of a democracy which has succeeded in combining a vast amount of freedom with good order and subordination to the law.

PRESIDENTS.

- 1789. George Washington, of Mt. Vernon, Va.
- 1797. John Adams, of Quincy, Mass.
- 1801. Thomas Jefferson, of Monticello, Va.
- 1809. James Madison, of Montpelier, Va.
- 1817. James Monroe, of Loudon County, Va.
- 1825. John Quincy Adams, of Quincy, Mass.
- 1829. Andrew Jackson, of Nashville, Tenn.
- 1837. Martin Van Buren, of Kinderhook, N. Y.
- 1841. William Henry Harrison, of North Bend, Ohio. Died in office, April 4, 1841.
- 1841. John Tyler, of Williamsburg, Va.
- 1845. James Knox Polk, of Nashville, Tenn.
- 1849. Zachary Taylor, of Baton Rouge, La. Died in office, July 9, 1850.
- 1850. Millard Fillmore, of Buffalo, N. Y.
- 1853. Franklin Pierce, of Concord, N. H.

1857. James Buchanan, of Lancaster, Penn.
 1861. Abraham Lincoln, of Springfield, Ill. Assassinated, April 14, 1865.
 1865. Andrew Johnson, of Greenville, Tenn.

"I appeal to History!" says Phillips. "Tell me; thou reverend chronicler of the grave, can all the illusions of ambition realized, can all the wealth of a universal commerce, can all the achievements of successful heroism, or all the establishments of this world's wisdom, secure to empire the permanency of its possessions? Alas! Troy thought so once; yet the land of Priam lives only in song! Thebes thought so once; yet her hundred gates have crumbled, and her very tombs are but as the dust they were vainly intended to commemorate! So thought Palmyra—where is she? So thought the countries of Demosthenes and the Spartan; yet Leonidas is trampled by the timid slave, and Athens insulted by the servile, mindless, and enervate Ottoman! In his hurried march, Time has but looked at their imagined immortality; and all its vanities, from the palace to the tomb, have, with their ruins, erased the very impression of his footsteps! The days of their glory are as if they had never been; and the island that was then a speck, rude and neglected in the barren ocean, now rivals the ubiquity of their commerce, the glory of their arms, the fame of their philosophy, the eloquence of their senate, and the inspiration of their bards! Who shall say, then, contemplating the past, that England, proud and potent as she appears, may not, one day, be what Athens is, and the young America yet soar to be what Athens was! Who shall say, that, when the European column shall have mouldered, and the night of barbarism obscured its very ruins, that mighty continent may not emerge from the horizon, to rule, for its time, sovereign of the ascendant!"

URIM AND THUMMIM. LIGHT AND PERFECTION. Much dispute has existed among the learned as to what this ceremony was among the ancient Jews; but no certainty has been hitherto arrived at. It is conjectured to have been some means of inducing an answer from God upon extraordinary occurrences. The high priest was the officiating minister, and whenever the ceremony was performed, he dressed in all his richest pontificals, and wore the most costly orna-

ments. It was never used for a private person or occasion, but only for the king, the president of the sanhedrim, the general of the army, &c., and always upon something relating to the common welfare of the church or state.

URUGUAY. The Oriental republic of the Uruguay is bounded on the north and east by Brazil; south by the Atlantic, and west by the Uruguay, which divides it from the states of Corrientes and Entre Rios. It has an area of 120,000 square miles, and a population of 250,000 souls. This territory formerly belonged to the Spanish vice-royalty of the Plata, and was called the Banda Oriental (Eastern Frontier) from its geographical position. It was afterward claimed by Brazil, but in 1828, after a bloody war between the Brazilians and Buenos Ayreans, the two parties agreed to its being erected into an independent state.

Monte Video, the capital of the republic, is situated on the Plata, and is regularly built, but the houses are low and the streets are not paved. It has a good harbor, and formerly enjoyed an extensive commerce. The prosperity of the city has been much affected by the wars between the neighboring states, and its population has much diminished. It now contains about 12,000 inhabitants.

Maldonado and Colonia are small towns on the Plata, with good harbors.

USHANT, BATTLE OF. Between the British and French fleets, July 27th, 1778, when, after an indecisive action of three hours, the latter, under cover of the night, withdrew in a deceptive manner to the harbor of Brest. The brave Admiral Keppel commanded the English fleet; the Count d'Orvilliers the French. The failure of a complete victory was by many attributed to Sir Hugh Palliser's non-compliance with the admiral's signals. This gentleman, who was vice-admiral of the blue, preferred articles of accusation against his commander, who was in consequence tried by a court-martial, but acquitted in the most honorable manner, and the charge against him declared by the court to be "malicious and ill-founded."—Lord Howe signal-ly defeated the French fleet, taking six ships of the line, and sinking one of large force, and several others, 4th June, 1794. While the two fleets were engaged in this action, a

large fleet of merchantmen, on the safety of which the French nation depended for its means of prosecuting the war, got safely into Brest harbor, which gave occasion to the enemy to claim the laurels of the day, notwithstanding their loss in ships, and in killed and wounded, which was very great.

USHER, JAMES, Archbishop of Armagh, and primate of Ireland, was born at Dublin, in 1581. He was very earnest in opposing the Catholics, and some of the views he maintained subjected him to the charge of being a favorer of Puritanism. In the political convulsions of the reign of Charles I., he wrote a treatise to assert the absolute unlawfulness of taking up arms against the king. The Irish rebellion in 1641 drove Usher to England, where after various shiftings of residence made necessary by the civil war, he died at Ryegate in 1656. Most of the writings of this eminent scholar relate to ecclesiastical history and antiquities, to furnish arguments against the Catholics; but the production for which he is chiefly celebrated is his great chronological digest of universal history from the creation down to the dispersion of the Jews in the reign of Vespasian.

UTRECHT, a city of the Netherlands, capital of a province of the same name, contains 45,000 inhabitants. The treaty of Utrecht was concluded April 11th, 1713, between the allies and the French. The first stipulation of this famous treaty was, that Philip of Anjou, being acknowledged king of Spain, should renounce all right to the crown of France, the union of two such powerful kingdoms being thought dangerous to the liberties of Europe. It was agreed that the Duke of Berri, Philip's brother, and

after him in succession, should also renounce his right to the crown of Spain, in case he became king of France. It was stipulated that the Duke of Savoy should possess the island of Sicily, with the title of king, together with Fenestrelles, and other places on the continent, which increase of dominion was in some measure made out of the spoils of the French monarchy. The Dutch had that barrier granted them, which they so long sought after; and if the crown of France was deprived of some dominions to enrich the Duke of Savoy, on the other hand the house of Austria was taxed to supply the wants of the Hollanders, who were put in possession of the strongest towns in Flanders. With regard to England, its glory and its interests were secured. The fortifications of Dunkirk, a harbor that might be dangerous to English trade in time of war, were ordered to be demolished, and its port destroyed. Spain gave up all right to Gibraltar and the island of Minorca. France resigned her pretensions to Hudson's Bay, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland, but was left in possession of Cape Breton, and the liberty of drying fish upon the shore. Among these articles, glorious to the English nation, their setting free the French Protestants confined in the prisons and galleys for their religion, was not the least meritorious. For the emperor, it was stipulated that he should possess the kingdom of Naples, the duchy of Milan, and the Spanish Netherlands. The king of Prussia was to have Upper Guelders; and a time was fixed for the emperor's acceding to those articles, as he had for some time obstinately refused to assist at the negotiation. The security of the Protestant succession in England was also guaranteed.

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VALENCIENNES, a fortified city of France, on the Scheldt, containing 23,000 inhabitants. In 1793 this town formed one of the first objects of attack by the allies, after the defeat of Dumouriez. The siege conducted under the command of the Duke of York, was long and obstinate, and part of the town was laid in ashes before the capitulation. It was retaken, with great quantities of stores and specie, by the French in 1794; escaped attack in the invasion by the allied powers in 1814 and 1815; and was definitely confirmed to France by the treaties of these years.

VALENS, FLAVIUS, a son of Gratian, born in Pannonia. His brother Valentinian took him as his colleague on the throne, and appointed him over the eastern parts of the Roman empire. By perseverance, Valens was enabled to distinguish himself in his wars against the northern barbarians. But his lenity to these savage intruders proved fatal to the Roman power; and by permitting some of the Goths to settle in the provinces of Thrace, and to have free access to every part of the country, Valens encouraged them to make depredations on his subjects, and to disturb their tranquillity. His eyes were opened too late; he attempted to repel them, but he failed in the attempt. A bloody battle was fought, in which the barbarians obtained some advantage, and Valens was hurried away into a lonely house, which the Goths set on fire. Unable to make his escape, he was burnt alive, in the fiftieth year of his age, after a reign of thirteen years, A.D. 378.

VALENTINIAN I., a son of Gratian, raised to the imperial throne of Rome by his merit and valor. He kept the western part of the empire for himself, and appointed over the east his brother Valens. He gave convincing proof of his military valor in the victories which he obtained over the barbarians in the provinces of Gaul, the deserts of Africa, and on the banks of the Rhine and Danube. The insolence of the Quadi he punished with great severity: and when

these desperate and indigent barbarians had deprecated the conqueror's vengeance, Valentinian treated them with contempt, and upbraided them with every mark of resentment. While he spoke with such warmth, he broke a blood-vessel, and fell lifeless on the ground. He was conveyed into his palace by his attendants, and soon after died, after suffering the greatest agonies, from violent fits and contortions of his limbs, on the 17th of November, A.D. 375. He was then in the fifty-fifth year of his age, and had reigned twelve years.

VALENTINIAN II. About six days after the death of Valentinian, his second son, Valentinian II., was proclaimed emperor, though only five years old. He was associated with his elder brother Gratian, whom he succeeded in 383, but his youth seemed to favor dissension, and the attempts and the usurpations of rebels. He was robbed of his throne by Maximus, four years after the death of Gratian; and in this helpless situation he had recourse to Theodosius, who was then emperor of the east. He was successful in his applications; Maximus was conquered by Theodosius, and Valentinian entered Rome in triumph, accompanied by his benefactor. He was some time after strangled by one of his officers, a native of Gaul, called Arbogastes, 392. He was fond of imitating the virtues and exemplary life of his friend and patron Theodosius, and if he had lived longer, the Romans might have enjoyed peace and security.

VALENTINIAN III. was son of Constantius and Placidia, the daughter of Theodosius the Great, and therefore, as related to the imperial family, he was saluted emperor in his youth, and publicly acknowledged as such, at Rome, the 2d of October, A.D. 423, about the sixth year of his age. He was at first governed by his mother, and the intrigues of his generals and courtiers; and when he came to years of discretion, he disgraced himself by violence, oppression, and incontinence. He was murdered in the midst of Rome, A.D. 454, in the thirty-sixth

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year of his age, and thirty-first of his reign, by Petronius Maximus, to whose wife he had offered violence, who succeeded him.

VALERIANUS, PUBLIUS LICINIUS, a Roman, proclaimed emperor by the armies in Rhætia, A.D. 253. He took his son Gallienus as his colleague in the empire, and showed the malevolence of his heart by persecuting the Christians, whom he had for a while tolerated. He also made war against the Goths and Scythians; but in an expedition which he undertook against Sapor, king of Persia, his arms were attended with ill success. He was conquered in Mesopotamia, and when he wished to have a private conference with Sapor, the conqueror seized his person, carried him in triumph to his capital, and exposed him in all the cities of his empire, to the ridicule and insolence of his subjects. When the Persian monarch mounted on horseback, Valerian served as a footstool, and the many other insults which he suffered, excited indignation even among the courtiers of Sapor. The monarch at last ordered him to be flayed alive, and salt to be thrown over his mangled body, so that he died in the greatest torments. His skin was tanned, and painted in red; and that the ignominy of the Roman empire might be lasting, it was nailed in one of the temples of Persia. Valerian died in the seventy-first year of his age, A.D. 260, after a reign of seven years.

VALERIUS, PUBLIUS, a celebrated Roman, surnamed *Poplicola*, from his popularity. He was very active in assisting Brutus to expel the Tarquins, and he was the first that took an oath to support the liberty and independence of his country. He was honored with the consulship on the expulsion of Collatinus, and he triumphed over the Etrurians, after he had gained the victory in the battle in which Brutus and the sons of Tarquin had fallen. Valerius died after he had been four times consul, and enjoyed the popularity, and received the thanks and the gratitude, which people redeemed from slavery and oppression usually pay to their deliverers. To do him honor, his body was buried at the public expense.

VALERIUS, MARCUS, surnamed *Corvinus*, a tribune of the soldiers under L. Furius Camillus. When the Roman army was challenged by one of the Senones, remarka-

ble for his strength and stature, Valerius undertook to engage him, and obtained an easy victory by aid of a raven that attacked the face of the Gaul, whence his surname of Corvinus. He vanquished the states that made war against Rome, and was six times honored with the consulship. He died in the hundredth year of his age.

VALETTE, JOHN PARISOT, the forty-eighth grand-master, of the order of St. John of Jerusalem. During his reign the knights' galleys took above fifty Turkish ships in less than five years, which so enraged Solymán II., that he resolved to lay siege to Malta, and drive the knights thence. His forces set out from Constantinople in April, 1865, and arrived at Navarin the 11th of May. The fleet consisted of one hundred and fifty galleys, nine men-of-war, &c. The Knights fought with the greatest valor, defying the assaults of the Turks, four months. Forty-nine Christian galleys arriving then, the Turkish commander raised the siege and escaped by night. The Turks lost 20,000 men, and about 9,000 Christians died of their wounds. Valette rebuilt the city, calling it by his own name. He died in 1568.

VALMY, a village in the north-east of France. An action was fought here, Sept. 20th, 1792, between the French and Prussians.

VAN BUREN, MARTIN, eighth President of the United States, was born in Kinderhook, N. Y., Dec. 5, 1782. He began the study of law at the age of fourteen, and in 1812 was a prominent Democratic politician, warmly supporting in the State Senate the war with Great Britain. He then became Attorney General of the State, and in 1818 set on foot a new organization of the Democratic party, known for twenty years as the "Albany Regency." He was twice elected U. S. Senator, in 1821 and 1827, Governor in 1828, was Secretary of State under President Jackson, became minister to England, was elected Vice President in 1832, and President in 1836. During his administration occurred the great financial crisis of 1837, the Canadian insurrection, and the anti-slavery agitation. The financial distress of the country being ascribed to his party, his re-election was defeated by Gen. Harrison in 1840. In 1848, Gen. Cass having been

nominated for President, on a platform tolerating the introduction of slavery into new territories, a portion of the party, under the name of Free Democracy, nominated Mr. Van Buren for the Presidency on a platform of determined opposition to the extension or encouragement of slavery. The Democracy were defeated, and Gen. Taylor, the Whig candidate, was elected. Mr. Van Buren died at Kinderhook, July 24, 1862.

VANDALS, originally a Gothic nation, who came out of Scandinavia with the other Goths, and settled in the countries now known as Mecklenberg and Brandenburg. Another colony settled in Pomerania. In process of time they extended themselves into Dalmatia, Illyricum, and Dacia. They attacked Greece, whence they went to Spain; and then under the famous Geneseric, passed over into Africa, where they fixed the throne of their power. This Prince reduced Carthage, Sardinia, Sicily, and all the islands between Italy and Africa. In 475 he concluded peace with the Emperor Zeno, whom he compelled to renounce all claim to the provinces of Africa. Justinian afterward gained a complete victory over the Vandals, and reunited the provinces of Africa to the Greek empire.

VANDERLYN, JOHN. Aaron Burr was riding along in a currie and pair, one day, when one of his horses lost a shoe; and he stopped at the next blacksmith's to have it replaced. It was a lonely country place, not far from Kingston, in Ulster Co., N. Y. He strolled about while the blacksmith was at work, and, returning, saw upon the side of a stable near by, a charcoal drawing of his own currie and horses, wonderfully accurate and spirited. Turning round, he noticed a boy a little way off, dressed in coarse homespun. "Who did that?" inquired Burr, pointing to the picture. "I did it," said the boy. The astonished traveler entered into conversation with the lad; found him intelligent, though ignorant; learned that he was born in the neighborhood, had had no instruction in drawing, and was engaged to work for the blacksmith six months. Burr wrote a few words on a piece of paper, and said, as he wrote. "My boy, you are too smart a fellow to stay here all your life. If ever you should want to change your employment and see the world, just put a clean

shirt into your pocket, go to New York, and go straight to that address," handing the boy the paper. Several months passed away, and the circumstance had nearly faded from the busy senator's recollection. As he was sitting at breakfast one morning, a servant put into his hand a small paper parcel, saying it was brought by a boy who was waiting outside. Burr opened the parcel, and found a coarse country-made *clean shirt*. Supposing it to be a mistake, he ordered the boy to be shown in. Who should enter but the genius of the roadside, who placed in Burr's hand the identical piece of paper he had given him. The lad was warmly welcomed. Burr took him into his family, educated him, and procured him instruction in the art which nature had indicated should be the occupation of his lifetime. Afterward, Burr assisted him to go to Europe, where he spent five years in the study of painting, and became a famous artist—Vanderlyn.

Vanderlyn painted the well known 'Landing of Columbus' for a panel in the rotunda for the capitol at Washington. He died at Kingston in 1852.

VANDERVELDE, WILLIAM, the Elder, born at Leyden, in 1610, was an eminent marine painter. His son, William the Younger, born at Amsterdam, in 1633, was still more famous. Walpole calls him "the greatest man that has appeared in this branch of painting; the palm is not less disputed with Raphael for history, than with Vandervelde for sea-pieces." Both the Vanderveldes were established in England in the service of Charles II. in 1675. They were each granted a pension of £100 a year by the king; the father "for taking and making draughts of sea-fights," and the son "for putting the said draughts into colors." The elder Vandervelde, at least, well earned his annual hundred sterling. At the great naval fight between the Duke of York and the Dutch admiral Opdam, he sailed between the hostile fleets in a light skiff, to mark their positions and observe their operations; and in this manner, it is said, he was also a spectator of the memorable three days' engagement between Monk and De Ruyter. These painters dwelt at Greenwich, where the father died in 1693; the son died in London in 1707.

VAN DIEMEN'S LAND. This island in

the Indian Ocean was discovered by Tasman in 1633, and named after the governor of Batavia. It was visited by Furneaux in 1773; by Captain Cook in 1777; and was deemed the south extremity of New Holland (now Australia) until 1799. A British settlement was established on the south-east part, within the mouth of the Derwent, and named Hobart Town, which is the seat of government, 1804. This island was made a convict colony of Great Britain. It is sometimes called Tasmania. The area is about 22,630 square miles.

VANDYCK, ANTONY, was born at Antwerp, March 22d, 1599. His father, a glass painter, of Bois-le-Duc, was his first instructor in art, and he was also much indebted to his mother, who was an elegant landscape artist, and very skillful in embroidery. But his great master was Rubens, with whom he lived about four years. By his advice Vandyck visited Italy, where he remained some five years. After his return to Antwerp, his picture of the Crucifixion for the church of St. Michael at Ghent, established his celebrity as one of the first masters of the age, and in portraiture he acquired an unrivaled reputation. In 1632 Charles I. sent him an express invitation to come to England. There he settled down. He was knighted; a pension of £200 a year for life was bestowed upon him, with the title of painter to his majesty; and his successful career as a portrait painter enabled him to live in great style. He had a country-house at Eltham in Kent, where he spent a portion of the summer; he kept great state when in town; "he always went magnificently dressed, had a numerous and gallant equipage, and kept so good a table in his apartment, that few princes were more visited or better served." Vandyck died in London, Dec. 2d, 1641, and was buried in the old church of St. Paul, near the tomb of John of Gaunt. He left a daughter, his only child, by his wife Mary Ruthven, granddaughter of the unfortunate Lord Ruthven, Earl of Gowrie. Notwithstanding his expensive style of living, he left property to the value of £20,000. His portraits of women are especially superior.

VANE, Sir HENRY, an English statesman, was born in Kent, in 1589. In 1639 he was

made treasurer of the household, and soon after, principal secretary of state; but, on joining in the prosecution of the Earl of Strafford, he was removed from all his places. He died in 1654.

VANE, Sir HENRY, eldest son of the preceding, was born in 1612. His religious principles led him to emigrate to New England. He became governor of Massachusetts in 1635, but soon returned to England. In 1640 he was elected into parliament, where he was the principal mover of the solemn league and covenant, and also of the self-denying ordinance; but he took no part in the king's trial, and he resisted Cromwell to such a degree, that the general sent him to Carisbrooke Castle. On the death of Oliver, he labored to institute a perfect commonwealth, but the Stuarts being restored, he was brought to trial for treason, and condemned to be beheaded, which was put in execution on Tower Hill, June 14th, 1662.

VARRO, MARCUS TERENCE, a Roman statesman and author of great learning. He was eighty years old when he wrote his "*De Re Rustica*." He died B.C. 27, aged eighty-nine.

VARUS, QUINTILIUS, a Roman pro-consul, descended from an illustrious family. He was appointed governor of Syria, and afterward made commander of the armies in Germany. He was surprised by the Germans, under Hermann, and his army was cut to pieces. When he saw that every thing was lost, he killed himself, A.D. 10, and his example was followed by some of his officers.

VATTEL, EMMERICH, native of Switzerland, author of valuable writings on jurisprudence and international law, died in 1767, aged fifty-three.

VAUBAN, SEBASTIAN LEPRESTE DE, a famous military engineer and tactician of France, was born in Burgundy in 1632. He took part in the wars of Louis XIV., and rose to the rank of marshal. He constructed or improved an immense number of fortresses, directed as many as fifty-three sieges, and was present at one hundred and forty battles. He died in 1707.

VEGA, LOPEZ DE LA, was born at Madrid in 1562. He was very eminent as a poet, and wrote an almost innumerable number of dramas. He died in 1635

VELAZQUEZ, Don DIEGO, a painter very eminent in history, portrait, and landscape, was born at Seville in the Spring of 1599, and died at Madrid, Aug. 7th, 1660. He is the most eminent of Spanish painters.

VENDEE, a department in the west of France. It is memorable in the history of the French revolution, for the resistance made to the republican army in 1793, 1794, and 1795, which was attended for a time with great success, though commenced without any concert with the other royalists of France, and carried on for a season with very limited support from England. La Vendee was also the scene of some sharp fighting in 1815.

VENEZUELA, a republic in South America, contains 416,600 square miles, and 1,356,000 inhabitants. It is a plain stretching from the Andes westward to and beyond the Orinoco. The forests beyond the Orinoco are in an unsubdued and savage state, peopled by the Caribs and other wandering and warlike tribes. A second division consists of the Llanos, boundless grassy plains, where the eye, in the compass of a wide horizon, often does not descry an eminence six feet in height. Like the pampas of La Plata, they are covered with luxuriant pastures, on which thousands of cattle and horses are fed. The export of hides forms a principal branch of the commerce of Venezuela. Culture and civilization are confined to the territory adjoining the coast.

Venezuela, under the Spanish rule, was known as the captaincy general of Caraccas. When independence of the mother-country was achieved, it became part of the republic of Colombia; since whose dissolution in 1830, it has been an independent republic. The civil wars and convulsions have retarded its progress and prosperity. Caraccas is the capital. By the awful earthquake of 1812, and the political convulsions, the number of inhabitants of the city of Caraccas was greatly reduced. It has since increased, and is now about 50,000, the former population.

VENICE, the capital formerly of the republic of Venice, stands upon a cluster of little isles, about eighty in number, and intersected by canals, at the head of the Adriatic. These canals serve the purpose of streets in other

towns, and the long, black gondolas constantly plying along them answer for carriages. The public buildings of Venice are numerous, and splendid though decayed: there are the great cathedral of San Marco, (the patron saint of Venice), the vast palace of the doges, many fine churches, and the marble mansions of a nobility that once had wealth. The city is divided into two parts by a canal broader than the rest, called the grand canal, over which there is only one bridge, the Rialto. The great arsenal, long the main instrument of the power of the republic, once employed 16,000 workmen; it is now the dockyard of the Austrian navy. The number of inhabitants is 100,000, exclusive of the garrison. All the ancient spirit and prosperity of the place are gone.

In the year 452 the people of Aquileia, Hadua, and other Italian cities, to escape from the fury of the savage followers of Attila, fled to the islands at the mouth of the Brenta. There they founded two cities, Rivoalto and Malamocco, which in 697 were incorporated under one magistrate, entitled a doge, or duke. The first doge was Paolo Luca Anafesto. Pepin, as king of Italy, granted to the rising town territory along the Adige, and Rivoalto (Rialto), united with neighboring islands (now also built upon) took the name of Venetiæ from the province Venetia (territory of the ancient Veneti), of which these islands formed a dependency. The secure position of the city, its facilities for trade, and the commercial enterprise of its inhabitants, had in the eleventh century already raised it to great prosperity. Its fleets were powerful, and its flag respected in all parts of the Mediterranean. In the twelfth century Venice bore an illustrious part in the crusades. In the dispute between Frederick Barbarossa and Pope Alexander III., she took the side of the holy see, and was thus involved in war with the emperor. In a naval engagement off the Istrian coast in 1177, the imperial fleet, though superior in numbers, was badly defeated, and Otho, the emperor's son, fell a captive to the Venetians. Alexander was then at Venice, a refugee. When Ziani, the victorious doge, returned, the pope hastened in person to receive his deliverer. As soon as the doge touched the land, the holy father gave him a golden ring. "Take," he

said, "this ring; and with it take, on my authority, the sea as your subject. Every year, on the return of this happy day, you and your successors shall make known to all posterity that the right of conquest has subjugated the Adriatic to Venice, as a spouse to her lord." Such was the origin of the ceremony of wedding the Adriatic, and for more than six hundred years every return of the feast of Ascension witnessed these figurative nuptials.

Genoa grew to be the commercial rival of Venice, and a bitter jealousy existed between the two republics. They came to blows in 1258, and after that their wars were frequent and their battles sanguinary. In 1293 a Venetian fleet was defeated by an inferior Genoese armament, and among 7,000 captives made was Andrea Dondolo, its admiral. The conquerors loaded him with chains, and exposed him conspicuously to the rude gaze of their fleet, as a signal token of victory. In an agony of despair, the unfortunate Venetian dashed out his brains against the side of the galley. In the next century the tide of triumph turned against Genoa. Off the Sardinian coast in 1353, the Venetians gained a great victory over her fleet, which, following close upon previous reverses, caused the utmost consternation among the Genoese, and in their despair they offered the sovereignty of their dominions to Viscount, Archbishop of Milan, in return for aid against their foe. The end of the century saw Venice compelled to purchase peace: nevertheless Genoa, though her power was apparently increased, rapidly verged to decline; while Venice retrieved her losses, extended her commerce, and maintained her independent sovereignty unshaken.

In 1355, Marino Faliero, fifty-seventh doge, plotted a seizure of absolute power, through a massacre of the entire aristocracy. The attempt failed from the compunction of one of the conspirators, who shrank from the murder of a benefactor. He was anxious to save the life of Nicolo Lioni, a noble in whose family he had been reared; and through a mysterious warning to Lioni on the eve of the rising, its impending danger became known. The ringleaders were at once arrested. The lesser of them perished on the rack and the gibbet; Faliero was beheaded.

The wealth, grandeur, and power of Venice continued to increase. She was embroiled in frequent hostilities with the Turks, with the Genoese, the Florentines, the Milanese, and sometimes indeed all Italy,—with varied success and reverse. In 1489 the rich island of Cyprus was annexed to the republic, which was now at the meridian of power and prosperity. By her growing continental acquisitions she became more and more involved in the labyrinth of European politics. Jealous of her strength and opulence, almost all the states of Christendom, suspending their quarrels against each other, united for her destruction. The famous league of Cambray, Dec. 10th, 1508, was entered into by Louis XII. of France, the Emperor Maximilian, Pope Julius II., and Ferdinand of Arragon, as an old chronicler says, "to ruin the signory of Venice, which in great pomp and with little regard to God lived gloriously and gorgeously, making small account of the other princes of Christendom." By the battle of Agnadello, in which the French were victorious, the republic lost all her continental territories; but her fleet, her wealth, the courage and firmness of her citizens, and the dissension that soon broke out among the allies, raised her out of calamity and prolonged the term of her greatness.

In 1569, during the dogeship of Pietro Loredano, Selim, the second Turkish sultan of that name, cast his covetous eye upon the fair isle of Cyprus, and at the terrible cost of more than fifty thousand men, it was won. The Venetian army had capitulated on honorable terms: nevertheless Bragadino, their commander, after having his ears, nose, and lips cut off, was flayed alive, by order of Mustapha, the Turkish general; and several hundred of his companions were massacred. The success of the Ottoman arms alarmed Christendom, and a league was formed by Spain and the pope with Venice. The splendid victory of Lepanto, in 1571, filled the Turks with consternation; yet, after all, "the battell loste was unto Selymus as if a man should shave his bearde, which would ere long grow again; but the losse of Cyprus was unto the Venetians as the losse of an arme, which once cut offe could never be againe recovered."

Venice had enjoyed only a brief respite

from the horrors of war, when she was scourged by the plague, in 1575, which swept off thousands of her people; among them the illustrious Titian. Then came a breathing spell of quiet. Much attention was given to the embellishment of the capital; the single marble arch of the far-famed Rialto was thrown between the two great halves of the city; the prisons were made the strongest in Europe. The commencement of the seventeenth century was marked by a contest with Pope Paul V. Throughout her history Venice maintained with unbending firmness stout barriers against the despotism of the Vatican. Paul's bull of interdict had no terrors for the Venetian senate; their country's exclusion from a jubilee which he proclaimed, troubled them as little. When the pope threatened to use temporal instead of spiritual weapons, they coolly made ready to receive his armies. In order to animate the populace, the doge, upon appointing an admiral of the fleet, proceeded to the arsenal; from which establishment soldiers lined the way on either side to the mint. One million five hundred thousand ducats were spread upon a table before the prince; around that table and the arcades of the portico was stretched a chain of solid gold one hundred feet in length; and from the vast and glittering heap before him Donato distributed their pay to the mariners. The quarrel never came to war, for the pope drew in his horns, and St. Mark triumphed over St. Peter.

A conspiracy formed by the emissaries of Spain, in 1618, brought Venice to the brink of destruction; but the senate obtaining information in season, had most of the accomplices drowned in the canals. In a few years the republic was embroiled in another war with the Porte, an arduous struggle that lasted more than a quarter-century, 1641-1669. The Turkish attack was directed against Candia, the last remnant of the share of Venice in the partition of the Eastern empire. For twenty years the siege of the city of Candia was continued, and the grand vizier, and many of his officers, instead of dwelling in tents, erected substantial houses. The city was surrounded in September, 1669, and peace was made. During this long war, the Venetians won many brilliant naval victories.

The prolonged and mighty contest had

exhausted the resources of the republic, and with the loss of Candia her decline began,—not, however, wholly on account of the war. Her greatness had its rise in the commercial spirit of her people, and their enterprise in navigation and ship-building. The products of the east were transported by Venetian keels from the Levant to the island city, and thence distributed over Europe. The crusades threw great sums into Venetian coffers in pay for the transport of troops, and helped to render her mistress of the Morea, the Ægean Islands, and other parts of the Greek empire. But after Vasco di Gama had found the way to India by sea, the commerce of Venice gradually diminished, and with it her political eminence slowly dwindled away.

Hostilities in Turkey were renewed in 1683, and a brief season of glory rested on the arms of the decaying republic. The Morea was wrested from the infidel, and the peace of 1699 left it in Venice's possession. But she could not maintain it, and the treaty of Passarowitz in 1718 gave it back. Thenceforth she is a cipher in the history of Europe. Twice more only did she appear in arms: in 1765 and in 1774 she chastised the pirates of Tripoli and Tunis with a spirit worthy of her better days. She became famous as a haunt of unlicensed pleasure, and seemed to seek in excess a compensation for the surrender of ambition. Her year was so filled with political or religious festivals as to be one continued holiday. The carnival seldom attracted less than fifty thousand strangers to mingle in unrestrained indulgence and sin among the gay masks of Venice. The fever of gambling raged unchecked, and the trade of the courtesan was protected by the government. The city seemed abandoned to iniquity. Then came the French revolution, and the invasion of Italy by Bonaparte. The Venetians, in order to check the progress of the republican forces, put Peschiera into the hands of the imperialists, in 1796: but Bonaparte quickly becoming master of Italy, they endeavored to conciliate the favor of France, by warning out of their territories the Comte de Lille (afterward Louis XVIII.), the unfortunate brother of the late king, whom they treated with indignity and insult.

Let us go back a little. On the accession

of Henry of Navarre to the crown of France, Venice was among the first powers that recognized his title; and the great benefit which the king derived from this early acknowledgment by a state so renowned for political sagacity was repaid by him with lasting friendship. He knighted the ambassadors of the republic, and presented the treasury of St. Mark's with a suit of armor, and the sword that he wore on the field of Ivry. The signory, in return, entered his name in the Golden Book, in which the names of the Venetian nobles were enrolled; and instructed their ambassadors to burn, in the king's presence, certain obligations for considerable sums which he had borrowed during his necessities. Henry gaily assured the envoy that he had never before warmed himself at so agreeable a fire. When, now, the Comte de Lille was ordered to depart from the dominions of the degenerate republic, he responded, with more spirit than he often evinced, "I will quit your territories; but I first demand your Golden Book, that I may erase from it the name of my family; and next the armor which my ancestor Henry IV. presented as a token of amity to your republic." The signory replied, that they would erase the names themselves, and would return the armor when the debts contracted by Henry IV. had been discharged.

Bonaparte had already resolved upon the destruction of the Venetian government. What was pusillanimous Venice to resist him! On the 12th of May, 1797, the capital was surrendered to him, and the most ancient government in the world, which had just completed the eleventh century of its way, ceased its existence. By the treaty of Campo Formio, the next October, Venice, with most of her dependencies, was given to Austria. The peace of Presburg, 1805, ceded her to the kingdom of Italy. In 1814 she was restored to Austria.

In 1866, Austria, sorely defeated by Prussia and Italy in alliance, had to surrender Venetia. After 70 years of tyranny, the Austrian soldier was driven out, Venice was liberated, and the fond hope of Italian nationality at length realized. The entrance of the King of Italy into this "City of the Sea," was celebrated by every expression of gratitude and delight.

In its ancient days Venice was governed by an elected council which shared the legislative power with the doge. The council afterward obtained a great preponderance of power, and its members even appointed their successors, so that the government became a close oligarchy. In course of time a senate was instituted to settle questions of peace and war. The senators, as well as the counselors of the doge, were appointed by the great council. The doge and his council constituted the signory. The discontents and frequent revolts of the fourteenth century led to the establishment of the black-robed Council of Ten, which by degrees sapped the foundations of republican government. Its members were chosen by the grand council. Its rule was darkly marked with espionage, assassination, and terror. It much resembled the inquisition. It inquired, sentenced, and punished, according to what it called reason of state. The public eye never penetrated the mystery of its proceedings; the accused was sometimes not heard,—never confronted with witnesses; the condemnation was secret as the inquiry,—the punishment like both. Though instituted only for the cognizance of state crimes, and dependent for existence on the will of the grand council, it gradually attributed to itself the control of all branches of the government. A more formidable, remarkable, and execrable magistracy is not known. It fell with the republic it helped to ruin.

VERA CRUZ, the chief port and commercial town of Mexico on the gulf, has a population of about 11,000. The castle of San Juan de Ulloa, a fortress of great strength, erected at a cost of \$40,000,000, defends the entrance to the harbor. In February, 1847, an American land and naval force was concentrated in the Gulf of Mexico, the army commanded by Gen. Scott, and the squadron by Commodore Conner, who was afterward relieved by Commodore Perry. On the 9th of March the troops were debarked at Vera Cruz, and on the following day a rapid fire of shot and shell was opened from the town and castle on the position occupied by the American army. The landing of the mortars and guns for our batteries was delayed for several days, so that the bombardment did not begin till the 23d. Gen. Scott summoned

the town to surrender, a demand that was refused by Morales, the Mexican governor. A continuous fire from the American batteries was maintained with terrible effect until the 26th of March, and articles of capitulation were signed on the following day. The surrender of the city took place on the morning of the 29th, when the Mexican soldiers marched to a plain, a mile out of the town, where the Americans were drawn up to receive them. There they laid down their arms, and then departed for the interior.

VERE, Sir FRANCIS, an English general, was the grandson of John Vere, Earl of Oxford, and was born in 1554. He served first in the Netherlands, under the Earl of Leicester, and next under Lord Willoughby, who, for his conduct in the defense of Bergen-op-Zoom, conferred on him the honor of knighthood. After this he threw supplies into the town of Berg, on the Rhine, in which hazardous service he received many wounds. In 1591 he took a fort near Zutphen by stratagem, and was chiefly instrumental in the capture of Deventer. In 1596 he was recalled from the Netherlands, and employed in the expedition against Cadiz, with the title of lord marshal. The last great action of this gallant commander was the defense of Ostend for the Dutch, where he succeeded in

repelling, with a small garrison of twelve hundred men, an army of ten thousand Spanish troops commanded by Albert, Archduke of Austria, who was forced to raise the siege in March, 1602, after lying ten months before the place. Sir Francis died Aug. 28th, 1608, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

VERE, Sir HORACE, Baron of Tilbury, younger brother of the preceding, was born at Kirby Hall in Essex, in 1565. He served with his brother in the Netherlands, and had a considerable share in the victory near Nieuport; as he afterward had in the defense of Ostend. In the reign of James I., he commanded the forces sent to the assistance of the elector palatine: on which occasion he effected a memorable retreat from Spinola, the Spanish general. He was the first person raised to the peerage by Charles I. He died in 1635.

VERGENNES, CHARLES GRAVIER, Comte de, an eminent French statesman, was born at Dijon in 1717. On the accession of Louis XVI. to the throne he was made secretary of state for foreign affairs. In this situation he distinguished himself by what he, no doubt, considered a master-stroke of policy, that of separating England and her colonies; but in this he only accelerated a more fatal blow to his own country. He died at Versailles, Feb. 13th, 1787.



VERMONT has an area of 10,212 square miles, and in 1860 had 315,098 inhabitants. The most striking feature of the state is the mountainous range called the Green Mountains, which traverses it from north to south.

The Green Mountains are from ten to fifteen miles broad, much intersected with valleys, and they derive their name from their perpetual verdure, their sides being covered with evergreen shrubs and trees, and their

summits with green moss and winter grass. There are many fine farms among the mountains, and much of the land upon them is fit for grazing. The highest summit is Mansfield Mountain, in Lamoille county, 4,279 feet. Vermont is an agricultural state. Between the mountains and Lake Champlain is much good arable land, and fertile tracts skirt the Connecticut; but generally the soil is better fitted for pasturage. Many excellent horses are raised for the markets of other states, and cattle and sheep are reared in large numbers. Iron ore is found in abundance along the western base of the Green Mountains. Large quantities of copperas are made from the sulphuret of iron. Hand-some marble is quarried, beside soapstone, granite, &c.

Fort Dummer was built by Massachusetts on Connecticut River in 1724, and when in 1731 a fort was built at Crown Point by the French from Canada, they also settled on the opposite shore of Lake Champlain, within the present limits of Vermont. In 1741 a boundary line was run between Massachusetts and New Hampshire, and in 1749 Benning Wentworth, governor of New Hampshire, concluding that the boundary of that colony extended as far west as that of Massachusetts, that is, to within twenty miles of the Hudson, made a grant of a township of land, six miles square, which from his own first name was called Bennington. Other grants were subsequently made, and several towns planted on the west side of Connecticut River. But New York also claimed the jurisdiction, and in the year 1764 the king annexed the territory west of the Connecticut River to that province; the government of which declared the New Hampshire grants null and void, and demanded that the settlers should take out new deeds, and pay for their lands a second time. This was refused, and the next year several of the officers in attempting to execute the judgments of the courts of New York, were resisted and wounded. At the head of this opposition were Ethan Allen and Seth Warner, men of coolness and resolution.

In 1774 the government of New York passed a law demanding the surrender of all offenders under severe penalties, and offering a bounty of £50 per head on the apprehen-

sion of eight of the most obnoxious settlers. While preparing for civil war, the revolution commenced, the importance of which absorbed all minor considerations. In 1777, the declaration of independence having left the settlers in a critical situation, a convention of representatives from the towns on both sides of the mountains, was held at Westminster, and the district was declared a free and independent state. It received its name from the French words *Verd mont* (green mountain), which name had been conferred by Ethan Allen on the mountains, and was afterward transferred to the state. In 1790 the dispute between New York and Vermont was adjusted, the latter giving 20,000 dollars for the quitclaim of the former; the claims of New Hampshire were also adjusted; and the next year Vermont was admitted into the Union.

The present constitution was adopted in 1793. An amendment establishing a senate was adopted in 1836, and the legislative power is now vested in the general assembly, elected by the people annually; the executive in a governor, chosen at the same time. The right of suffrage belongs to every male adult who has resided in the state one year, and is of quiet and peaceable behavior. The supreme court is composed of six judges, and holds a stated session in each county annually.

Montpelier, the capital of the state, lies in a pleasant valley between the eastern and western chains of the mountains, at the junction of the north and south branches of the Onion or Winooski River; population in 1850, 2310. Burlington, the largest town and the chief commercial place on Lake Champlain, is handsomely situated on a gently rising slope that overlooks the lake, and has an excellent harbor; population in 1860, 7,713.

VERNON, EDWARD, an English admiral, was born in Westminster, of a Staffordshire family, Nov. 12th, 1684. His father was secretary of state to King William, and reluctantly suffered him to enter into the sea service under Admiral Hopson. In 1704 he was with Sir George Rooke, at the battle of Malaga. After a variety of service under different commanders, he was made vice-admiral of the blue in 1739, and sent with a squadron to Spanish America, where he took

Porto Bello, and destroyed the fortifications; but in 1741 he proved unsuccessful in an attack upon Carthage, from disagreement with Gen. Wentworth, commander of the land forces. On his return home, he was employed in guarding the coasts of Kent and Sussex during the rebellion of 1745; but soon after he was superseded, and even struck off the list of admirals for acting in opposition to the ministry. He died Oct. 29th, 1757.

Admiral Vernon's nickname at sea was Old Grog, from a rough program cloak he wore, and his favorite beverage of rum and water took the name from him.

VERONESE. PAOLO CAGLIARI, commonly known, from the place of his birth, as Paul Veronese, was born at Verona in 1528. He established himself in Venice, where he ultimately became the rival of Titian, Tintoretto, and other great masters of the Venetian school in painting; and there he died, April 20th, 1588. His pictures are noted for their rich coloring and freedom of execution, though often careless in drawing and capricious in costume. Some of them have splendid architectural backgrounds.

VERRES, CAIUS LICINIUS, a Roman who governed the province of Sicily as prætor. The oppression and rapine of which he was guilty, while in office, so offended the Sicilians, that they brought an accusation against him before the Roman senate. Cicero undertook the cause of the Sicilians. Verres was defended by Hortensius, but as he despaired of the success of his defense, he left Rome without waiting for his sentence, and lived in great affluence in one of the provinces. He was at last killed by the soldiers of Antony the triumvir, about twenty-six years after his voluntary exile from the capital.

VERSAILLES. In the reign of Louis XIII. Versailles was only a small village, in a forest thirty miles in circuit; and here this prince built a hunting-seat in 1630. Louis XIV. in 1687 enlarged it into a magnificent palace, which was finished in 1708, and was the usual residence of the court of France till 1789, when Louis XVI. and his family were removed from it to Paris. It was afterward the residence of Louis Philippe, and is still a royal palace.

The definitive treaty of peace between

Great Britain and the United States, by which the latter power was admitted to be a sovereign and independent state, was signed at Paris. On the same day the definitive treaty was signed at Versailles between Great Britain, France, and Spain, Sept. 3d, 1783. In pursuance of the treaty of Versailles, Pondicherry and Calcutta, with the former possessions in Bengal, were restored to France. Trincomalee at the same time was restored to the Dutch.

In the park of Versailles are the two royal seats, the Grand Trianon and the Petit Trianon; the former was built by Louis XIV., the latter by Louis XV.

VESPASIANUS, TITUS FLAVIUS, a Roman emperor, descended from an obscure family at Reate. He was honored with the consulship, not so much by the influence of the imperial courtiers, as by his own private merit and his public services. He accompanied Nero into Greece, but he offended the prince by falling asleep while he repeated one of his poetical compositions. This momentary resentment of the emperor did not prevent Vespasian from being sent to carry on a war against the Jews. His operations were crowned with success; many of the cities of Palestine surrendered, and Vespasian began the siege of Jerusalem. This was, however, achieved by his son Titus. After the death of Otho, A.D. 69, he was induced by his army to become emperor; and he easily overcame Vitellius. The choice of the army was approved by every province of the empire; but Vespasian did not betray any signs of pride at so sudden and so unexpected an exaltation, and he behaved, when invested with the imperial purple, with the dignity and greatness which became a successor of Augustus. In the beginning of his reign, Vespasian attempted to reform the manners of the Romans. He took away an appointment which he had a few days before granted to a young nobleman, when the fellow approached him to return him thanks, all smelling of perfumes and covered with ointment; adding, "I had rather you had smelt of garlic." After he had reigned with great popularity for ten years, Vespasian died of a complaint in his bowels, A.D. 79, in the seventieth year of his age, to the great grief of all the empire. He was the first of the Ro-

man emperors who was succeeded by his own son on the throne. Vespasian has been admired for his great virtues.

The Coliseum was commenced by Vespasian in the last year of his life, and completed in the reign of his son Titus.



VESUVIUS.

VESUVIUS, MOUNT, threw out such a quantity of flame and smoke, that the air was darkened, and the cities of Pompeii and Herculaneum were overwhelmed by the burning lava, A.D. 79. More than 250,000 persons perished by the destruction of those cities; the sun's light was totally obscured for two days throughout Naples; great quantities of ashes and sulphureous smoke were carried not only to Rome, but also beyond the Mediterranean into Africa; birds were suffocated in the air and fell dead upon the ground, and the fishes perished in the neighboring waters, which were made hot and infected by it. This eruption proved fatal to Pliny, the naturalist. Herculaneum was discovered in 1737, and many curious articles have been dug from the ruins since that time; but everything combustible had the marks of having been burned by fire. Numerous eruptions have occurred, causing great devastation and loss of life. In 1631 the town of Torre del Greco, with four thousand persons, and a great part of the surrounding country, were destroyed. One of the most dreadful eruptions ever known took place suddenly, Nov. 24th, 1759. The violent burst in 1767 was the thirty-fourth from the time of Titus, when Pompeii was buried.

One in 1794 was most destructive: the lava flowed over five thousand acres of rich vineyards and cultivated lands. There have been several eruptions since: one in May, 1855, caused great destruction of property, and another in Nov. 1867, issuing volumes of smoke and flame from several new craters.

VIENNA (WIEN), the capital of the Austrian empire, stands on the south bank of the Danube, at its confluence with the little river Wien, which flows through the city. The population, exclusive of the military, numbers above 410,000. Vienna consists of the interior or old city, which is walled, and the suburbs. Its palaces, churches, charitable establishments, literary institutions, fine promenades and parks, and the gayety of the society, make this one of the most noted of European capitals. St. Stephen's cathedral, a majestic gothic structure of freestone, built in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, is one of the finest specimens of ancient German architecture. In the highest of its four towers (above 450 feet), hangs the great bell, weighing 357 cwt., cast in 1711 out of 180 pieces of Turkish cannon, which had been used in the siege of Vienna. The crypt beneath the church consists of thirty large vaults, in which since the time of Ferdinand

III. the bowels of all the deceased members of the imperial family are deposited in copper or silver urns ; their hearts being deposited in the Augustinian church, and their bodies in the church of the Capuchins. The Burg, the imperial palace, is an old and irregular edifice. It contains the imperial jewel office, one of the richest collections of the kind in Europe, a fine cabinet of works of art, a very extensive collection of natural history, and the cabinet of medals, which far surpasses all other numismatic collections. The imperial library is rich in oriental manuscripts and valuable engravings. The palace of the Archduke Charles also has an extensive library and collection of engravings and drawings. The university of Vienna, founded in 1365, is famous as the first medical school in Germany, and is attended by over two thousand students.

Vienna is the centre of the commerce and manufactures of Austria. Steam vessels ply along the Danube, and to Constantinople, Trebizond, Smyrna, &c. Railways connect the city with all the important towns of the empire, and the electric telegraph gives it instant communication with all the chief cities in Europe. The principal manufactures are silk, velvet, shawls, gold and silver lace, cottons, woollens, ribands, carpets, leather, porcelain, jewelry, mathematical and musical instruments, cannon and fire-arms, gold and silver plate, watches, fine cutlery, carriages, gloves, lace, straw hats, paper, &c. The printing of large and accurate maps, and of books in various dialects of human speech, is much encouraged by the government. The imperial printing-office is the most complete in the world.

One of the favorite promenades of the Viennese is on the ramparts of the old town, and the broad glacis or esplanade between them and the suburbs. Here is commanded a fine view of the picturesque environs,—the beautiful islands of the Danube, the Noric Alps, the lofty Kahlenberg mountain, thick forests, rich vineyards, ruined castles, antique churches, modern palaces, and handsome country seats. Another thronged resort is the Prater, an immense park opened to the public by Joseph II. in 1766. It is a league and a half in length, and is traversed

by six noble avenues of chestnut-trees, running in different directions, the principal one being 15,000 feet long. These are divided into three parts, one for horsemen, one for pedestrians, and the broad road between them for carriages. Beyond the avenues are fine meadows, with groups of stately trees and large herds of deer. The Prater is crowded with company every Sunday in the spring: its grand day is Easter Monday, when there may be 20,000 pedestrians, and an uninterrupted line of carriages six miles in length. Along the walks are many coffee-houses. The most characteristic part of the Prater, however, is the Wurstel Prater, so called from the puppet-shows (*Wurstel-spiele*) there exhibited. It is covered with innumerable booths, swings, roundabouts, jugglers, and all sorts of diversions for the lower classes. The whole is like a great encampment of sutlers' shops; long rows of tables and benches are constantly supplied with guests.

Vienna, called by the Romans *Vindobona*, was long the head-quarters of a Roman legion, and the capital of Pannonia. It was overrun by the Goths and Huns. Charlemagne annexed it to his dominions in 791. Vienna was made an imperial city in 1136, and was walled and enlarged with the ransom paid for Richard I. of England, £40,000, in 1194. The most remarkable events in its annals are the sieges it has sustained. In 484 it was taken by Mathias, King of Hungary, who resided in it till his death, when it was restored to Austria. Besieged by the Turks under Solymán the Magnificent, with an army of 300,000 men ; but he was forced to raise the siege with the loss of 70,000 of his best troops, 1529. Again besieged in 1683, when the siege was raised by John Sobieski, King of Poland, who totally defeated the Turkish army of over 100,000 which had cannonaded the city from July 24th to the beginning of November. Vienna was taken by the French, under Murat, Nov. 14th, 1805 ; and evacuated Jan. 12th following. They again captured it, May 13th, 1809 ; but restored it once more on the conclusion of peace between the two countries, Oct. 14th same year. Conference of the ministers of the allies and France, Sept. 28th, 1814. Congress of sovereigns, Oct. 2d, 1814.

In the Hungarian war of 1848-9, in an insurrection here, Count Latour, minister of war, was assassinated; Vienna was in the hands of the insurgents, and the emperor fled, Oct. 6th, 1848. The imperialists under Prince Windischgratz, amounting to 75,000 men, commenced, Oct. 28th following, an attack on the city, which continued until Nov. 1st, when they recovered possession of it, totally defeating the Hungarian army.

Vienna has been an important spot in diplomacy. Here was signed, April 30th, 1725, the celebrated treaty between the Emperor of Germany and the King of Spain, by which they confirmed to each other such parts of the Spanish dominions as they were respectively possessed of, and by a private treaty the emperor engaged to employ a force to procure the restoration of Gibraltar to Spain, and to use means for placing the Pretender on the throne of Great Britain. Spain guaranteed the pragmatic sanction. This was followed, March 16th, 1731, by a treaty of alliance at Vienna between the Emperor Charles VI., George II. of England, and the States of Holland, by which the pragmatic sanction was guaranteed, and the disputes as to the Spanish succession terminated. Spain acceded to this treaty on the 22d of July.

Here was made a definitive treaty of peace between the Emperor Charles VI. of Germany and Louis XV. of France, by which the latter power agreed to guarantee the pragmatic sanction, and Lorraine was ceded to France, Nov. 18th, 1738.

One of the most noted treaties of Vienna is that between Napoleon and the Emperor Francis, Oct. 14th, 1809; to which the latter was brought by the decisive battle of Wagram. Austria ceded a great portion of her territory; agreed to a contribution to indemnify France for the expenses of the war, and acknowledged Joseph Bonaparte king of Spain. To Bavaria she gave up Salzburg, and a tract of country along the banks of the Danube, from Passau to Linz. To Saxony she yielded the whole of western Galicia. To Russia so much of the eastern part of that province as contained a population of 40,000 souls. To France she ceded Fiume and Trieste, with the whole of the country south of the Saave, to where

that river enters Bosnia. She also gave up the inhabitants of the Tyrol, on condition of their receiving from Bonaparte a full and free pardon; and engaged to adhere to the prohibitory system adopted toward England by France and Russia.

The treaty of Vienna between Great Britain, Austria, Russia, and Prussia, confirming the principles on which they had acted by the treaty of Chaumont, March 1st, 1814; signed March 23d, 1815. The treaty of Vienna between the King of the Low Countries on the one part, and Great Britain, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, on the other, agreeing to the enlargement of the Dutch territories, and vesting the sovereignty in the house of Orange, May 31st, 1815. The treaty of Vienna: Denmark cedes Swedish Pomerania and Rugen to Prussia, in exchange for Lauenburg, June 4th, 1815. The federative constitution of Germany signed at Vienna, June 8th, 1815.

After the Russians had passed the Pruth, in July, 1853, a conference of the four great powers, England, France, Austria, and Prussia, was held at Vienna, July 24th, when a note was agreed on and transmitted for acceptance to St. Petersburg and Constantinople, July 31st. This note was accepted by the czar, Aug. 10th, but the sultan required modifications which were rejected by Russia, Sept. 7th. On Dec. 5th, the four powers transmitted a collective note to the Porte, deploring the war and requesting to know on what terms the sultan would treat for peace. The sultan replied in a note, dated Dec. 31st, containing four points: 1. The promptest possible evacuation of the principalities; 2. Revision of the treaties; 3. Maintenance of religious privileges to the communities of all confessions; 4. A definitive settlement of the convention respecting the holy places. These points were approved by the four powers, Jan. 15th, 1854, and the conferences closed on Jan. 16th following. On April 9th, 1854, a treaty was signed at Vienna by the representatives of England, France, Austria, and Prussia, for the maintenance of Turkey, evacuation of the principalities, &c. A new conference was proposed in January, 1855, which met in March, consisting of plenipotentiaries from Great Britain (Lord John Russel), France (M. Drouin

de l'Huys), Austria (Count Buol), Turkey (Arif Effendi), and Russia (Count Gortschakoff). Two points, the protectorate of the principalities, and the free navigation of the Danube, were agreed to; but the proposals of the powers as to the reduction of the Russian power in the Black Sea were rejected by the czar, and the conference was again closed June 5th, 1855. The English and French envoys' assent to the Austrian propositions was not approved of by their respective governments, and they both resigned their official positions.

VILLARS, LOUIS HECTOR, Duke of, a French general, was born at Moulins, in 1653. After a variety of services, he gained the battle of Friedlingen in 1762; for which he was made marshal of France. The following year he took the fortress of Kehl, and put an end to the insurrection in the Cevennes, for which he was created Duke of Villars. In 1707 he forced the lines at Stollhoffen; but in 1709 he lost the battle of Malplaquet, and was wounded. In 1712 he acquired glory by forcing the Austrian intrenchments at Denain on the Scheldt, which exploit was succeeded by the capture of Marchiennes, Douay, Bouchain, Landau, and Friburg. The peace of Rastadt followed; after which Villars was made president of the council of war, and minister of state. In 1733 he commanded in Italy, with the title of marshal-general of the French camps and armies. He died at Turin, June 17th, 1734.

VILLIERS, GEORGE, Duke of Buckingham, was the son of Sir George Villiers, of Brookesby in Leicestershire, and was born there in 1592. He attracted the notice of James I. at the performance of the play of "Ignoramus," in 1615; soon after which he was successively appointed cup-bearer to the king, gentleman of the bedchamber, and knight of the garter. He also rose to the rank of marquis, and became lord admiral of England, warden of the cinque ports, and master of the horse. But in 1623 he lost the royal favor, in a great degree, by persuading Prince Charles to visit the Court of Spain, for the purpose of paying his addresses in person to the infant. Though Buckingham was created a duke in his absence, it was supposed that if the king had lived, his fall

would have been as rapid as his rise. The accession of Charles in 1625 increased the power of the favorite, but it also multiplied his enemies and injured his master. The nation hated Buckingham, and two parliaments were dissolved for impeaching him. At this period the duke involved the kingdom in a disgraceful war with France, and went himself on an expedition to the Isle of Rhe, where he lost the flower of his army. He then returned to repair his fleet, and was about to sail for Rochelle, when he was assassinated, at Portsmouth, by Felton, a fanatical lieutenant, Aug. 23d, 1628. He had abused his power shamelessly, and displayed great ambition, avarice, and caprice. When he visited the court of Louis XIII., to finish the negotiations for the marriage of Charles and Henrietta Maria, pearls were sewed so loosely upon his velvet mantle that at every step he scattered them for the profit of the surrounding courtiers.

VILLIERS, GEORGE, the second Duke of Buckingham, was the son of the preceding, and was born in 1627. After studying at Cambridge, he went abroad, and on his return entered into the royal army, for which he was deprived of his estate by the parliament, but recovered a great part of it in 1657, by marrying the daughter of Lord Fairfax. At the restoration he was made one of the lords of the bed-chamber, lord-lieutenant of Yorkshire, and master of the horse. Of these honors, however, he was deprived in 1666, for being concerned in a plot to effect a change of government. Notwithstanding this, he recovered the royal favor, and retained it awhile. In the course of his vagrant amours he was attracted for a moment by the Countess of Shrewsbury. She was easily won. Her lord challenged the gallant, and fell. Some said that the abandoned woman witnessed the combat in man's attire, and others that she clasped her victorious lover to her bosom while he was yet dripping with the blood of her husband. Another of Buckingham's outrages was the hiring of Blood to seize the Duke of Ormond in his coach. In 1676 the duke, with the Earls of Shaftesbury and Salisbury, and Lord Wharton, were sent to the Tower, by order of the house of peers, for contempt. On a petition to the king, however, they were

all released. This profligate nobleman died at an obscure house at Kirkby Moorside, of a fever, April 16th, 1688. His wit and talents were brilliant, and he did something to improve the literary taste of his age.

VIMEIRA, a village of Portuguese Estremadura, three miles from Torres Vedras, and twenty-eight miles north-west of Lisbon. It is remarkable for a battle between the British, under Sir Arthur Wellesley, and the French, under Marshal Junot, 21st August, 1808. The French commenced the attack on various points with their usual impetuosity, and met a resistance to which they had long been unaccustomed. The flower of their troops made a charge against the British centre and left, who received them with a tremendous volley, then charged with the bayonet, and in one moment their front rank fell like grass before the mower's scythe. They gave way, and abandoned six pieces of cannon in their flight. Having failed in their other attacks, they commenced a retreat, after sustaining a loss of 1,800 men, and thirteen pieces of cannon. In this decisive victory not more than half the British army was engaged. Their loss was 720.

VINCI, LEONARDO DA, was born in the valley of the Arno near Florence, in 1452. He was placed early with Andrea Verrocchio, a Florentine painter and sculptor, who finding after a short time that he was surpassed by his pupil in painting, gave up that art in despair and confined himself thenceforth to sculpture, wherein he found reward of great success and eminence. Leonardo seems to have been an almost universal genius. Besides his devotion to painting, he excelled in sculpture, architecture, engineering, and mechanics generally; botany, anatomy, mathematics, and astronomy, he was well versed in; he was a poet also, and an admirable extempore performer on the lyre. The letter in which he offered his services to Lodovico il Moro, Duke of Milan, about 1483, contained this proud passage: "I will also undertake any work in sculpture, in marble, in bronze, or in terra-cotta: likewise in painting, I can do what can be done, as well as any man, be he whom he may." The duke took Leonardo into his service, and the celebrated painting of "The Last Supper," executed in oil on the wall in the refectory of

the Dominican convent of the Madonna delle Grazie, about 1495, was considered the greatest work that had been executed in the art up to that time, and more than redeemed the bold pledge we have quoted. This was his last great work at Milan, which he left in 1499 when Duke Lodovico fled before Charles XII. of France. Leonardo afterward dwelt at Florence and a short time at Rome. In his old age he entered the service of Francis I. of France, and died at Cloux, near Amboise in that kingdom, May 2d, 1519.

VIRGIL. PUBLIUS VIRGILIUS MARO was born at Andes, a small village near Mantua, Oct. 15th, B.C. 70. He was no less remarkable for his varied learning than for the poetical genius displayed in the "*Æneid*," the "*Bucolics*," and the "*Georgics*." His application to study at Rome enfeebled his health, and he retired to his little paternal farm. Augustus, after the triumph of his arms over Antony, rewarded some of his veterans with lands in the vicinity of Mantua. Virgil was thereby driven from his peaceful seclusion and robbed of his inheritance. It was restored, through the intercession of potent friends, and soon after the poet was introduced to the emperor and the munificent Mæcenas, whose friendship and patronage he thereafter enjoyed. In the year 19 B.C. he visited Greece, intending to make a tour of that country, and to revise and perfect his "*Æneid*." Rapidly declining health drove him back, and he died soon after landing at Brundisium, on the 22d of September, 19 B.C. In compliance with his wish his body was borne to Naples, and buried two miles out of the city. Since the "*Æneid*" had not received the finishing revision he intended, he ordered, in his last illness, that it should be burned; but it was saved and published, by his friends Varius and Tucca.

VIRGINIA has an area of 61,352 square miles. In 1860 the population was 1,596,318, including 58,042 free negroes, and 490,865 slaves. The great ridge of the Alleghanies divides the state into two sections. In her natural resources, in her genial and salubrious climate, her fine rivers, and her scenery, Virginia is favored with advantages surpassed by no state in the Union. The principal rivers are the Potomac, Shenandoah, Rappahannock, York, James, Appomattox, Elizabeth,

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Kanawha, Ohio, Sandy, and Monongahela. Iron, limestone, lead, coal, and salt are chief among the rich mineral wealth. Maize, wheat, and tobacco are the great agricultural products. Cotton is cultivated in the south; and hemp and wool are prominent staples in the western portion.

Virginia was the first settled of all the English colonies in North America.

Of the earlier occurrences in her history we have taken notice in the article on the United States. Charles II. in exile was highly gratified with a formal act of the Virginia assembly, declaring that they were born under monarchy, and would never degenerate from the condition of their birth, by being subject to any other government. The colonists invited him to come over and reign in Virginia. He was on the point of sailing, when he was restored to the thrones of England and Scotland. He caused the arms of Virginia to be quartered with those of England, Scotland, and Ireland, as an independent member of the realm. Hence she received the name of the Old Dominion. Though Charles gave the fullest assurance that their form of government should never be changed; none of the colonies suffered more than Virginia from the despotism of a royal government. In violation of chartered rights, the colony was divided into parts, and conveyed away by proprietary grants; not grants of uncultivated woodlands, but of plantations that had long been cultivated according to the encouragement and laws of kings and charters.

The colony suffered, too, from the miseries of civil war, in 1676, during Bacon's rebellion; Jamestown was burned, and the adjacent districts laid waste. She shared largely in the calamities of the French wars, and was among the foremost in taking a decided stand in the dispute with the mother country. Some of the most important incidents of the great drama of the Revolution took place within her borders.

Richmond, on the James River, is the capital; population 37,910 in 1860. The state-house is a copy of the Maison Carrée of Nîmes, and contains a statue of Washington by Houdon. Norfolk (population 15,611) is the chief port, and the second town in size. Its harbor is deep and capacious, and easy of access. At Gosport, near Norfolk, is one of the finest of the national navy-yards. Petersburg on the Appomattox, Wheeling on the Ohio, Lynchburg and Winchester, are thriving towns.

In Westmoreland county, on the Potomac, is the spot where Washington was born; the house stood on Bridge's Creek, about half a mile from the river, on a plantation called Wakefield. A simple stone, with the inscription, "Here, on the 11th of February [o.s.], 1732, George Washington was born," designates the consecrated spot. Farther up the Potomac, eight miles from Alexandria, is Mount Vernon, where he died, and where his ashes lie.

Virginia was the key-stone of the rebellion, the headquarters of its civil government, the key of its whole military position, the center

and field of its leading military movements, the scene of its earliest triumphs, and of its final and shattering defeat by the Army of the Potomac. The mountains and rivers of the state make its eastern part, when attacked from the north, one of the strongest countries for defence in the world; and the two sides of the Blue Ridge form a "whip-row" on either side of which the rebels could manœuvre at pleasure. With these advantages the rebels were able to maintain themselves here as in a citadel against the successive commanders of the Army of the Potomac, until the tremendous will and adamantine perseverance of Grant assaulted their main army, pushed it struggling back to the lines of Richmond, held it within them for three-quarters of a year, and at last dashed it to pieces. The state underwent a most severe discipline during the war, from the four years' constant ravages of great armies. Virginia seceded April 25, 1861. May 22, 1861, the central rebel government established itself there. In April, 1865, that government ran away and disappeared.

One result of the secession movement was the formation from the western or mountainous part of Virginia, of a new state, called West Virginia, and which was admitted to the Union, June 20, 1863.

VIRGINIA was the daughter of the centurion L. Virginius. Appius Claudius, the decemvir, became enamored of her, and attempted to abduct her. She was claimed by one of his favorites as the daughter of a slave, and Appius, in the capacity and with the authority of judge, had pronounced the sentence, and delivered her into the hands of his friend, when Virginius, informed of his violent proceedings, arrived from the camp. The father demanded to see his daughter, and when this request was granted, he snatched a knife and plunged it into Virginia's breast, exclaiming, "This is all, my daughter, I can give thee to preserve thee from the lust of a tyrant." No sooner was the blow given than Virginius ran to the camp with the bloody knife in his hand. The soldiers were astonished and incensed, not against the murderer, but the tyrant, and they immediately marched to Rome. Appius was seized, but he destroyed himself in prison, and prevented the execution of the

law. Spurius Oppius, another of the decemvirs, who had not opposed the tyrant's views, killed himself also; and Marcus Claudius, the favorite of Appius, was put to death, and the decemviral power abolished, 449 B.C.

VITELLIUS, AULUS, a Roman raised by his vices to the throne. He was descended from one of the most illustrious families of Rome, and as such he gained an easy admission to the palace of the emperors. He passed through all the offices of the state, and gained over the soldiery by donations and liberal promises. He was at the head of the Roman legions in Germany when Otho was proclaimed emperor, and the exaltation of his rival was no sooner heard in the camp, than he was likewise invested with the purple by his soldiers. He accepted with pleasure the dangerous office, and instantly marched against Otho. Three battles were fought, and in all Vitellius was conquered. A fourth, however, in the plains between Mantua and Cremona, left him master of the field, and of the Roman empire. He feasted his eyes in viewing the bodies of the slain and the ground covered with blood, and regardless of the insalubrity of the air, proceeding from so many carcases, he told his attendants that the smell of a dead enemy was always sweet. His first care was not like that of a wise conqueror, to alleviate the distresses of the conquered, or patronize the friends of the dead, but it was to insult their misfortunes, and to intoxicate himself with the companions of his debauchery on the field of battle. Each successive day exhibited a scene of greater extravagance, which, though it delighted his favorites, soon raised the indignation of the people. Vespasian was proclaimed emperor by the army, and his minister Primus was sent to destroy the imperial glutton. Vitellius concealed himself under the bed of the porter of his palace, but this obscure retreat betrayed him; he was dragged naked through the streets, his hands were tied behind his back, and a drawn sword was placed under his chin to make him lift his head. After suffering the greatest insults from the populace, he was at last carried to the place of execution, and put to death with repeated blows. His head was cut off and fixed to a pole, and his mutilated body dragged with a hook and thrown

into the Tiber, A.D. 69, after a reign of one year, except twelve days.

VITTORIA, BATTLE OF, in Spain, was fought on the 21st of June, 1813, between the army of Lord Wellington, and that of the French general Jourdan, in which the latter was defeated. On the 19th, the French rear-guard was driven back toward Vittoria; and on the 21st a long and fearful battle took place, in which the French forces, commanded by Joseph Bonaparte, having Marshal Jourdan as his major-general, were so completely defeated, that they were under the necessity of abandoning all their artillery, ammunition, baggage, and cattle. One hundred and fifty-one pieces of cannon and four hundred and fifteen ammunition wagons were taken on the field; and among the trophies was the baton of Marshal Jourdan. The loss of the allied British, Spanish, and Portuguese was about 700 killed and 4,000 wounded, but that of the French was considerably greater. Wellington's fierce pursuit threw the French into irretrievable confusion, and on the 25th Jourdan's only remaining cannon was captured. In this great engagement, the contending armies were nearly equal, numbering from 70,000 to 75,000 men each.

VOLNEY, CONSTANTINE CHASSEBŒUF, Comte de, a celebrated French deistical writer, was born in Anjou in 1757, and inherited a property adequate to gratify his love for traveling and miscellaneous studies. He was a Girondist during the revolution. He was created a peer after the restoration, and died in 1820.

VOLTA, ALEXANDER, born at Como, in the duchy of Milan, Feb. 14th, 1745, died there March 5th, 1827. For thirty years he was professor of natural philosophy in the university of Pavia. He was especially distinguished for his discoveries in electricity, and in 1800 opened a new era in its importance by the invention of the great battery known by his name.

VOLTAIRE was the name capriciously assumed by FRANÇOIS MARIE AROUET. He was born near Paris in 1694. He distinguished himself in boyhood by his aptness for learning, his malignant wit, and his inclination to scoff at religion. His godfather, a fashionable and literary abbe, introduced him at an early age into courtly circles, where

he speedily learned the hollowness of everything around him, and gratified his taste for artful compliment and biting reparted. His notoriety caused him to be accused (wrongfully for once) of writing indecent satirical lines on the death of Louis XIV., and he passed a year in the Bastile. There he wrote his tragedy of "Œdipe" and sketched his epic, "L'Henriade." The latter, stolen in manuscript, as he alleged, was printed with satirical verses which he said were interpolations. The publication, thus called surreptitious, made him famous; and the same farce was repeated so often in his literary career, as plainly to appear the device of the author.

A man of quality, affronting the young poet in society, was silenced by an apt retort; he took revenge by making his servants give the upstart a beating; Voltaire learned to fence, challenged his insulter, and was answered by an imprisonment of six months. On his release he was banished from the kingdom. He dwelt in England from 1726 to 1729. By the English profits of an edition of the *Henriade* he laid the foundation of a fortune, which he afterward largely increased by lottery tickets, speculations, and usury.

In 1750 Voltaire, on the invitation of Frederick II. of Prussia, went to Berlin to dwell. He remained there for three years, during which he enlivened the royal circle by his wit, corrected the bad French of the royal philosopher and poet, and learned, not only that courts are wearisome places, but that Frederick of Prussia and François Arouet were too like each other to be really friends.

In 1758 he purchased two small estates not far from Geneva, and at his chateau of Ferney, on one of these, he passed the last twenty-two years of his life, sedulously pursuing his literary labors. He was a liberal landlord and a charitable neighbor. He died during a visit to Paris in 1778.

The genius of Voltaire was of wide variety; he contributed to almost all departments of literature. He was a malignant enemy of Christianity, and sneered at all that is true and holy.

VORTIGERN, the chief of Britain, upon the Romans quitting that island, about 447.

The Britons being threatened with an invasion from the Scots and Picts, they addressed him from all parts for relief, and at last made him summon a general council of the nation, to provide against their approaching ruin. Vortigern, in the name of all the Britons, sent ambassadors to the Saxons, who, having first consulted their gods, readily complied with his desire. All things being fairly agreed on, and the isle of Thanet in Kent bestowed upon them, for their encouragement, they landed in the island in 450, under the command of Hengist and Horsa, who shortly after encountered the Picts, then advanced as far as Stamford in Lincolnshire, and put them to flight. Thus the Britons, under Vortigern, defeated the Picts, by the help of the Saxons. The latter soon quarreled with the Britons, and wars ensued, which ended in the total overthrow and ruin of the natives. Vortigern retired into Wales, and

built a strong castle in Radnorshire. His son Vortimer reigned in his stead, who bore a strong hand against the Saxons; but he dying before his father, Vortigern resumed the government. He had two wives; one of them Rowena, daughter of Hengist. On being restored to the crown, he was disposed to conclude a new treaty with his father-in-law; and both parties met without weapons. But Hengist's design being to murder, he ordered his men to be secretly armed, and gave them the watchword for execution; so that a quarrel being designedly raised, his men, upon the signal, stabbed each his next man; and no less than three hundred perished by this treachery. They spared the life of Vortigern, but they kept him in custody till he granted Hengist, for his ransom, those provinces which were afterward called Essex, Sussex, and Middlesex.

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WAGRAM, BATTLE OF, fought by the Austrians and French, July 5th, 1809; the latter were victorious, and the former severely overthrown. The slaughter on both sides was dreadful; 20,000 Austrians were taken by the French, and the defeated army retired to Moravia. This battle led to an armistice, signed on the 12th; and on Oct. 24th, to a treaty of peace, by which Austria ceded all her sea-coast to France, and the kingdoms of Saxony and Bavaria were enlarged at her expense. The emperor was obliged also to yield a part of his plunder of Poland in Galicia to Russia. The emperor also acknowledged Joseph Bonaparte as king of Spain.

WAKEFIELD, PRISCILLA, author of many popular and useful works for children and young persons, and one of the earliest promoters of those provident institutions called savings banks. She died in London, Sept. 12th, 1832, in her eighty-second year. She was of Quaker parentage and her maiden name was Trewhman.

WALCHEREN, an island of the Netherlands. With a view to occasion a diversion on behalf of the Austrians, and also to

attempt the capture or destruction of the French vessels lying in the Scheldt, a British army of fifty thousand men was landed in July, 1809, on the island of Walcheren; but a considerable time having elapsed prior to the reduction of Flushing, the French collected a numerous force, raised several formidable batteries, and conveyed their ships up the river, beyond Fort Lillo. That part of the country also, where the English might have landed, was completely inundated. Walcheren, the only fruit of this expensive and unfortunate expedition, was to have been retained by the conquerors, for the purpose of shutting up the mouth of the Scheldt, and of facilitating the introduction of British manufactures into Holland. This design, however, was rendered abortive by the unhealthiness of the climate and the inefficiency of Lord Chatham (son of the great earl), the commanding general; and after great numbers of the troops had fallen a sacrifice, the British army evacuated the island on the 23d of December, having previously destroyed the fortifications, arsenal, docks, and basin. Some old ships filled with stores were also

sunk at the entrance of the Scheldt, to preclude an escape of the French fleet from the place of its retreat.

WALDENSES. Pierre Valdo, after acquiring a large fortune in commerce at Lyons in the twelfth century, devoted himself to the spiritual instruction of his poorer brethren. The only version of the Bible then in use was the Latin Vulgate, and Valdo rendered the gospels into French, the first appearance of the Scriptures in any modern tongue. The teachings of Valdo were soon denounced by the priesthood as heretical. He and his flock took refuge in the mountains of Dauphiny and Piedmont, and thence sprang those communities which grew in peace, and flourished in rustic simplicity, "pure as a flower amid Alpine snows." From these mountain valleys flowed rivulets of truth that finally swelled into the flood of the Reformation. Valdo wandered through Europe, teaching the purer doctrine, and died in Bohemia.

A persecution of the Waldenses in the beginning of the thirteenth century led to the establishment of the Inquisition. Pope Innocent III. had commissioned some monks to preach against the heresies of the Waldenses in Narbonne and Provence; but the Romish bishops were at first jealous of this mission, armed as it was with great power, and the feudal chiefs refused to obey the orders of the legates, A.D. 1203-4. One of the monks, the first inquisitor, Peter Chateaufort, having been assassinated, the aspiring pontiff called on all the neighboring powers to march into the heretical district. All obstinate heretics were placed at the disposal of Simon de Montfort, commander of this crusade, and the whole race of the Waldenses and Albigenses were ordered to be pursued with fire and sword. Neither sex, age, nor condition was spared; the country became a wilderness, and the towns heaps of smoking ruins. Such was the era of the inquisition. Dominic de Guzman was constituted first inquisitor-general, 1208.

WALES, a principality in the west of Great Britain from 130 to 180 miles long, and from 50 to 80 broad, with an area of 7,398 square miles, and 1,000,000 inhabitants. It is very rugged and mountainous. Wales is now an integral part of England for purposes of government. Its four bish-

oprics, Bangor, St. Asaph, Llandaff, and St. David, are included in the ecclesiastical province of Canterbury. The principality is divided into North and South Wales; the former comprised in the counties of Anglesey, Caernarvonshire, Denbighshire, Flintshire, Merionethshire, and Montgomeryshire; the latter, those of Brecknockshire, Cardiganshire, Caernarthenshire, Glamorganshire, Pembrokehire, and Radnorshire. The mines and quarries of Wales are very valuable. Over a large portion the Welsh language is still spoken, though the use of the English is steadily increasing. The early history of Wales is uncertain, on account of the number of petty princes who governed it. It was formerly inhabited by three different tribes of the Britons, the Silures, the Dimetæ, and the Ordovices. These people do not appear ever to have been entirely subdued by the Romans; though part of their country, as appears from the ruins of castles, was bridled by garrisons. The ancient Britons retreated into the west of the island before the Saxons, Angles, &c. Though the Saxons conquered the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, yet they never penetrated farther, and the Welsh remained an independent people governed by their own princes and their own laws. About the year 870, Roderic, king of Wales, divided his dominions among his three sons; and the names of these divisions were, Ceredigion and Dyved, or South Wales; Povesia, or Powis-land, comprising parts of Montgomeryshire, Shropshire, and Radnorshire, and Gwyredd, or North Wales. This division gave a mortal blow to the independency of Wales, though in the tenth century it was reunited. About the year 1112, Henry I. of England planted a colony of Flemings on the frontiers of Wales, and gave various noblemen estates and power in the marches, to serve as a barrier to England, none of the Welsh princes being powerful enough to extirpate them. They made, however, many vigorous and brave attempts against the Norman kings of England, to maintain their liberties. In 1237 the crown of England was supplied with a handle for the future conquest of Wales; the old and infirm prince Llewellyn, having put himself under subjection and homage to Henry III. But no capitulation could satisfy

the ambition of Edward I., who resolved to annex Wales to the crown of England; and Prince Llewellyn, disdaining the subjection to which old Llewellyn (his grandsire) had submitted, was opposed by the army of Edward, which penetrated as far as Flint, and taking possession of the isle of Anglesey, drove the Welsh to the mountains of Snowdon, and obliged them to submit to pay a tribute. The Welsh, however, made several efforts under young Llewellyn; but at last, in 1285, he was killed in battle. He was succeeded by his brother David, the last independent prince of Wales, who, falling into Edward's hands through treachery, was by him barbarously and unjustly hanged; and Edward, from that time, pretended that Wales was annexed to the crown of England. It was about this time, probably, that Edward perpetrated the inhuman massacre of the Welsh bards. Perceiving that his cruelty was not sufficient to complete his conquest, he sent his queen to be delivered in Caernarvon Castle, that the Welsh, having a prince born among themselves, might the more readily recognize his authority. This prince, by the death of an elder brother, came to the throne as Edward II., and from him the title of Prince of Wales has always since descended to the eldest sons of the English kings.

WALKER, JOHN, a well known English lexicographer, died in 1807, aged seventy-five.

WALLACE, Sir WILLIAM, a distinguished hero in Scottish history, who defended the independence of his country against the unprincipled invasion of Edward I. of England, was the son of a small landholder, who possessed the estate of Elderslie, near Paisley. It is probable that he had not greatly exceeded the age of opening manhood, at the time when his country was subdued by the English. Many of his first deeds of heroism, although imperfectly commemorated in the rude and often doubtful tale of Blind Harry, the minstrel, have unluckily been preserved by no records upon the evidence of which they might be received into the pages of authentic history. Within less than a year after the conquest of Edward, when the whole country seemed to have acquiesced in this fate, he undertook the desperate enterprise of break-

ing her fetters, and by the success of his enterprises, made himself known so advantageously to his countrymen, that he was joined by many who were desirous to partake of his renown; amongst the rest, by Sir William Douglas and some others of considerable rank. In May, 1297, he led his followers to attack Ormesby, the English justiciary, who was holding his court at Scone. Ormesby, with difficulty, made his escape into England, and the other officers followed his example. From the north-east, Wallace passed into the west, where his glory, and hatred of the English, procured him many adherents, amongst others, Robert Bruce, the grandson of him who had been competitor with Baliol for the crown. King Edward was then abroad, carrying on war in Guienne: but Warrene, who had been left governor of Scotland, collecting an army of forty thousand men, and determined to re-establish his authority, sent them forward under the command of Sir Henry Piercy and Sir Robert Clifford. When the English army came up, many of the adherents of Wallace made submission; but he himself, with his chosen followers, retired into the north. Finding his forces increasing, he laid siege to Dundee, which he relinquished on hearing of the approach of the English army to the Forth, and hastened to oppose their passage, which they attempted at the bridge of Stirling. The English, under Cressingham, first crossed the river, when Wallace attacked them, and put them to the sword or drove them into the stream. Those on the other side, burning their tents and leaving their baggage, fled to Berwick. Wallace having gained this victory, hastened back to Dundee, which now surrendered at his approach. He was then chosen regent by his followers, and all Scotland was cleared of the English. King Edward, returning from France, led a powerful army into Scotland. Both armies engaged at Falkirk, July 22d, 1298, and the English gained the victory, from their superiority of numbers and military skill, and the dissensions of their opponents. Wallace seeing all hope lost, rallied the broken remnants of his forces and retreated beyond the Forth. All Scotland submitted to Edward; but the dauntless spirit of Wallace never would surrender his country's independence.

WAL,

Whether he went abroad for a short time to France, or wandered in the fastnesses of the Highlands, can not be certainly known; but in 1304 he was in Scotland, and Edward could never believe he had secure possession till Wallace was in his power. This was effected by the treachery of Sir John Monteith; and Wallace was conducted to London, arraigned, and tried as a traitor, and condemned as guilty of high treason against Edward, although he had never acknowledged him as his king, nor owed him allegiance. Wallace, still undaunted, during and after his trial, asserted the rights of his country, and bore his fate, which was inflicted with every circumstance of ignominy and cruelty, with the magnanimity with which he had lived. He was executed Aug. 23d, 1305. His head was placed on London bridge, and his mangled limbs were distributed over the kingdom. It was reserved for Robert Bruce to accomplish what Wallace had so nobly attempted.

WALLENSTEIN, ALBERT, Duke of Friedland, born in 1583, was the most renowned imperial general in the thirty years' war. He was of a noble family, and greatly increased his wealth and power by marriage. He was assassinated Feb. 25th, 1634, his murderers rewarded by the emperor, and his vast possessions confiscated, upon the ground that he was intriguing to make himself king of Bohemia.

WALLER, EDMUND, an English poet famous in his day, was born in Hertfordshire in 1605, and in his infancy inherited an estate of £3,000 a year. His mother, though a sister of John Hampden, was an ardent royalist, and used to lecture Cromwell for his share in the death of Charles I. Her son was royalist or roundhead, as best served the time. He entered parliament, and wrote his first poem, when he was eighteen. At twenty-five he married a rich London heiress, who died the same year, and the widow at once became a suitor of Lady Dorothea Sidney, eldest daughter of the Earl of Leicester. To this proud and peerless fair one Waller dedicated the better portion of his poetry, and the groves of Penshurst echoed to the praises of his Sacharissa. Lady Dorothea, however, wedded the Earl of Sunderland. Long afterward, when she was far advanced in years, the lady and her former

wooer met. She asked when again he would write such verses upon her. "When you are as young, madam, and as handsome as you were then," said ungallant Waller. The incident gives a key to his character: he was easy, witty, and accomplished, but cold and selfish; destitute alike of high principle and deep feeling. In parliament Waller distinguished himself on the popular side at first, and shortly afterward was detected in intrigues with the cavaliers. He was sentenced to one year's imprisonment and a fine of £10,000. Others implicated lost their lives, and he escaped only through abject submission and cowardly betrayal of the secrets of his friends. At the end of his imprisonment he went abroad, and resided in France with much splendor and hospitality. He returned during the protectorate, and commemorated the death of Cromwell in one of his most vigorous and impressive poems. The restoration soon came, and Waller was ready with a congratulatory address to Charles II. It was considered inferior to the panegyric on Cromwell, and the king, who admitted the poet as one of his intimates, told him of the disparity. "Poets, sire," replied the witty, self-possessed Waller, "succeed better in fiction than in truth." Waller sat in parliament through Charles's reign. At the accession of James, the venerable poet, then eighty years of age, was chosen for a borough in Cornwall. His wariness and sagacity predicted the end of James's mad career. He purchased a little estate at Coleshill, his native place, saying, "he would be glad to die like the stag, where he was roused." The wish was not fulfilled: he died at his residence near Beaconsfield, Oct. 21st, 1687. He continued to write his smooth, elegant, and courtly verse down to the close of life.

WALPOLE, HORACE, third son of the great statesman, was born in 1717. The sinecures conferred upon him by his father enabled him to indulge his natural indolence, and he passed a lounging life, dabbling in literature and art, and gathering antiquarian nicknacks, works of art, rare books, and curious all-sorts, in his "little plaything house" of Strawberry Hill at Twickenham. He was a shrewd and witty observer, and his "Letters" and "Memoirs" furnish sparkling and sarcastic pictures of the men and times of

his day. In 1791 the death of his nephew gave him the earldom of Orford. He died in 1797.

WALPOLE, Sir ROBERT, afterward Earl of Orford, an eminent Whig statesman, was born in 1676. In 1700 he married the daughter of Sir John Shorter, and soon after became member for Castle Rising; but in 1702 he was chosen for King's Lynn, which he represented in several parliaments. In 1708 he was made secretary at war, and the year following treasurer of the navy. He was one of the managers of the trial of Sacheverel; but on the change of ministry, was committed to the Tower, and expelled the house, for breach of trust and corruption. The borough of Lynn, however, re-elected him, and he took an active part against ministers during the remainder of Queen Anne's reign. Early in that of George I. he became prime minister, but some difference arising between him and his colleagues, he resigned, and joined the opposition. In 1720 he accepted the paymaster-ship of the forces, and not long after was appointed first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer. In 1723 he was sworn sole secretary of state. In 1725 he received the order of the Bath, and the year following that of the Garter. He continued in power, though assailed by powerful enemies, till 1742, when he resigned, and was created Earl of Orford. He died in 1745. His brother, HORATIO WALPOLE, Lord Walpole, was born in 1678. He filled several offices under government, and in 1756 was created a peer, but died the year following.

WALSINGHAM, Sir FRANCIS, an English statesman in the reign of Elizabeth, was born in 1536, at Chislehurst, in Kent. In 1573 he was appointed one of the secretaries of state, and knighted. In 1583 he went on an embassy to James, king of Scotland, and three years afterward sat as one of the commissioners on the trial of that monarch's unfortunate mother. Sir Francis was next made chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster; and he was also honored with the order of the Garter. But with all these distinctions and services he died poor, April 6th, 1590, and was buried in St. Paul's.

WALTON, GEORGE, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Fred-

erick county, Virginia, about the year 1740. He was bred a carpenter, but studied law and commenced practice in Georgia. He was sent to congress in 1776 and returned in 1778. He took a prominent part in the affairs of the revolution, was wounded in the defense of Savannah, and made prisoner when it was taken by the British. He was chosen governor of Georgia in 1779, was again sent to congress in 1780, was afterward chief justice, and United States senator in 1795 and 1796. He died at Augusta, Feb. 2d, 1804.

WALTON, IZAAK, the quaint author of "The Complete Angler, or Contemplative Man's Recreation," was a linen-draper in London till the gains of his industry permitted him to leave the town and dwell among the green fields and babbling brooks he loved so well. He wrote a life of Dr. Donne and other biographies, all marked by a simple, touching, and impressive style. He died at Winchester in 1683, in his ninetieth year.

WANDERING JEW. How this most popular legend took its origin, whether from an incident mentioned in some one of the many gospels unaccepted by the church, whether brought from the orient by the crusaders, or invented in the dark ages, is not known. So far back as the year 1000, such a lasting vagabond was said to be talked of; but since 1228 the tradition is known with certainty to have been prevalent; and thus an ancient writer tells it. "The Jews dragged Jesus from the judgment hall, and when he fell upon the threshold, Cartaphilus, or Calaphilus, who was the porter of Pontius Pilate, insolently pushed him, striking him on the back with his fist, and saying to him with a mocking laugh, 'Go faster, Jesus, go faster; why dost thou linger?' Then Jesus looked on him with a frown, and said, 'I go, but thou shalt tarry until I come.' And, indeed, according to the Lord's word, Cartaphilus yet awaits the coming of Jesus Christ. He was about thirty years of age at the period of the Passion; and ever since, whenever he attains the age of a hundred years, he is seized with a strange infirmity, which seems incurable, and ends in a trance; after which he becomes as young again as at the moment of the Passion. After the death of

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the Saviour, Cartaphilus became a Christian, was baptized by the apostle Avanius, and took the name of Joseph. At the present day this Joseph generally resides in the one or other Armenia, and in various lands of the east. He is a man of holy conversation and great piety, speaking little, and never smiling. He perfectly remembers the death and resurrection of Christ."

WARBECK, PERKIN, made his appearance in England, in the reign of Henry VII., and assumed the character of Richard, Duke of York, the younger son of Edward IV., supposed to have been murdered in the Tower, together with his brother, by order of Richard III. His cause was espoused by many persons of rank; Margaret, Duchess of Burgundy, owned him her nephew; and upon landing in Cornwall, he was joined by thousands of adherents. He was captured by Henry VII., confined in the Tower awhile, and eventually hanged, drawn, and quartered, 1499. Henry published an alleged confession of the prisoner, purporting that he was the son of a converted Jew of Tournay; but many have thought him an illegitimate son of Edward IV.

WARBURTON, WILLIAM, a distinguished bishop of the English church, was born at Newark in 1698. He abandoned the law for the church, and rose from obscurity to be Bishop of Gloucester in 1759. His great learning and originality were equaled by his arrogance and indomitable self-will. He wasted his powers in sustaining paradoxes and in ruthless tilts with his contemporaries in letters. His latter years were spent in a melancholy state of mental weakness, caused by grief for the loss of a son, and he died in 1779.

WARD, ARTEMAS, commander at Cambridge when Washington arrived. He was the first of the four major-generals Congress commissioned under Washington, and commanded the right wing during the siege of Boston in 1776, soon after which he resigned. In 1786 he was speaker of the house of representatives of Massachusetts, and was afterward elected to congress. He died at Shrewsbury, Mass., Oct. 28th, 1800, aged seventy-three.

WARREN, JOSEPH, was born at Roxbury, Mass., in 1740, and graduated at Harvard

University in 1759. Having studied medicine he commenced the practice of it in Boston with great success. He was one of the earliest and most earnest patriots in Boston. Four days before the battle of Bunker Hill the provincial congress of Massachusetts gave him a major-general's commission, but in that contest he fought as a volunteer. On the retreat from the redoubt, he was shot in the trenches, and expired, at the age of thirty-five. His death was a severe loss to the cause he so ardently had at heart.

WARSAW, formerly the capital of the kingdom of Poland, on the west bank of the Vistula, contained, in 1851, 164,115 inhabitants. In the war with the Swedes, in the middle of the seventeenth century, Warsaw was occupied by these invaders, who made it the depot of their spoils. When Charles XII. advanced, at a subsequent period, to Warsaw, it surrendered to him without opposition. It was defended by Kosciusko against the Prussians, in 1794, who were obliged to raise the siege. Warsaw at length submitted to Suwarrow and the Russians. On the final partition of Poland, in 1795, this part of the country fell to the share of Prussia, and Warsaw had no other rank than that of a capital of a province, until the end of 1806, when the overthrow of the power of Prussia led to the formation, by Bonaparte, of the independent state called the duchy of Warsaw. It was overrun by the Russians in 1813, and Warsaw became the residence of a Russian viceroy. The Polish revolution commenced here, Nov. 29th, 1830.

WARWICK, RICHARD NEVILLE, Earl of, known by the appellation of the *king-maker*, was one of the most celebrated generals of his age. He put himself at the head of the Yorkists, and gave battle to the Lancastrians at St. Albans, in which he was defeated, in 1461. He afterward harangued the citizens of London, assembled in St. John's Fields, setting forth the title of Edward, the eldest son of the Duke of York, and inveighing against the tyranny and usurpation of the house of Lancaster. After the decisive battle of Towton, and Edward IV. was safely fixed on the throne, Warwick advised him to marry, and with his consent went over to France, to procure Bona of Savoy as queen. But while the earl was hastening the nego-

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tiation in France, the king married Elizabeth Woodville. Having thus given Warwick real cause of offense, he widened the breach, by driving him from the council. Warwick, whose prudence was equal to his bravery, soon made use of both to assist his revenge; and formed such a combination against Edward, that he was, in turn, obliged to fly the kingdom, and Henry VI. was released from prison, to be placed again upon a dangerous throne. A parliament was called, which confirmed Henry's title, with great solemnity, and Warwick was himself received among

the people under the title of the king-maker. Edward, however, did not long remain abroad; and, having made a descent at Ravenspur, in Yorkshire, he proceeded with an increasing army toward London. Nothing remained to Warwick, but to cut short a state of anxious suspense, by hazarding a battle. Edward's fortune prevailed. They met at Barnet, April 14th, 1471, and the Lancastrians were defeated, while Warwick himself, leading a chosen body of troops into the thickest of the fight, fell in the midst of his enemies, covered with wounds.



MOUNT VERNON.

WASHINGTON, GEORGE, the third son of Augustine Washington, was born Feb. 22d, (11th, o.s.), 1732, on the banks of the Potomac, in the county of Westmoreland, Virginia. His father died when he was but eleven years old, and the care of his education devolved upon his mother. That a mother should love such a son as George proved himself to be, and that a son should

love such a mother as Mrs. Washington certainly was, is not at all surprising. From his earliest days she exerted her whole influence to imbue him with a love of "whatever was lovely and of good report," and her exertions were not in vain. How well he repaid her for her care, may be seen in the following incident. When about fourteen years of age he became strongly inclined to go to sea,

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with a view of enlisting in the service of the mother country, at that time engaged in a war with France and Spain. He was resolved to go. Preparation had been made. A midshipman's berth had been procured for him on board a British man-of-war, then lying in sight of Mount Vernon; and even his trunk was on board. When the time arrived that he was to go, he passed into the sitting-room of his mother, to take leave of her. She was sitting in tears. He approached her, and putting his arms about her neck, affectionately kissed her. He was about to bid her farewell; but he hesitated. Her affection and affliction unmanned him. He was young and ambitious; and at that early day the spirit of patriotism, which so nobly characterized him in after life, in respect to his country, was stirring within him. Yet the feelings of his heart were stronger than any other ties; and here, nobly sacrificing his pride and ambition, he relinquished his purpose, and stayed to comfort her who gave him birth.

His brother Lawrence, having married a connection of Lord Fairfax, his lordship gave George Washington, in his sixteenth year, the appointment of surveyor, to examine and survey his broad lands beyond the Blue Ridge. In 1751 he was appointed one of the adjutant-generals of Virginia, with the rank of major. Soon afterward he was sent by the governor of Virginia to carry a letter to the French commander on the Ohio, forbidding his encroachment on the lands belonging to Virginia. The journey was about four hundred miles, half of which lay through a trackless wilderness, inhabited by Indians. He left Williamsburg on the 31st of October, and delivered his letter on the 12th of December. Having received an answer, he set out immediately on his dangerous and toilsome return. The following is his own account of it:—

"As I was uneasy to get back, to make a report of my proceedings to his honor the governor, I determined to prosecute my journey the nearest way, through the woods, and on foot. I took my necessary papers, pulled off my clothes, and tied myself up in a watch-coat. Then, with a gun in my hand, and pack on my back, in which were my papers and provisions, I set out with Mr. Gist, fitted

in the same manner. We fell in with a party of Indians, who had lain in wait for us. One of them fired not fifteen steps off, but fortunately missed; we walked on the remaining part of the night, without making any stop, that we might get the start so far as to be out of the reach of their pursuit the next day, as we were well assured that they would follow our track as soon as it was light. The next day we continued traveling until quite dark and got to the river. We expected to have found the river frozen, but it was not more than fifty yards from each shore. The ice, I suppose, had been broken up, for it was driving in vast quantities. There was no way of getting over but on a raft, which we set about making with one poor hatchet, and finished just after sun-setting: this was one day's work. We got it launched, then went on board of it, and set off; but before we were half-way over, we were jammed in the ice, in such a manner that we expected every moment our raft to sink and ourselves to perish. I put out my setting-pole to endeavor to stop the raft, that the ice might pass by, when the rapidity of the stream threw it with so much violence against the pole, that it jerked me out into ten feet water." At length, on the 16th of January, he arrived at Williamsburg, and delivered the important letter to the governor.

Having been appointed colonel of a regiment raised to defend the rights of the colonists against the encroachments of the French, Washington distinguished himself greatly by his defense of Fort Necessity, although he was finally forced to capitulate. Having resigned his commission, he retired in 1754 to Mount Vernon, on the Potomac, a country-seat which had been bequeathed him by his brother. In 1755 he accepted the invitation of Gen. Braddock to enter his family as a volunteer aid-de-camp, and accompanied him in the memorable and unfortunate expedition to the Ohio, the result of which would probably have been very different from what it was, had Braddock followed the prudent advice of his aid. When the troops fell into the Indian ambuscade, the officers were singled out by their savage foes and deliberately shot, Washington being the only aid that was unwounded, and on him devolved the whole duty of carrying the orders of the com-

mander-in-chief. Though he had two horses killed under him, and four balls through his coat, he escaped unhurt, while every other officer on horseback was either killed or wounded. Dr. Craik, the physician who attended him in his last sickness, was present at this battle, and says, "I expected every moment to see him fall. Nothing but the superintending care of Providence could have saved him from the fate of all around him."

After an action of three hours, the troops gave way in all directions, and Col. Washington and two others brought off the mortally wounded Braddock. Washington attempted to rally the retreating troops; but, as he said himself, it was like attempting to stop the wild bears of the mountains. The conduct of the regular troops was most cowardly. The enemy were few in numbers, and had no expectation of victory. The preservation of Washington during this battle was almost miraculous. He was exposed more than any other officer, and was particularly the object of savage attacks on account of his superior bravery. After the defeat, a famous Indian warrior who acted a distinguished part in that bloody tragedy, was heard to say that Washington was never born to be killed by a bullet; "For," said he, "I had seventeen fair shots at him with my rifle, and yet I could not bring him to the ground."

Washington continued employed in public affairs till the expulsion of the French from the Ohio, and the cessation of hostilities on the part of the Indians. While journeying to Williamsburg in 1758, to transact business with the council, he met his future wife. Irving thus tells the story of the courtship. "In crossing a ferry of the Pamunkey, a branch of York River, he fell in company with a Mr. Chamberlayne, who lived in the neighborhood, and who, in the spirit of Virginian hospitality, claimed him as a guest. It was with difficulty Washington could be prevailed on to halt for dinner, so impatient was he to arrive at Williamsburg, and accomplish his mission. Among the guests at Mr. Chamberlayne's was a young and blooming widow, Mrs. Martha Custis, daughter of Mr. John Dandridge, both patrician names in the province. Her husband, John Parke Custis, had been dead three years, leaving her with two young children and a large fortune.

She is represented as being rather below the middle size, but extremely well shaped, with an agreeable countenance, dark hazel eyes and hair, and those frank, engaging manners, so captivating in Southern women. We are not informed whether Washington had met with her before; probably not during her widowhood, as during that time he had been almost continually on the frontier. We have shown that, with all his gravity and reserve, he was quickly susceptible to female charms, and they may have had a greater effect upon him when thus casually encountered, in fleeting moments snatched from the cares and perplexities and rude scenes of frontier warfare. At any rate, his heart appears to have been taken by surprise. The dinner, which, in those days, was an earlier meal than at present, seemed all too short. The afternoon passed away like a dream. Bishop (the military servant) was punctual to the orders he had received on halting; the horses pawed at the door; but for once Washington loitered in the path of duty. The horses were countermanded, and it was not until the next morning that he was again in the saddle, spurring for Williamsburg. Happily, the White House, the residence of Mrs. Custis, was in New Kent County, at no great distance from that city, so that he had opportunities of visiting her in the intervals of business." They were married on the 6th of January, 1759.

He continued to be an active member of the general assembly, and on the approach of hostilities with Great Britain, was chosen to the first congress. On the 14th of June, 1775, he was chosen commander-in-chief of the armies of the united colonies. He repaired immediately to the head-quarters of the American army at Cambridge, Mass., and having forced the British to evacuate Boston, led his army to New York, where he was doomed to witness the defeat of the Americans on Long Island, on the 27th of August, but his retreat of the army was conducted in a masterly manner. After the battle of White Plains, the prospects of the Americans appeared hopeless, but the successes of Trenton and Princeton inspired the army with fresh courage. By these, Philadelphia was saved, and New Jersey regained. On the 25th of August, 1777 the British for-

WAS

ces under Howe, which had sailed for New York, disembarked at the ferry of Elk River, and on the 10th of September, the battle of Brandywine was fought and the Americans defeated.

Major Ferguson, who commanded a British rifle corps a day or two previous to this battle, was the hero of a very singular adventure which he thus describes in a letter to a friend. "We had not lain long, when a rebel officer, remarkable by a hussar dress, pressed toward our army, within a hundred yards of my right flank, not perceiving us. He was followed by another, dressed in dark green and blue, mounted on a bay horse, with a remarkably high cocked hat. I ordered three good shots to stand near, and fire at them; but the idea disgusting me, I recalled the order. The hussar, in returning, made a circuit, but he passed within a hundred yards of us; upon which I advanced from the woods toward him. Upon my calling, he stopped; but, after looking at me, again proceeded. I again drew his attention, and made signs to him to stop, leveling my piece at him; but he slowly cantered away. By quick firing, I could have lodged half a dozen balls in or about him, before he was out of my reach. I had only to determine; but it was not pleasant to fire at the back of an unoffending individual, who was very coolly acquitting himself of his duty; so I let it alone. The next day, the surgeon told me that the wounded rebel officers informed him that Gen. Washington was all the morning with the light troops, and only attended by a French officer in the hussar dress, he himself dressed and mounted as I have before described. I am not sorry I did not know who it was at the time."

The battle of Brandywine opened the way to Philadelphia for the British, who entered it on the 26th of September. After the unsatisfactory engagement at Germantown, the American troops were quartered for the winter at Valley Forge, where their sufferings were extreme. One day a Quaker by the name of Potts had occasion to go to a certain place, which led him through a large grove at no great distance from headquarters. As he was proceeding along, he thought he heard a noise. He stopped and listened. He did hear the sound of a human voice at

some distance, but quite indistinctly. As it was in the direct course he was pursuing, he went on, but with some caution. At length he came within sight of a man whose back was turned toward him, on his knees, in the attitude of prayer. Potts now stopped, and soon saw Washington himself, the commander of the American armies, returning from bending before the God of hosts above. Potts himself was a pious man, and no sooner had he reached home, than in the fullness of his faith, he broke forth to his wife Sarah: "All's well! all's well! Yes,—George Washington is sure to beat the British—*sure!*"—"What's the matter with thee, Isaac?" replied the startled Sarah. "Thee seems to be much moved about something."—"Well, what if I am moved? Who would not be moved at such a sight as I have seen to-day?"—"And what hast thou seen, Isaac?"—"Seen! I've seen a man at prayer!—in the woods!—George Washington himself! And now I say,—just what I *have* said,—'All's well! George Washington is sure to beat the British!—sure!'"

In June, 1778, the British evacuated Philadelphia, and retreated upon New York closely followed by Washington, who attacked them at Monmouth on the 24th, and fought them with advantage, although without gaining a decided victory. Washington was personally engaged in forming the line of the main body near the court house, and was speaking with Col. Hartley of the Pennsylvania line, when a cannon-ball struck just at his horse's feet, throwing the dirt in his face and over his clothes. The general continued giving orders without noticing the derangement of his toilette. "Never," says Lafayette, "was Gen. Washington greater in war than in this conflict: his presence stopped the retreat, his dispositions fixed the victory. His fine appearance on horseback, his calm courage, roused by the animation produced by the vexation of the morning, gave him the air best calculated to excite enthusiasm."

In 1781 Washington, in conjunction with Count Rochambeau, planned an expedition against New York, which was abandoned with a view of directing their operations to the south. Demonstrations, however, were made against the city, and Sir Henry Clinton was not aware of the change in their inten-

tions. The siege of Yorktown commenced on the 28th of September, and Lord Cornwallis was compelled to surrender after much hard fighting, on the 19th. This was the last action of the war. In the trying times thus crowned by victory, not only did Washington display the qualities of a great and prudent commander, in opposition with the British armies: he had also to contend with turbulence and factions in the American ranks and councils. The intrigues and jealousies of aspiring men often embarrassed his operations, and sometimes impugned his capacity for the post he held. But he rose above them.

If we are called upon to admire the conduct and successes of Washington in action, our admiration is no less due to his behavior in those intervals of repose when the American forces had time to reflect upon their wants, and brood over their supposed grievances. He quelled mutiny, but he pitied the sufferings that produced it; and while he was resolved to enforce subordination, he was no less determined to administer all the comfort which it was in his power to bestow.

On the 25th of November, 1783, Washington made his public entry into the city of New York. On the 4th of December, the principal officers of the army assembled at Fraunces' tavern in that city, to take a final leave of their beloved commander-in-chief. Soon after his excellency entered the room. His emotions overcame his usual self-command. Filling a glass, and turning to them, he said: "With a heart full of love and gratitude, I now take leave of you. I most devoutly wish that your latter days may be as prosperous and happy as your former ones have been glorious and honorable." Having drank, he added, "I can not come to each of you to take my leave, but shall be obliged to you if each of you will come and take me by the hand." General Knox, being nearest, turned to him. Incapable of utterance, Washington in tears grasped his hand, embraced and kissed him. In the same affectionate manner, he took leave of each succeeding officer. Leaving the room, he passed through the corps of light-infantry, and walked to Whitehall ferry, where a barge waited to convey him to Paulus' Hook. The whole company followed in mute and solemn

procession, with dejected countenances, testifying feelings of melancholy which no pen can describe. Having entered the barge, he turned to the company, and waving his hat, he bade them a silent adieu. They paid him the same affectionate compliment, watched the barge till out of sight, and then returned in the same solemn manner, to the place where they had assembled.

On the 23d of December, 1783, Washington resigned his commission to Congress, then sitting at Annapolis. On this interesting and solemn occasion he appeared in the hall of Congress. As he rose to speak, every eye was fixed upon him. He began by expressing his humble joy at the accomplishment of his wishes and exertions, in the independence of his country. Next, he recommended to Congress and to the country the companions of his toils and trials, and concluded as follows: "I consider it an indispensable duty to close this last solemn act of my official life, by commending the interests of our dearest country to the protection of Almighty God, and those who have the superintendence of them to his holy keeping. Having now finished the work assigned me, I retire from the great theatre of action, and, bidding an affectionate farewell to this august body, under whose orders I have long acted, I here offer my commission, and take my leave of all the employments of public life."

Upon accepting his commission, Congress, through their president, expressed in glowing language to Washington their high sense of his wisdom and energy, in conducting the war to so happy a termination, and invoked the choicest blessings on his future life. President Mifflin concluded as follows: "We join you in commending the interests of our dearest country to Almighty God, beseeching him to dispose the hearts and minds of its citizens to improve the opportunity afforded them of becoming a happy and respectable nation. And as for you, we address to him our earnest prayers, that the life so beloved may be fostered with all his care; that your days may be as happy as they have been illustrious; and that he will finally give you that reward which the world can not give."

A profound stillness pervaded the assembly. The grandeur of the scene, the recol-



WASHINGTON'S TOMB.

lection of the past, the felicity of the present, the hopes of the future, crowded fast upon all, while they united in invoking blessings upon the man who, under God, had achieved so much, and who now, in the character of a mere *citizen*, was hastening to a long desired repose, at his seat at Mount Vernon in Virginia. Congress voted the victorious general an equestrian statue, and the legislature of Virginia decreed to him "a statue of the finest marble and best workmanship."

But Washington was not permitted to remain in his dignified retirement; for the nation, aware of the importance of securing his

wisdom and influence, chose him the first president, under the new constitution of 1789. His feelings on this occasion are expressed in a letter to a friend, of which the following is an extract: "I am unwilling in the evening of a life almost consumed in public cares, to quit a peaceful abode for an ocean of difficulties, without the competency of political skill, abilities, and inclination, which are necessary to manage the helm. I am sensible that I am embarking on a hazardous voyage, but what returns will be made Heaven alone can foretell. Integrity and firmness are all I can promise; these, be the voyage long or short, shall never for-

WAS

sake me, although I may be deserted by all men, for of all consolations which are to be derived from these, under any circumstances, the world can not deprive me."

In the first presidency, the door of the president's house gathered but little rust on its hinges, while often was its latch lifted by the "broken soldier." Scarce a day passed that some veteran of the heroic time did not present himself at *head-quarters*. The most battered of these types of the days of privation and trial were "kindly bid to stay," were offered refreshment, and a glass of something to the old general's health, and then dismissed with lighter hearts and heavier pouches.

Throughout the eight years of his presidential career, Washington did nothing to forfeit the esteem of his fellow-citizens, who acknowledged him "first in peace, first in war, and first in the hearts of his countrymen." An Englishman in Philadelphia, speaking of the presidency of Washington, was expressing a desire to see him. While this conversation passed, "There he goes," cried the American, pointing to a tall, erect, dignified personage, passing on the other side of the street. "That General Washington!" exclaimed the Englishman; "where is his guard?" "*Here!*" replied the American, striking on his breast with emphasis.

On Friday, the 13th of December, 1799, exposure to wet produced an inflammatory disorder of the throat, which terminated fatally on the night of Saturday. The deep and wide-spread grief occasioned by this melancholy event, assembled a great concourse of people for the purpose of paying the last tribute of respect to the first of Americans. On Wednesday, the 18th of December, attended by military honors and the ceremonies of religion, his body was deposited in the family vault at Mount Vernon.

So short was his illness, that, at the seat of government, the intelligence of his death preceded that of his indisposition. It was first communicated by a passenger in the stage to an acquaintance whom he met in the street, and the report quickly reached the house of representatives, which was then in session. A solemn silence prevailed for several minutes; Judge Marshall, then a member of the house, stated in his place the mel-

ancholy information which had been received. This information, he said, was not certain, but there was too much reason to believe it true. "After receiving intelligence," he added, "of a national calamity so heavy and afflicting, the house of representatives can be but ill fitted for public business." He therefore moved an adjournment, and the house adjourned.

The expression of Washington's countenance was serious, but very pleasing; his eyes were a mild blue; and the flush of health gave a glow to his cheeks. His step was always firm; but after the toils of the long war, his body was a little bent as he walked, and his once smooth forehead and cheeks were marked with care-worn furrows. General Washington, in the prime of life, stood six feet two inches, and measured precisely six feet when attired for the grave. To a majestic height was added corresponding breadth and firmness; and his whole person was so cast in nature's finest mould, as to resemble the classic remains of ancient statuary, where all the parts contribute to the purity and perfection of the whole. Bred in the vigorous school of the frontier warfare, "the earth his bed, his canopy the heavens," he excelled the hunter and the woodsman in their athletic habits, and in those trials of manhood which distinguished the hardy days of his early life; he was amazingly swift of foot, and could climb the mountain steep, and "not a sob his toil confess."

Bancroft thus sketches the character of Washington: "Courage was so natural to him, that it was hardly spoken of to his praise; no one ever at any moment of his life discovered in him the least shrinking in danger; and he had a hardihood of daring which escaped notice, because it was so enveloped by superior calmness and wisdom. He was as cheerful as he was spirited, frank and communicative in the society of friends, fond of the fox-chase and the dance, often sportive in his letters, and liked a hearty laugh. This joyousness of disposition remained to the last, though the vastness of his responsibilities was soon to take from him the right of displaying the impulsive qualities of his nature, and the weight which he was to bear up was to overlay and repress his gayety and openness.

WAS

"His hand was liberal ; giving quietly and without observation, as though he was ashamed of nothing but being discovered in doing good. He was kindly and compassionate, and of lively sensibility to the sorrows of others ; so that if his country had only needed a victim for its relief, he would have willingly offered himself as a sacrifice. But while he was prodigal of himself, he was considerate for others ; ever parsimonious of the blood of his countrymen. He was prudent in the management of his private affairs, purchased rich lands from the Mohawk valley to the flats of the Kanawha, and improved his fortune by the correctness of his judgment ; but, as a public man, he knew no other aim than the good of his country, and, in the hour of his country's poverty, he refused personal emolument for his service.

"His faculties were so well balanced and combined that his constitution, free from excess, was tempered evenly with all the elements of activity, and his mind resembled a well-ordered commonwealth ; his passions, which had the intensest vigor, owned allegiance to reason ; and, with all the fiery quickness of his spirit, his impetuous and massive will was held in check by consummate judgment. He had in his composition a calm which gave him, in moments of highest excitement, the power of self-control, and enabled him to excel in patience even when he had most cause for disgust. Washington was offered a command when there was little to bring out the unorganized resources of the continent but his own influence, and authority was connected with the people by the most frail, most attenuated, scarcely discernible threads ; yet, vehement as was his nature, inpassioned as was his courage, he so restrained his ardor that he never failed continuously to exert the attracting power of that influence, and never exerted it so sharply as to break its force.

"In secrecy, he was unsurpassed ; but his secrecy had the character of prudent reserve, not of cunning or concealment. His understanding was lucid and his judgment accurate, so that his conduct never betrayed hurry or confusion. No detail was too minute for his personal inquiry and continued supervision ; and, at the same time, he comprehended

events in their widest aspects and relations. He never seemed above the object which engaged his attention, and he was always equal without an effort, to the solution of the highest questions, even when there existed no precedents to guide his decision. In this way, he never drew to himself admiration for the possession of any one quality in excess, never made in council any one suggestion that was sublime but impracticable, never in action took to himself the praise or the blame of undertakings astonishing in conception, but beyond his means of execution. It was the most wonderful accomplishment of this man, that placed upon the largest theatre of events, at the head of the greatest revolution in human affairs, he never failed to observe all that was possible, and at the same time to bound his aspirations by that which was possible.

"A slight tinge in his character perceptible only to the close observer, revealed the region from which he sprung, and he might be described as the best specimen of manhood as developed in the south ; but his qualities were so faultlessly proportioned, that his whole country rather claimed him as its choicest representative, the most complete expression of all its attainments and aspirations. He studied his country and conformed to it. His countrymen felt that he was the best type of America, and rejoiced in it, and were proud of it. They lived in his life, and made his success and his praise their own.

"Profoundly impressed with confidence in God's Providence, and exemplary in his respect for the forms of public worship, no philosopher of the eighteenth century was more firm in the support of freedom of religious opinion ; none more tolerant or more remote from bigotry ; but belief in God, and trust in his overruling power, formed the essence of his character. Divine wisdom not only illumines the spirit,—it inspires the will.

"Washington was a man of action, and not of theory or words ; his creed appears in his life, not in his professions, which burst from him very rarely, and only at those great moments of crisis in the fortunes of his country when earth and heaven seemed actually to meet, and his emotions became too intense for suppression ; but his whole being was one continued act of faith in the

eternal, intelligent, moral order of the universe. Integrity was so completely the law of his nature, that a planet would sooner have shot from its sphere than he have departed from his uprightness, which was so constant that it often seemed to be almost impersonal.

"They say of Giotto, that he introduced goodness into the art of painting: Washington carried it with him into the camp and the cabinet, and established a new criterion of human greatness. The purity of his will confirmed his fortitude; and as he never faltered in his faith in virtue, he stood fast by that which he knew to be just, free from illusions, never dejected by the apprehension of the difficulties and perils that went before him, and drawing the promise of success from the justice of his cause. Hence he was persevering, leaving nothing unfinished; free from all taint of obstinacy in his firmness, seeking and gladly receiving advice, but immovable in his devotedness to right.

"Of a 'retiring modesty and habitual reserve,' his ambition was not more than the consciousness of his power, and was subordinate to his sense of duty; he took the foremost place, for he knew, from inborn magnanimity, that it belonged to him, and he dared not withhold the service required of him; so that, with all his humility, he was by necessity the first, though never for himself or for private ends. He loved fame, the approval of coming generations, the good opinion of his fellow-men of his own time, and he desired to make his conduct coincide with their wishes; but not fear of censure, not the prospect of applause, could tempt him to swerve from rectitude; and the praise which he coveted was the sympathy of that moral sentiment which exists in every human breast, and goes forth only to the welcome of virtue.

"There have been soldiers who have achieved mightier victories in the field, and made conquests more nearly corresponding to the boundlessness of selfish ambition; statesmen who have been connected with more startling upheavals of society; but it is the greatness of Washington, that in public trusts he used power solely for the public good; that he was the life, and moderator, and stay, of the most momentous revolution in human affairs, its moving impulse and its

restraining power. Combining the centripetal and the centrifugal forces in their utmost strength and in perfect relations, with creative grandeur of instinct he held ruin in check, and renewed and perfected the institutions of his country. Finding the colonies disconnected and dependent, he left them such a united and well-ordered commonwealth as no visionary had believed to be possible. So that it has been truly said, 'he was as fortunate as great and good.'

WASHINGTON, WILLIAM AUGUSTINE, a distinguished cavalry officer in the American revolution, was born in Virginia. He distinguished himself particularly at Guilford, and Eutaw, where, however, he was made prisoner, and detained until the close of the war. During the presidency of Adams, General Washington attached his relative to his staff with the rank of brigadier-general. He died March 6th, 1810. He had married a South Carolinian lady to whom he became attached during his captivity, and settled in Charleston.

WATERLOO, BATTLE OF, called by French writers the battle of Mont St. Jean. Waterloo, the village near which it was fought, is in the Belgic province of South Brabant, on the road from Charleroi to Brussels, ten miles from the latter city, at the entrance of the forest of Soignies. The European confederates having outlawed Napoleon by a declaration at Vienna, assembled their forces to invade France by the east and north. A Prussian army of 130,000 was collected at Namur, under Blücher, and an English, Hanoverian, Dutch, and Flemish army of 100,000, under Wellington, in advance of Brussels. To oppose these Napoleon had a force of 120,000. It was his design to attack and defeat them separately, before they could combine. He took possession of Charleroi early in the morning of the 15th of June, 1815. Ney was dispatched with 40,000 men to gain the important position of Quatre-bras, which would have cut off Wellington from Blücher. It was Napoleon's intention to leave a small force behind the intrenchments there, to beat back the Russians, while he destroyed the army of Wellington. The news of the emperor's advance reached Wellington that night amid the gayeties of a ball given by the Duchess of Richmond at Brussels. He

was aware of the importance of Quatre-bras, and before morning his troops had possession of it. All the fierce assaults of Ney the next day could not gain it.

Blucher had left Namur with 80,000 men to join Wellington. Napoleon met him at Ligny on the 16th with 60,000. A desperate conflict lasted all day, and at sunset the French were everywhere victorious. Blucher retreated during the night toward Wavre. Wellington, hearing of this, fell back from Quatre-bras, halted at Waterloo, and anxiously awaited the arrival of Blucher. Napoleon, after dispatching Grouchy to pursue the Prussians, joined with Ney and followed Wellington, reaching Waterloo at nightfall on the 17th. Wellington's army is variously estimated at from 72,000 to 90,000; Napoleon's at from 65,000 to 75,000. Blucher, at Wavre, a few hours' march away, had 72,000. Wellington was admirably posted: the chateau of Hougomont protected his right, acclivities of ground his left and centre, and the great forest of Soignes his rear.

The battle commenced an hour before noon on the 18th, with a bloody attack upon the chateau of Hougomont, and extended to other portions of the field. The carnage was awful. In the afternoon, when the English line was giving way and flying in dismay toward Brussels, Bulow, with the Prussian van-guard, came upon the scene. Ten thousand French beat back this fresh force of thirty thousand, while the emperor continued with lessened numbers his terrible attack upon the English, hoping every moment for the appearance of Grouchy. That general heard the booming of the guns in battle, yet unaccountably refused to stir. Wellington was no less anxious for the arrival of Blucher. As he saw his lines falter, he cried, "Would to Heaven that Blucher or night would come." Blucher came, and the odds of numbers were three to one against the exhausted French. As a last hope Napoleon ordered a charge of the imperial guard; he wished to lead the attack in person, but the entreaties of his officers led him to give place to Ney. All the valor of this renowned and intrepid body could not avail, and it was annihilated before the overwhelming strength of the foe. The French fled in panic, leaving their cannon and baggage, and the Prus-

sians followed in hot pursuit. Cambronne, with a little remnant of the guard, alone covered the flight. When summoned to yield, he answered, "The Guard dies, but never surrenders." And so the Guard died upon the field of Waterloo.

WATT, JAMES, was born at Greenock, Scotland, Jan. 19th, 1736. While yet a boy he got a hint of his great invention as he sat by the fireside and watched the tea-kettle. The improvements which he made in the steam-engine have immortalized him. He died near Birmingham, Aug. 25th, 1819.

WATTES, ISAAC, D.D., was born at Southampton, July 17th, 1674. His parents were remarkable for piety. He was educated among dissenters, and in 1698 was chosen minister by a congregation at Stoke Newington, and afterward by one in Mark Lane, London. Ill health drove him from his post, and in 1712 he was received into the house of a benevolent gentleman of his neighborhood, Sir Thomas Abney, of Abney Park, where he spent all the remainder of his life. There he composed those devotional hymns for which his name is revered by all lovers of Christianity. His treatises on "Logic" and on the "Improvement of the Mind" are cogent in argument and felicitous in illustration. He died Nov. 25th, 1748.

WAYNE, ANTHONY, a general in the American Revolution, born in Chester county, Penn., Jan. 1st, 1745. He was educated at a Philadelphia academy. Having served his country in a civil capacity, he raised a company of volunteers in 1775, and was elected colonel. In the retreat from Canada he behaved with great prudence, and Feb. 12th, 1777, was made brigadier-general by the continental congress. He distinguished himself at the battles of Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth, but his most brilliant service was performed in carrying Stony Point by assault. He was in continual service throughout the war, and in 1792 was appointed by Washington to succeed St. Clair in the command of the army employed against the Indians on the western frontier. Aug. 20th, 1794, he gained a victory near Miami on the lakes, and successfully ended the war by treaty the next year. While returning home from the west, he was seized with the gout, and died in a hut at Presque Isle, on the

shore of Lake Erie, in December, 1796. His reckless daring gained him the name of Mad Antony.

WEBER, CARL VON, a great German composer, the author of "Der Freischütz," "Oberon," &c., was born at Eutin in Holstein, in December, 1786. "Oberon" was composed for the English stage, and was

brought out at Covent Garden, conducted by Weber himself, April 12th, 1826. Symptoms of pulmonary disease soon showed themselves; the health of the talented composer sank rapidly; and his illustrious career closed on the 5th of June, 1826, when he was found lifeless in his bed.



BIRTHPLACE OF WEBSTER.

WEBSTER, DANIEL, was the second son of Ebenezer Webster, of Salisbury, N. H., a captain in the Revolutionary army, and afterward, though not bred to the law, one of the judges of the court of common pleas. He was born in that part of Salisbury now called Boscawen, the 18th of September, 1782. He received his academical education at Exeter and Hanover, graduating at Dartmouth College in 1801, at the age of nineteen. He had scantily replenished his slender exchequer by teaching school during his vacations. After one year's experience as a pedagogue at Fryeburg, Me., he returned home and commenced the study of law. In 1804 he betook himself to Boston, continued his

studies with Christopher Gore, a leading counselor, afterward governor of Massachusetts, and in the following year was admitted to the bar. He returned to Salisbury and began practice. His father strongly urged him to take the clerkship of the court of common pleas, which was tendered for his acceptance. The position was tempting then, but he fortunately persisted in refusing it. After his father's decease in 1807, he removed to Portsmouth, where he made the acquaintance of Dexter, Story, Mason, and others, afterward eminent at the bar and in public life. His abilities soon won him a prominent position in his profession and public esteem; so that in 1812 he was chosen representative

WEB

in congress. He took his seat at the extra session in May, 1813, and on the 10th of June delivered his first speech, on the subject of the orders in council, manifesting clearly the extraordinary powers of mind which were so fully developed in after life.

He was re-elected to congress for the next term. In 1817 he removed to Boston, where for several years he devoted himself assiduously to the practice of his profession, in which he had acquired a high standing. He was a member of the convention which revised the constitution of Massachusetts in 1821, and the next year was elected to congress from the Boston district. His famous speech on Greek independence was delivered in 1823. He was re-elected in 1824 and 1826, and in 1825 delivered the address on laying the corner-stone of the Bunker Hill monument. In 1827 he was chosen to the United States senate, by the legislature of Massachusetts, and in that year uttered his eulogy on Adams and Jefferson. In the senate he at once ranked among the master minds. His memorable speeches in reply to Hayne, in 1830, established undeniably his claim to the highest position among American statesmen.

Mr. Webster continued in the senate till 1841. At the presidential election in 1836, he received the electoral vote of Massachusetts. Upon the accession of General Harrison to the executive chair in 1841, Webster was appointed secretary of state. The sudden death of Gen. Harrison, and the course pursued by his successor, Mr. Tyler, soon caused a disruption of the cabinet, and all the members but Webster resigned. He remained in office, and negotiated the Ashburton treaty in 1842, which settled the vexed question of the north-eastern boundary, and ended a protracted dispute which had threatened war with Great Britain. This accomplished, he retired from the cabinet. In 1845 he was again chosen to the senate, in which he remained till in 1850 he was called by Mr. Fillmore again to the head of the cabinet. In this office he died, at his residence in Marshfield, the 24th of October, 1852.

Such is a meagre outline of the public life of one of the most eminent statesmen of America. As a man he was warmly esteemed and loved by his intimates. His heart was

as deep and strong as was his intellect. He was country-bred, and he never lost his love for nature. He loved out-door and manly sports,—boating, fishing, fowling. He loved New Hampshire's mountain scenery. He had started small and poor, had risen great and high, and honorably had fought his way alone. He was a farmer, and took a countryman's delight in country things,—in loads of hay, in trees, in noble Indian corn, in monstrous swine. He had a patriarch's love of sheep, and choice breeds thereof he had. He took delight in cows—short-horned Durhams, Herefordshires, Ayrshires, Alderneys. He tilted paternal acres with his own oxen. He loved to give the kine fodder. It was pleasant to hear his talk of oxen. And but three days before he left the earth, too ill to visit them, his oxen, lowing, came to see their sick lord, and as he stood in his door, his great cattle were driven up, that he might smell their healthy breath, and look his last on those broad, generous faces that were never false to him. He was a friendly man: all along the shore there were plain men that loved him—whom he also loved; a good neighbor, a good townsman—

“Lofty and sour to those that loved him not,
But to those men that sought him, sweet as summer.”

WEBSTER, NOAH, the great American lexicographer, was born at West Hartford, Conn., Oct. 16th, 1758. He was bred to the bar, and practiced his profession with success, but a great share of his life was devoted to the compilation of his dictionary and other literary avocations. He died at New Haven, May 28th, 1843.

WELLINGTON. ARTHUR WELLESLEY was born at Dangan Castle, county of Meath, Ireland, May 1st, 1769. His father was Lord Mornington, an Irish peer of Norman descent. He was placed at Eton school, and received a military education at the military school of Angers in France. His first active service was seen in 1793, when his regiment (the thirty-third) was ordered against the French in Flanders. Young Wellesley acquitted himself well in the disastrous campaign, and gained the rank of major. In 1799 his regiment was ordered to India, of which empire, his elder brother, the Marquis of Wellesley, was then governor-general. The services he

rendered in the campaigns against Tipoo Saib and the Mahrattas, won him the rank of general. His career in India culminated with his splendid victory at Assaye. He had stormed the strong fortress of Achinednaghur, and came up with the Mahratta army, posted at the village of Assaye. While Gen. Wellesley's force was but a handful of 4,500 men, of whom only 1,700 were Europeans, the Mahrattas were 30,000 strong. His army, moreover, was divided, a half of it marching by another road, separated from his own by a ridge of hills. He, nevertheless, at once threw himself upon the outnumbering foe without awaiting the arrival of the reserve. Such boldness the event proved true wisdom, and his heroism won a brilliant triumph, which materially broke the power of the Mahrattas, and aided in compelling them to make peace. He was made a knight of the order of the Bath, and returned to England in 1805, Sir Arthur Wellesley.

Soon after, he was appointed secretary for Ireland, stipulating that ministerial service should not interfere with his professional duties. The same year (1807) he commanded a division in the Copenhagen expedition under Lord Cathcart. He was not engaged in the siege, but headed a corps detailed to disperse a Danish force that had collected in the rear of the British army on the island of Zealand. He returned to England, after the fall of Copenhagen, and in 1808 was ordered to Portugal. The next year he received the chief command of the army there. His success in the Peninsula is historical. The desperate battle of Talavera, the passage of the Douro, the impregnable lines of Torres Vedras, the terrible contests of Fuentes d'Onore and Albuera, the storming of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz, the severe fight of Salamanca, the decisive victory of Vittoria, the siege of St. Sebastian, the capture of Pampeluna—these are the prominent features of the Peninsular campaigns. Seven of Napoleon's marshals were foiled or defeated there by Wellington—Junot, Soult, Ney, Massena, Mortier, Marmont, and Jourdan. The last of this great series of encounters was fought between Wellington and Soult, at Toulouse, April 10th, 1814, and was won by the former.

When Napoleon returned from Elba, Wel-

lington was appointed to command the army of British, Hanoverians, and Belgians, gathered in the Netherlands to help annihilate the French emperor. The two great generals met on the bloody field of Waterloo, and Napoleon was defeated. Wellington commanded the army of observation which held the frontier fortresses of France for the next three years. The victories he had gained were rewarded by England with munificent donations, and an enumeration of the titles and honors bestowed upon him at home and abroad would fill pages. He was not so successful as a statesman. He was prime-minister from 1828 to 1830. He was again made commander-in-chief, and discharged the duties of that position regularly till his death, which took place at Walmer Castle, Sept. 14th, 1852. The nation gave him a public funeral, and he was interred by the side of Nelson, beneath the great dome of St. Paul's.

The Duke of Wellington was very simple and abstemious in his habits; noted for his punctuality, and rigid observance of duty. The ascendancy he obtained was attested by the frequent familiar mention of him as The Duke, *par excellence*.

WESLEY, CHARLES, was born at Epworth in April, 1708. He was an important coadjutor of his brother John in founding Methodism. He wrote many devotional hymns of great beauty. He died in 1788.

WESLEY, JOHN, came of a clerical stock. The great-grandfather, John Wesley, was a reverend and very learned clergyman in the church of England, who suffered severely for nonconformity in the reign of Charles II.: his wife was a niece of Thomas Fuller, the church historian. Samuel Wesley, the father, was also a clergyman of the Anglican church. John was born at Epworth, Lincolnshire, June 17th, 1703. Under the teachings of his mother his heart was early imbued with piety. At Christ Church college, with his brother Charles and a few other students, he entered upon a strict system of pious study and discipline, which won them the nickname of Methodists. John Wesley was well fitted, by nature and scholastic attainments, to found a new sect. Macaulay says his genius for government was not inferior to that of Richelieu. After officiating a short time as curate to his father, the young enthusiast,

WES

accompanied by Charles, set off on a mission to Georgia, where he remained about two years. Shortly after his return in 1738, he commenced field-preaching, traveling throughout Great Britain and Ireland, and establishing Methodist congregations. Thousands flocked to his standard. For a time he was associated with Whitefield, but they differed upon the doctrine of election, which Wesley rejected, and so they separated.

Wesley continued writing, preaching, and journeying, till he was eighty-eight years of age; his apostolic earnestness and venerable appearance procured for him everywhere profound respect. He had preached about forty thousand sermons and traveled three hundred thousand miles. His useful and laborious career ended on the 2d of March, 1791. His body lay in a kind of state in his chapel at London the day previous to interment, dressed in his clerical habit, with gown, cassock, and band; the old clerical cap on his head, a Bible in one hand, and a white handkerchief in the other. The funeral service was read by one of his old preachers. When he came to that part of the service, "Forasmuch as it hath pleased God to take unto himself the soul of our dear *brother*," his voice changed, and he substituted the word *father*; and the feeling with which he did this was such, that the congregation, who were shedding silent tears, burst at once into loud weeping.

WEST, Sir BENJAMIN, a very eminent painter, born in Pennsylvania, in 1738, of Quaker parentage; went to Rome in 1760, thence to England in 1763, where he became successor to Sir Joshua Reynolds, the president of the Royal Academy; he died in 1820. From 1767 to 1802 his services were almost constantly engrossed by George III. In the latter year, the king's illness lost Sir Benjamin the patronage of the court, and he then commenced his series of great religious pictures. In his historical paintings he sensibly abandoned the absurdity of the Greek and Roman costume, and dressed his heroes in the garb of their day.

WEST POINT, a village of New York, and military post, on the west bank of the Hudson, fifty-three miles above New York. It was the scene of the treachery of Arnold.

During the war of the Revolution it was a

fortress of great importance, as it commanded the river, and prevented communication between Canada and the city of New York. The rocky promontory juts into the stream, impelling the current toward the opposite bank, and reducing the channel to less than half a mile in breadth. This natural formation was eminently favorable to the object of the fortifications erected here. The cliff rises from the river in terraces; upon the third of which, 188 feet above the water, and spreading out into a broad plateau, old Fort Clinton was erected. Upon eminences still higher in the rear, redoubts were erected covering this fort; one of which was Fort Putnam, at the height of 598 feet above the river, the ruins of which are still seen. On Constitution Island, the opposite side of the river, works were also constructed; and a heavy chain, supported by buoys, was stretched across the angle made by the river, forming an effectual bar to the passage of the enemy's ships.

The works were erected in 1778 under the superintendence of Kosciusko, assisted by French engineers. They were completed within a year, and West Point was considered the strongest fortress in the country. After the Revolution they fell into decay. In 1802 the United States established the military academy here.

WEST INDIES, the great Archipelago which lies between North and South America. The richness of their products, the splendor of their tropical vegetation, the beauty of their scenery, their history, and the singular forms of society existing among them, render these islands peculiarly interesting. Nature is not so partial as she seems. For the wealth of soil and clime wherewith she endowed these islands, they have paid heavy taxes in sweeping hurricanes, desolating earthquakes, and terrible volcanic fires. They were the portal through which the Spaniards entered upon the riches of the New World. By the cruelty of the Spanish, the natives were almost utterly exterminated. For about a century and a half they remained in the possession of Spain, though neglected for the more splendid regions of Mexico and Peru. During the seventeenth century the smaller isles became the haunt of desperate outlaws and pirates, the buccaneers, who

waged with success a predatory warfare along the Spanish main; and at the same time England and France, not without concurrence with these adventurers, sought to obtain possession in the archipelago. Before the end of the century, the English were masters of Jamaica, the French held half of St. Domingo, and the two nations had divided between them nearly the whole of the Windward Islands. Other European nations gained a foothold also, and the buccaneers being put down, the isles, with the exception of those held by decayed Spain, rose in cultivation and importance. Slavery has been gradually done away by the various powers, till it only remains on those held by the Spanish.

Various names are given by seamen of different nations to different portions of the archipelago. The Windward Islands are Martinique and those south of it; those between Martinique and Porto Rico are called the Leeward Islands: these two groups, with the islets along the coast of Venezuela, constitute the Lesser Antilles. The most northerly of the Leeward Islands are also known as the Virgin Isles. Porto Rico, St. Domingo, Jamaica, and Cuba are called the Greater Antilles; while outside of these are the great banks on which rest the Lucayas, or Bahamas.

Hayti, or San Domingo, is divided into the independent republics of Hayti and Dominica. Cuba and Porto Rico belong to Spain. Guadaloupe, Martinique, and the north side of St. Martin's are held by the French. The Dutch have the south side of St. Martin's and Curacao; the Danes, Santa Cruz, St. Thomas, and St. John's; the Swedes, St. Bartholomew's. The remainder, Jamaica, Trinidad, Barbadoes, Antigua, &c., are under British rule.

WESTERN EMPIRE. The Roman empire was divided by Valentinian and Valens, of whom the former had the western portion, or Rome, properly so called, A.D. 364. Odoacer, a chief of the Heruli, entered Italy, defeated Orestes, took Rome and Ravenna, deposed Augustulus, and assumed the title of king of Italy, Aug. 23d, which ended the Western empire, 507 years after the battle of Actium, A.D. 476. [See EASTERN EMPIRE.]

EMPERORS.

364. Valentinian, son of Gratian, takes the West-

ern Empire, and his brother Valens, the Eastern Empire.

367. Gratian, a youth, son of Valentinian, made a colleague in the government, by his father.

375. Valentinian II., another son, also very young, is, on the death of his father, associated with his brother in the empire. Gratian is assassinated by his general, Andragathius, in 383: Valentinian murdered by one of his officers, Arbogastes, in 392.

392. Eugenius, a usurper, assumes the imperial dignity: he and Arbogastes are defeated by Theodosius the Great, who becomes sole emperor. Andragathius throws himself into the sea, and Arbogastes dies by his own hand.

395. Honorius, son of Theodosius, reigns, on his father's death, in the West, and his brother, Arcadius, in the East. Honorius dies in 423.

[Usurpation of John, the Notary, who is defeated and slain, near Ravenna.]

425. Valentinian III., son of the Empress Placidia, daughter of Theodosius the Great: murdered at the instance of his successor.

455. Maximus: he marries Eudoxia, widow of Valentinian, who, to avenge the death of her first husband and the guilt of her second, invites the African Vandals into Italy, and Rome is sacked. Maximus stoned to death.

456. Marcus Mœcilius Avitus: forced to resign, and dies in his flight toward the Alps.

457. Julius Valerius Majorianus: murdered at the instance of his minister, Ricimer, who raises

461. Libius Severus to the throne, but holds the supreme power. Severus is poisoned by Ricimer.

465. [Interregnum. Ricimer retains the authority, without assuming the title, of emperor.]

467. Anthemius, chosen by the joint suffrages of the senate and army: murdered by Ricimer, who dies soon after.

472. Flavius Aetius Olybrius: slain by the Goths soon after his accession.

473. Glycerius: forced to abdicate by his successor.

474. Julius Nepos: deposed by his general, Orestes, and retires to Salona.

475. Romulus Augustulus, son of Orestes. Orestes is slain, and the emperor deposed by

476. Odoacer, king of the Heruli, who takes Rome, assumes the style of king of Italy, and completes the fall of the Western Empire.

WESTPHALIA. This duchy belonged, in former times, to the dukes of Saxony. On the secularization of 1802, it was made over to Hesse Darmstadt; and in 1814, was ceded for an equivalent to Prussia. The kingdom of Westphalia, one of the temporary kingdoms of Bonaparte, composed of

conquests from Prussia, Hesse Cassel, Hanover, and the smaller states to the west of the Elbe, was created Dec. 1st, 1807, and Jerome Bonaparte appointed king. Hanover was annexed March 1st, 1810. This kingdom was overturned in 1813.

WESTPHALIA, PEACE OF. Signed at Munster and at Osnaburg, between France, the emperor, and Sweden; Spain continuing the war against France. By this peace the principle of a balance of power in Europe was first recognized; Alsace given to France, and part of Pomerania and some other districts to Sweden; the elector palatine restored to the Lower Palatinate; the civil and political rights of the German states established; and the independence of the Swiss confederation recognized by Germany, Oct. 24th, 1648.

WHIPPLE, WILLIAM, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Kittery, Me., in 1730. After voyaging somewhat, he left the sea, and commenced business as a merchant at Portsmouth, N. H., in 1759. He was an active republican, and in 1776 was elected to Congress. He was brigadier of the state militia in 1777, fought in the battles of Stillwater and Saratoga, and assisted in escorting Burgoyne's captive army toward Boston. He was appointed judge in 1782, and died in November, 1785.

WHITE, HENRY KIRKE, born in Nottingham, Aug. 21st, 1785, died Oct. 19th, 1806. His parents were in humble life. In early childhood he gave promise of genius as a rhymers and a student. At the age of fourteen, he was placed at a stocking loom, but his soaring spirit could not be happy there; to all kinds of trade he had an extreme aversion. His temper and tone of mind at this period, are displayed in an address to Contemplation. About a year after this, he entered upon the study of the law. He applied himself to the study of Latin during his leisure hours, in which language he received only some trifling instruction; yet in ten months he enabled himself to read Horace with facility, and had made some progress in Greek, studying at the same time the Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese languages, in all which he became a tolerable proficient. Chemistry, astronomy, and electricity were among his studies; he paid some

attention to drawing and music, and had a turn for mechanics. His friends procured him a sizarship at Cambridge. Close application to study, and the strivings of a herculean intellect, wore out a constitution naturally feeble. Rigidly correct in morals, and amiable in all the relations of life, his feelings inclined toward deism; but an inquiring mind, open to conviction, could not resist the sublime truths of the Scriptures; he read, and believed, and from this moment religion engaged all his anxiety, as of all concerns the most important. The proofs of his indefatigable industry which his papers evinced, were astonishing; law, electricity, chemistry, the Latin and Greek languages, to the highest branches of critical knowledge, history, chronology, divinity, the Fathers, poetry, tragedies, &c., &c., had been studied, understood, and commented upon, by a youth who died at the age of twenty-one years, though borne down by poverty and ill health.

WHITE FRIARS. These were an order of Carmelite mendicants, who took their name from Mount Carmel, lying south-east of Mount Tabor, in the Holy Land. They pretended that Elijah and Elisha were the founders of their order, and that Pythagoras and the ancient Druids were professors of it. At first they were very rigid in their discipline, but afterward it was moderated, and about the year 1540 divided into two sorts, one following and restoring the ancient severities, and the other the milder regimen. They had numerous monasteries throughout England; and a precinct in London without the Temple, and west of Blackfriars, is called Whitefriars to this day, after a community of their order, founded there in 1245.

WHITE PLAINS, BATTLE OF. After the defeat on Long Island, Washington was compelled to abandon the city of New York to Sir William Howe. Various skirmishes occurred between the British and the gradually retreating Americans. On the 28th of October, 1776, Howe attacked the American camp at White Plains. In the short but severe action the advantage belonged to the British, who gained an eminence overlooking Washington's position. Night came on, and the armies lay within long cannon-shot of each other, anticipating a more deadly conflict on the morrow; before which time Washington

so strengthened his defenses in appearance that Howe dared not attack till Lord Percy should come up with six battalions more. Percy arrived on the thirtieth, but a severe tempest delayed the operations of the British, and in the night of the 31st, Washington decamped to a height five miles off, where he had thrown up stronger works than the redoubts of sods and cornstalks that had so deceived Howe at White Plains; and thus his feeble and shattered army was saved.

WHITEFIELD, GEORGE, founder of the sect of Calvinistic Methodists, born at Gloucester, England, 1714, and died at Newburyport, Mass., 1770, where he lies interred. His eloquence in the pulpit was very remarkable. He was in early life associated with John Wesley, but in after life they were separated by difference of opinion. He visited America seven times, traveling and preaching through nearly all the colonies, and he journeyed also through England, Scotland, and Wales. When his strength began to fail, he put himself on what he termed "short allowance," preaching once only every week-day, and three times on the Sabbath!

WHITFIELD, JAMES, Catholic Archbishop of Baltimore, was born at Liverpool in England on the 3d of November, 1770, and died at Baltimore on the 19th of October, 1834. At the age of seventeen he was bereaved of his father and became the protector of his mother. To assuage her grief, and to restore her sinking health, he accompanied her to Italy. On his return from that country, where he had been for some time engaged in mercantile pursuits, he found himself in France at the time when Napoleon had decreed that every Englishman in France was a prisoner. He spent the greatest part of his exile in Lyons, where he became acquainted with Dr. Marechal, who was then professor of theology in the seminary in that city. The piety of his youth inclined his mind to the sacerdotal state, and he commenced the study of divinity under the direction of his learned and pious friend. He distinguished himself by his solid judgment and persevering industry. In the year 1809 he was ordained priest in the city of Lyons. After the death of his mother, he returned to England, and was employed in the discharge of parochial duties in the town of Crosby.

When Dr. Marechal was elevated to the archiepiscopal see of Baltimore, he wrote to Mr. Whitfield, earnestly soliciting him to give his assistance to the flock which Providence had placed under his charge. He complied with the request, and landed on our shores on the 8th of September, 1817. In 1825 he received the degree of doctor of divinity from the court of Rome. At the death of Archbishop Marechal, his name was on the list which was first sent to Rome to receive the sanction of his holiness, and he was soon after consecrated Archbishop of Baltimore in the cathedral of that city.

WICKLIFFE, or WYCLIFFE, JOHN, a learned ecclesiastic and professor of theology at Balliol College, Oxford, the "morning star of the Reformation," was born at a village of the same name, in Yorkshire, in 1324. He was nominated one of the king's commissioners, to require of the pope that he would not interfere in ecclesiastical benefices. This treaty was carried on at Bruges; but nothing was concluded, upon which the parliament passed an act against the papal usurpations. This encouraged Wickliffe to go on in exposing the corruptions of the church, and the tyranny of the pope, who, in 1377, denounced the reformer as an heretic, and required the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Bishop of London to proceed in judgment upon him. Wickliffe, however, was supported by the Duke of Lancaster (John of Gaunt) and Earl Percy, who appeared with him at St. Paul's, Feb. 19th, 1378. High words ensued on that occasion between the Bishop of London and the temporal lords; in consequence of which, the populace took the bishop's part, and plundered the duke's house in the Savoy. Wickliffe, being thus countenanced at court, undertook a translation of the Scriptures from the Vulgate into English, which work he accomplished, and thereby increased the number of his enemies. In 1381 Wickliffe ventured to attack the doctrine of transubstantiation, in a piece entitled "De Blasphemia," which being condemned at Oxford, he went thither and made a declaration of his faith, and professed his resolution to defend it with his blood. The marriage of Richard II. with Anne of Luxemburg, proved very advantageous to Wickliffe; for she was a most exemplary princess, and a great friend

to scriptural knowledge. By her means the writings of the English reformer were sent to Germany, where they afterward produced an abundant harvest. Wickliffe received a citation from the pope to appear at Rome; but he answered, that "Christ had taught him to obey God rather than man." He died of the palsy, at the rectory of Lutterworth, in 1384. The council of Constance denounced him as a heretic, and decreed that his remains should no longer desecrate consecrated ground. His bones were exhumed and burnt in 1428, therefore, and the ashes thrown into the neighboring brook. Fuller, the church historian, quaintly says: "Thus this brook has conveyed his ashes into Avon, Avon into Severn, Severn into the narrow seas, they into the main ocean, and thus the ashes of Wickliffe are the emblem of his doctrine, which is now dispersed all the world over."

WILBERFORCE, WILLIAM, one of the most celebrated philanthropists of modern times, one whose able, zealous, long continued, and ultimately successful exertions in favor of the abolition of the slave-trade, have given him a high rank among the benefactors of the human race, was born Aug. 24th, 1759, at Hull. He was educated at St. John's College, Cambridge, where he formed an intimacy with William Pitt; was elected a member of parliament for Hull in 1780; for the county of York in 1784; and in 1787, he brought forth a motion for the abolition of the slave trade, and the question, after a long and laborious struggle, was finally carried during the ministry of Mr. Fox, June 10th, 1806. In 1797 Mr. Wilberforce published his celebrated "Practical View of Christianity," a work which has been translated into most European languages, and of which numerous editions have been printed in Great Britain and America. He died in London, July 28th, 1833. His remains were consigned to the sanctuary of the illustrious dead in Westminster Abbey; and his "funeral train included the great and the good of all parties."

WILKES, JOHN, was born in Clerkenwell, London, where his father was a distiller, in 1727. He obtained the rank of colonel of the Buckinghamshire militia, and a seat in parliament for Aylesbury. He conducted the *North Briton*, and for its violent attacks

upon the Earl of Bute's administration, he was expelled from the House of Commons; and convicted in the court of king's bench. Previous to this, however, he had gained a verdict in the common pleas against the secretary of state, for an illegal seizure of his papers by a general warrant. In the mean time, Wilkes incurred another prosecution for printing an obscene poem, called an "Essay on Woman;" and for not appearing to receive judgment, was outlawed. He went to France, where he resided till 1768, when he was elected for Middlesex; but was prevented from taking his seat, and committed to the King's Bench prison, which occasioned dreadful riots in St. George's Fields. Wilkes was again expelled the House of Commons; but was rechosen, and the election as repeatedly declared void. His popularity was now at its height, and a large subscription was made for the payment of his debts. In 1770 he was chosen an alderman of London, and in 1774 lord mayor. The same year he was returned again for Middlesex, when he was permitted to take his seat without farther opposition. In 1779, after three unsuccessful attempts, he was elected chamberlain of London. He died Dec. 26th, 1797. In private character Wilkes was very profligate.

WILLIAM I., King of England, was born in 1027, and though illegitimate, succeeded his father as Duke of Normandy. In 1051 he paid a visit to his kinsman Edward the Confessor, in England. In 1066 he made a claim to the crown of England, invaded England, landed at Pevensey in Sussex, and defeated the English troops at Hastings, Oct. 14th, when Harold was slain. William was crowned at Westminster, Dec. 25th, 1066. In 1072 he repelled the attack of Malcolm, King of Scotland, in Northumberland. In 1086 he invaded France. He soon after fell from his horse, and contracted a rupture: he died at Hermentrude, near Rouen, in Normandy, 1087. He was buried at Caen, and was succeeded in Normandy by his eldest son, Robert, and in England by his second son, William Rufus.

WILLIAM (RUFUS) II. was born in 1057, and crowned at Westminster, Sept. 27th, 1087. William was killed by accident, while hunting in the New Forest, in 1100.

WILLIAM III., Prince of Orange, was the son of William II., Stadtholder of Holland, and of Mary, daughter of Charles I. of England. He was born Nov. 14th, 1650. He wedded his cousin Mary, daughter of James II. His landing at Torbay, Nov. 4th, 1688, marks the epoch of the English revolution. He was crowned with his consort Mary, Feb. 16th, 1689. William, being a Presbyterian, began his reign by repealing those laws that enjoined uniformity of worship; and though he could not entirely succeed, a toleration was granted to such dissenters as should take the oaths of allegiance, and hold no private conventicles. In the mean time, James, whose authority was still acknowledged in Ireland, embarked at Brest for that country, and arrived at Kinsale. He soon made a public entry into Dublin, and was well received. After the unsuccessful siege of Londonderry, his army encountered the royal forces, commanded by William in person, on the banks of the Boyne, in 1690, when the latter gained a splendid victory. After a series of disasters, James died Sept. 16th, 1700. William, in the mean time, became fatigued with opposing the laws which parliament were every day laying around his authority, and thus gave up the contest. He admitted every restraint upon the prerogative in England, upon condition of being properly supplied with the means of humbling the power of France. For the prosecution of the war with France, the nation mortgaged the taxes, and involved themselves in what is now called the national debt. The war with France continued during the greatest part of William's reign, but was at length intermitted by the treaty of Ryswick, in 1697. William was thrown from his horse, Feb. 21st, 1702, when his collar-bone was fractured; and this hastened his dissolution. He died in the following month, of an asthma and fever.

WILLIAM IV., King of England. [*See* HANOVER, HOUSE OF.]

WILLIAMS, OTHO HOLLAND, a brigadier-general in the American army, born in Prince George's County, Maryland, in 1748, and died in July, 1794. He distinguished himself at the battles of Guilford, Hobkirk's Hill, and the Eutaw.

WILLIAMS, ROGER, was born in Wales

in 1598, and having completed his collegiate education at Oxford, took orders in the established church, but soon became a non-conformist, in consequence of which he was obliged to come to America in 1631. His religious principles also drew down upon him the indignation of the authorities of Massachusetts Bay, and he was banished. He settled at Providence, Rhode Island, where he founded a community in which intolerance was unknown. He died in April, 1683.

WILLIAMS, WILLIAM, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Lebanon, Conn., April 8th, 1731, and was educated at Harvard College. He prepared for the ministry, but preferring a military life, engaged in the frontier wars in New York in 1755. He was chosen to the continental congress from Connecticut in 1776, was an active member, and retired from public life in 1804. His death occurred Aug. 2d, 1811.

WILSON, ALEXANDER, a distinguished naturalist; author of the "American Ornithology;" he died in 1813, aged about forty. He was born at Paisley, Scotland, 1766.

WILSON, JAMES, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, born in Scotland about 1742, and educated at Edinburgh, came to America in 1766. He was at first tutor in the college at Philadelphia, studied law, and practiced in that city. He was a member of congress, 1775-78, 1782-1783, and 1785-1787. He was also member of the convention that framed the federal constitution, and chairman of the committee which reported it. Upon the organization of the judiciary in 1789, Mr. Wilson was appointed one of the justices of the supreme court of the United States. He died August 28th, 1798.

WILSON, JOHN, was a native of Paisley, where he was born on the 19th of May, 1785. In youth he was given to adventurous excursions among the mountains and glens of his native land, and he early came to a great skill in all athletic sports,—in leaping, wrestling, curling, boxing, running, and swimming. His passionate love for these, and all rural sports and bodily exercise, lasted through his life. He was an excellent scholar, withal, and after a sound preliminary course at the university of Glasgow, he became a gentleman com-

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moner of Magdalen, Oxford. Then he purchased the beautiful little demesne of Elle-ray, on the shores of Windermere, and went there to reside. He married—built a house and a yacht—enjoyed the magnificent scenery of the lakes—wrote poetry—and tasted the happy days that belong to a man with youth, robust health, fortune, and an exhaustless imagination. Reverses came, and after entering the Scottish bar, he obtained the chair of moral philosophy at Edinburgh. He was the leading contributor to *Blackwood's Magazine*, in whose pages he poured forth a flood of fancy, humor, learning, and eloquence, like the rush of mighty waters. At last, after a companionship of thirty years, his gentle wife died, and he was almost overpowered. The first time he met his class in the university, after this event, he apologized in a broken voice for not having examined the essays before him: "I could not see to read them in the darkness of the shadow of the valley of death." The tears rolled down his cheeks; he said no more, but waved his hand to the class, who had risen to their feet, and hurried from the room. In 1851 he was smitten with paralysis of the lower limbs. He died April 3d. 1854.

The physique of Wilson was striking. He was stout, tall, athletic, with broad shoulders and chest, and prodigiously muscular limbs. His face was magnificent; his hair, which he wore long and flowing, fell round his massive features like a lion's mane, to which, indeed, it was often compared, being much of the same hue. His lips were always working, while his gray flashing eyes had a weird sort of look which was highly characteristic. The splendor of his varied genius was rivaled by his warmth of heart for all that was generous and good and sacred. He was loved by all men who came within the charm of his presence.

WINDER, WILLIAM H., an eminent lawyer of Maryland, brigadier-general in the army of the United States during the second war with Great Britain, died in 1824.

WINTHROP, JOHN, first governor of Massachusetts, immigrated with the first colonists, and died in 1649, aged sixty-two.

WINTHROP, JOHN, son of the preceding, governor of the colony of Connecticut, died in 1676, aged forty-three. He was a man of

great learning and talents, and fellow of the Royal Society of London, of which he was one of the founders.

WINTHROP, FITZ JOHN, son of the preceding, and distinguished like his father, for learning and piety; governor of Connecticut; died in 1707.

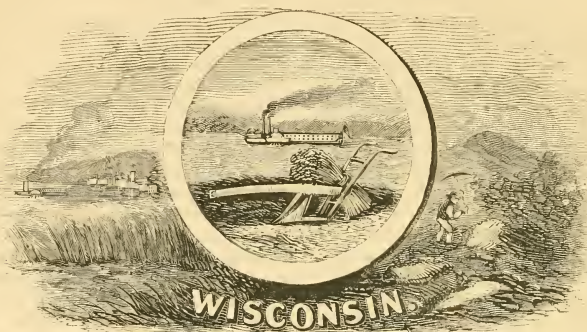
WIRT, WILLIAM, was born at Bladensburg, Md., on the 8th of November, 1772, and was the youngest of six children. In 1795 he married the eldest daughter of Dr. George Gilmer, a distinguished physician, and took up his residence at Pen Park, the seat of his father-in-law, near Charlottesville, where he was introduced to the acquaintance of Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, and other persons of celebrity. He contracted habits of great dissipation, from which he is said to have been recovered by a sermon which he heard from a blind preacher, James Waddell, whom he has celebrated in his "British Spy." In 1799 his wife died. He was, in 1802, appointed chancellor of the eastern district of Virginia, and then took up his residence at Williamsburg; and in the same year he married the daughter of Colonel Gamble of Richmond. He soon after resigned his chancellorship, and at the close of the year 1803, removed to Norfolk, and entered upon the assiduous practice of his profession. Just before he removed to Norfolk, he wrote the letters published in the *Richmond Argus*, under the title of "The British Spy," which were afterward collected into a small volume, and have passed through many editions. In 1806 he took up his residence at Richmond, and, in the following year, he greatly distinguished himself in the trial of Col. Burr. In 1812 he wrote the greater part of a series of essays, which were originally published in the *Richmond Enquirer* under the title of "The Old Bachelor." The "Life of Patrick Henry," his largest literary production, was first published in 1817.

In 1816 he was appointed by Mr. Madison the United States' attorney for the district of Virginia; and in 1817, by Mr. Monroe, attorney-general of the United States, a post which he occupied with distinguished reputation till 1829, through the entire administrations of Monroe and Adams. In 1830 he took up his residence at Baltimore, for the remainder of his life. As a public and pro-

fessional man, Mr. Wirt ranked among the first of his time. He died at Washington, Feb. 18th, 1835, aged sixty-two.

WIRTEMBERG, a mountainous kingdom in the western part of Germany, containing 1,800,000 inhabitants, on a mountainous area of 7,500 square miles. In the wars of the French revolution, Wirtemberg was repeatedly traversed by the hostile armies; its territory was, in 1796, the ground chosen for conflicts in the advance, as well as in the celebrated retreat, of Moreau. In 1799 it was the scene of the defeat of the French

under Jourdan; in 1800 of their renewed success under Moreau. This is one of the most ancient states of Germany, and most populous for its extent. The dukes were Protestants until 1772, when the reigning prince became a Roman Catholic. The Elector of Wirtemberg assumed the title of king, Dec. 12th, 1805, and was proclaimed Jan. 1st, 1806. His majesty, as an ally of France, lost the flower of his army in Russia, in 1812. The kingdom obtained a free constitution in 1819 from William I.



WISCONSIN, whose area extends over 53,924 square miles, contained in 1860, 775,881 inhabitants. The northern part having never been fully explored, excepting by traders and trappers, is consequently but little known. It is, however, represented as a rugged and mountainous wilderness, though frequently presenting large tracts of extraordinary fertility, and watered by numerous broad and rapid streams. The surface, in the southern part, consists mostly of prairie land, well timbered along the river sides; in the central part of the state, the face of the country is more diversified. The rough and hilly tracts at the north produce the white pine in great abundance. The entire region is bountifully supplied with navigable streams, by which it is penetrated in all directions. The soil is generally of an excellent quality, and varies from one to ten feet in depth. It is especially productive on

the margins of the Mississippi and Wisconsin Rivers, where also are found extensive forests of ponderous timber: and the land throughout the state, so far as it has been surveyed, proves to be admirably adapted to agricultural purposes, particularly to the growth of corn and wheat. Indeed, every species of vegetable suited to the climate can be cultivated with perfect success; and multitudes of cattle may find ample pasturage upon the rich and almost boundless prairies. The lead, copper, and iron ores of Wisconsin are of great importance; the lead mines the richest in the world. Its position on the lakes and on the Mississippi, gives it excellent facilities for inland trade, and its prosperity, population, and power are advancing at a rapid pace.

Wisconsin was organized as a distinct territory in 1836. Iowa and Minnesota have since been cut from within the bounds then

set to it. It was admitted into the Union in 1848.

Madison, the capital, occupies a picturesque site between two small lakes. When Wisconsin was organized as a territory, this was selected as the seat of government; the contractor for erecting the necessary buildings was, with his party, eleven days in cutting his way through the wilderness from Milwaukee. The city of Milwaukee, on Lake Michigan, has had a very rapid growth. It was laid out in 1835, had a population of 1,712 in 1840, and in 1860, 45,246. It is the chief town in the state, has an extensive commerce, and busy manufactories, and is the natural outlet of one of the finest grain regions in the country. The cream-colored brick of which the town is so largely built, give it a peculiarly bright and handsome look. Beloit, Janesville, Kenosha, and Racine are important towns, with that peculiarity of Western cities, that their growth will not stop long enough to be chronicled.

WITHERSPOON, JOHN, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Yester, near Edinburgh, Feb. 5th, 1722, and was a descendant of John Knox. He came to America in 1768, to take charge of the college at Princeton, N. J.; became very popular as a Christian divine and patriot; and in 1776 was elected a member of Congress, at which post he continued till 1783. He afterward resumed his duties at Princeton, and died Nov. 15th, 1794.

WOLCOTT, OLIVER, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born Dec. 1st, 1726, at East Windsor, Conn., graduated at Yale College, and studied medicine, but never practiced it; became a successful lawyer. During the French war he served as captain. He was delegate to the congresses of 1776, 1778, 1780, and 1784. He was an active patriot and an ardent friend of the proposition for independence. He served at the head of a volunteer corps in the army which forced Burgoyne to surrender. After serving ten years as lieutenant-governor, he was chosen governor of Connecticut. He died Dec. 1st, 1797.

WOLCOTT, OLIVER, son of the preceding, succeeded Hamilton as secretary of the treasury during Washington's administration. After residing some years in New York, he

returned to Connecticut and in 1817 was chosen governor, which office he held ten years. He died in 1833, aged seventy-four.

WOLFE, JAMES, was the son of Lieutenant-general Edward Wolfe, born at Westerham, in Kent, in 1726. He entered early into the army, and before he was twenty, distinguished himself at the battle of Lafeldt. At that of Minden he gained additional laurels, as he afterward did in leading the expedition that besieged Louisburg, whence he had but just returned, when he was appointed to command the hazardous expedition against Quebec. As soon as the St. Lawrence was clear of ice in 1759, he was to ascend the river in a fleet of ships of war, with 8,000 men, and lay siege to the city.

Wolfe came up the St. Lawrence in June; his troops disembarked on the fertile Isle of Orleans, below Quebec. The strong citadel they were to attack was commanded by the Marquis of Montcalm, a brave and vigilant officer. Anxious for a decisive action, Wolfe changed his position to the lower side of the Montmorency. That tumultuous stream ran between him and the French camp; at both the fords Montcalm had thrown up breast-works and posted troops. An attack upon the French position met a severe check. Wolfe's nature was extremely sensitive, and the acute mortification threw him into a fever which kept him from the field. On his bed he changed his plan of operations, and resolved upon an attempt above the town, though the shore was an almost inaccessible cliff. The camp at Montmorency was accordingly broken up, the troops transported to Point Levi, and suitable measures taken to deceive the French as to the object of the movement.

The eventful night of the 12th of September, 1759, was clear and calm, with no light but that of the stars. Within two hours before daybreak, thirty boats, crowded with sixteen hundred soldiers, cast off from the vessels, and floated downward, in perfect order, with the current of the ebb tide. To the boundless joy of the army, Wolfe's malady had abated, and he was able to command in person. His ruined health, the gloomy prospects of the siege, and the disaster at Montmorency, had oppressed him with the deepest melancholy, but never impaired for

a moment the promptness of his decisions or the impetuous energy of his action. He sat in the stern of one of the boats, pale and weak, but borne up to a calm height of resolution. Every order had been given, every arrangement made, and it only remained to face the issue. The ebbing tide sufficed to bear the boats along, and nothing broke the silence of the night but the gurgling of the river, and the low voice of Wolfe, as he repeated to the officers about him the stanzas of Gray's "Elegy in a Country Churchyard," which had recently appeared, and which he had just received from England. Perhaps, as he uttered those strangely appropriate words,—

"The paths of glory lead but to the grave,"

the shadows of his own approaching fate stole with mournful prophecy across his mind. "Gentlemen," he said, as he closed the recital, "I would rather have written those lines than take Quebec to-morrow."

They reached the selected landing-place in safety—an indentation in the shore about a league from the city, and now bearing the name of Wolfe's Cove. Here a narrow path led up the face of the heights, and a French guard was posted at the top to defend the pass. By the force of the currents, the foremost boats, including that which carried Wolfe himself, were borne a little below the spot. The general was one of the first on shore. He looked up at the rugged heights that towered above him in the gloom. "You can try it," he coolly observed to an officer near him; "but I don't think you'll get up."

At the point where the Highlanders landed, one of their captains, Donald Macdonald, was climbing in advance of his men, when he was challenged by a sentinel. He replied in French, by declaring that he had been sent to relieve the guard, and ordering the soldier to withdraw. Before the latter was undeceived, a crowd of Highlanders were close at hand, while the steps below were thronged with eager climbers, dragging themselves up by trees, roots, and bushes. The guard turned out, and made a brief though brave resistance. In a moment they were cut to pieces, dispersed, or made prisoners; while men after men came swarming up the height, and quickly formed upon the plains above. Meanwhile the vessels had dropped down-

ward with the current, and anchored opposite the landing-place. The remaining troops were disembarked, and with the dawn of day the whole were brought in safety to the shore.

The sun rose, and from the ramparts of Quebec the astonished people saw the plains of Abraham glittering with arms, and the dark red lines of the English forming in array of battle. Montcalm hastened to repel the unexpected attack. At nine o'clock the adverse armies stood motionless, each gazing on the other. The clouds hung low, and at intervals, warm, light showers descended, sprinkling both alike. The coppice and corn-fields in front of the British troops were filled with French sharp-shooters, who kept up a distant spattering fire. Here and there a soldier fell in the ranks, and the gap was filled in silence.

At a little before ten, the British could see that Montcalm was preparing to advance, and in a few moments all his troops appeared in rapid motion. They came on in three divisions, shouting after the manner of their nation, and firing heavily as soon as they came within range. In the British ranks, not a trigger was pulled, not a soldier stirred; and their ominous composure seemed to damp the spirits of the assailants. It was not till the French were within forty yards that the fatal word was given. At once, from end to end of the British line, the muskets rose to the level, as if with the sway of some great machine, and the whole blazed forth at once in one crashing explosion. Like a ship at full career arrested with sudden ruin on a sunken rock, the columns of Montcalm staggered, shivered, and broke before that wasting storm of lead. The smoke, rolling along the field, for a moment shut out the view; but when the white wreaths were scattered on the wind, a wretched spectacle was disclosed—men and officers tumbled in heaps, columns resolved into a mob, order and obedience gone; and when the British muskets were leveled for a second volley, the masses were seen to cower and shrink with uncontrollable panic.

For a few minutes, the French regulars stood their ground, returning a sharp and not ineffectual fire. But now, echoing cheer on cheer, redoubling volley on volley, trampling

the dying and the dead, and driving the fugitives in crowds, the British troops advanced, and swept the field before them. The ardor of the men burst all restraint. They broke into a run, and with unsparing slaughter chased the flying multitude to the very gates of Quebec. Foremost of all, the light-footed Highlanders dashed along in furious pursuit, hewing down the Frenchmen with their broadswords, and slaying many in the very ditch of the fortifications. Never was victory more quick or more decisive.

In the short action and pursuit, the Frenchmen lost fifteen hundred men, killed, wounded, and taken. Of the remainder, some escaped within the city, and others fled across the St. Charles, to rejoin their comrades who had been left to guard the camp. The pursuers were recalled by sound of trumpet; the broken ranks were formed afresh, and the English troops withdrawn beyond reach of the cannon of Quebec. Bougainville, with his detachment, arrived from the upper country, and hovering about their rear, threatened an attack; but when he saw what greeting was prepared for him, he abandoned his purpose, and withdrew. Townsend and Murray, the only general officers who remained unhurt, passed to the head of every regiment in turn, and thanked the soldiers for the bravery they had shown: yet the triumph of the victors was mingled with sadness, as the tidings went from rank to rank that Wolfe had fallen.

In the heat of the action, as he advanced at the head of the grenadiers of Louisburg, a bullet shattered his wrist; but he wrapped his handkerchief about the wound, and showed no sign of pain. A moment more, and a ball pierced his side. Still he pressed forward, waving his sword and cheering his soldiers to the attack, when a third shot lodged deep within his breast. He paused, reeled, and staggering to one side, fell to the earth. Brown, a lieutenant of the grenadiers, Henderson, a volunteer, an officer of artillery, and a private soldier, raised him together in their arms, and bearing him to the rear, laid him softly on the grass. They asked him if he would have a surgeon; but he shook his head, and answered that all was over with him. His eyes closed with the torpor of approaching death, and those around sustained his fainting form. Yet they could not with-

hold their gaze from the wild turmoil before them, and the charging ranks of their companions rushing through fire and smoke. "They run! they run! see how they run," one of the officers exclaimed, as the French fled in confusion before the leveled bayonets. "Who run?" demanded Wolfe, opening his eyes like a man aroused from sleep. "The enemy, sir," was the reply; "they give way everywhere." The spirit of the expiring hero flashed up. "Go, one of you, my lads, tell Colonel Burton to march Webb's regiment with all speed down to Charles River, to cut off their retreat by the bridge. Now, God be praised, I will die in peace," he murmured; and turning on his side, he calmly breathed his last, Sept. 13th, 1759.

WOLSEY, THOMAS, a cardinal and statesman, was born in 1471 at Ipswich, where his father was a butcher. In 1508, being then chaplain to Henry VII., he was made Dean of Lincoln; and in the next reign he gained an absolute ascendancy over the young monarch by flattering his passions and sharing in his amusements. He was accordingly made almoner to the king, a privy councilor, Canon of Windsor, registrar of the garter, and Dean of York. Soon after this accumulation of honors, he was appointed chancellor of the garter, and rewarded with the grant of the revenues of the bishopric of Tournay in Flanders. In 1514 he was consecrated Bishop of Lincoln, and within a few months afterward was elevated to the see of York and the dignity of a cardinal. In 1516 he was appointed legate with the fullest powers, and at the same time was made lord chancellor. In 1519 he obtained the temporalities of the see of Bath and Wells, to which were added those of Worcester and Hereford, with the rich abbey of St. Alban's. Wolsey now aspired to the papacy, and on being disappointed of it, received, as a compensation from the Emperor Charles V., a pension of nine thousand crowns of gold, while his own sovereign gave him the bishopric of Durham. On the death of Adrian VI. he made another effort to gain the tiara, but without success. In 1528 he exchanged Durham for Winchester; but a cloud now arose, occasioned by the king's dissatisfaction with his conduct in the business of the divorce. Accordingly while the cardinal sat in the court of chancery, an

indictment was preferred against him in the king's bench, on the statute of provisos, in consequence of which the great seal was taken from him, all his goods were seized, and articles of impeachment were soon exhibited in parliament. The prosecution, however, was stayed, and he received the king's pardon; but while he was endeavoring to reconcile himself to his fallen state at Cawood Castle, his capricious master caused him to be arrested for high treason, and hurried from Yorkshire toward London. The agitation and fatigue brought on a disorder, of which he died at the abbey of Leicester, Nov. 28th, 1530.

All who know anything of his history, know that he was proud and ostentatious,

and accustomed to the use of gorgeous costume, in which he piqued himself in outshining all the other courtiers of Henry VIII. One day, a prodigal nobleman, who was deeply in debt, and paid nobody, came into court in a dress, the splendor of which outshone that of Wolsey, who being piqued, addressed the nobleman, and said, "My lord, it would be more commendable in you to pay your debts, than to lavish so much money on your dress." "May it please your reverence," replied the nobleman, "you are perfectly right; I humbly thank you for the hint, and now make a beginning to show how I value your kind admonition. My father owed your deceased father a groat for a calf's head: here is sixpence—let me have the change."



THE SPHINX AND PYRAMIDS.

WONDERS OF THE WORLD, so called by the ancients, were seven in number. 1. The Pyramids of Egypt, celebrated from antiquity as most stupendous monuments of art. Such superb piles are to be found nowhere but in Egypt. Pyramids elsewhere are puerile and diminutive imitations of these

in Egypt, rather than attempts at a similar magnificence. The three most famous stand on the west bank of the Nile at Gizeh, not far from the site of the ancient Memphis. The largest, that of Cheops, is four hundred and sixty-one feet in height, and the length of its base is four hundred and seventy-six

feet. It covers eleven acres of ground, and is constructed of such huge blocks of stone, that a more marvelous achievement of human labor has not been found on the earth. These vast piles were erected for sepulchral and religious purposes. 2. The tomb built for Mausolus, king of Caria, by Artemisia, his queen. He was the own brother of Artemisia, and famous for his personal beauty. So fond was she, that at his death she drank in her liquor the ashes of his incremated body, and erected to his memory a monument of great grandeur and magnificence. This monument she called *Mausoleum*, a name since given to tombs of unusual splendor. She summoned all the poets and bards of the time, and offered a reward to him who composed the best elegiac panegyric upon her husband. Theopompus won the prize, 357 B.C. 3. The temple of Diana at Ephesus. This superb edifice was built at the common charge of all the Asiatic states. Pliny says that two hundred and twenty years were employed in its completion. Its riches were immense. It was four hundred and twenty-five feet long, two hundred and twenty-five feet broad, and was supported by one hundred and twenty-seven columns of Parian marble (sixty feet high and each weighing a hundred and fifty tons), furnished by as many kings. On the night of Alexander's nativity, 356 B.C., it was fired by an obscure rascal named Eratosthratus, who confessed that his sole motive was a desire to transmit his name to future ages. The temple was rebuilt, and again burnt by the Goths in their naval invasion, A.D. 256. 4. The walls and hanging gardens of Babylon. Where now is desolate ruin, once stood the most magnificent city in the ancient world, Babylon the Great. The hanging gardens are described as having been of a square form, and in terraces one above another until they rose as high as the walls of the city, the ascent being from terrace to terrace by steps. The whole pile was sustained by vast arches raised on other arches; and on the top were flat stones closely cemented together with plaster of bitumen, and that covered with sheets of lead, upon which lay the mould of the garden, where there were large trees, shrubs, and flowers, with various sorts of vegetables. There were five of these gardens, each containing about four acres. 5. The Colossus

at Rhodes. This was a brazen statue of Apollo, seventy cubits high, erected in honor of the sun, and built in twelve years by Chares of Lindus, a pupil of Lysippus, 290 B.C. The figure stood on two moles, some say straddling the entrance to the harbor, so that a vessel in full sail could enter beneath. A winding staircase ran to the top, from which could be seen the shores of Syria and sails on the coast of Egypt. An earthquake laid the Colossus low, 224 B.C.; an oracle forbade its restoration; and it was finally destroyed by the Saracens, A.D. 672. 6. The statue of Jupiter at Olympia in Elis, sculptured in ivory and gold by Phidias, the most eminent statuary among the ancients, 433 B.C. The Elians accused the artist of 'cabbaging' the costly materials they furnished him, and threw him into prison, where he died. Time proved the accusation false, and in expiation the charge of the great image was given as an heir-loom to the descendants of Phidias. Six hundred years afterward his posterity still had the care of it. The Olympian Jupiter adorned Elis for about eight centuries; it was then removed to Constantinople, by the Emperor Theodosius, and was either lost at sea, or destroyed in the fire of the Laudeion, A.D. 475. 7. The Pharos or watch-tower at Alexandria, erected by order of Ptolemy Philadelphus, about 280 B.C. It was built of white marble, and could be seen at the distance of a hundred miles. Fires were constantly kept on the top, to direct sailors in the bay. The building of this tower cost 800 talents, which are equivalent to above \$825,000, if Attic, or if Alexandrian, double that sum. There was this inscription upon it: "King Ptolemy to the gods, the saviors, for the benefit of sailors;" but Sostratus, the architect, wishing to claim all the glory, engraved his own name upon the stones, and afterward filled the hollow with mortar, and wrote the above inscription. When the mortar had decayed by time, Ptolemy's name disappeared, and the following inscription then became visible: "Sostratus the Cnidian, son of Dexiphanes, to the gods, the saviors, for the benefit of sailors."

WOODWORTH, SAMUEL, the author of "The Old Oaken Bucket," died at New York in 1842, aged fifty-seven. He was a printer,

and served his apprenticeship at Boston, in the office of Major Russell, the publisher of the *Centinel*. The beautiful and popular ballad for which he is best known, is said to have had its origin under the following circumstances. He was employed in an office on the corner of Chestnut and Chambers streets in New York. One day, with a knot of brother typos, he dropped in at an establishment kept by Mallory, on Franklin street, for the purpose of taking "some brandy and water," which Mallory was famous for keeping. The liquor was excellent, and Woodworth seemed inspired by it; for, after taking a draught, he set his glass upon the table, and snacking his lips, declared that Mallory's *eau de vie* was superior to anything he ever tasted. "No," said a comrade, "you are quite mistaken; there was one thing which, in both our estimations, far surpassed this, in the way of drinking." "What was that?" asked Woodworth dubiously. "The draught of pure, fresh spring-water that we used to drink from the *old oaken bucket* that hung in the well, after our return from the labors of the field on a sultry day in summer." The tear-drop glistened for a moment in Woodworth's eye. "True! true!" he replied, and soon after quitted the place. He returned to the office, grasped the pen, and in half an hour "*The Old Oaken Bucket*," one of the most delightful compositions in our language, was ready, in manuscript, to be embalmed in the memories of succeeding generations.

How dear to this heart are the scenes of my childhood,

When fond recollection presents them to view!
The orchard, the meadow, the deep-tangled wild wood,

And every loved spot which my infancy knew;
The wide-spreading pond, and the mill that stood by it,

The bridge and the rock where the cataract fell,
The cot of my father, the dairy-house nigh it,
And e'en the rude bucket that hung in the well!

The old oaken bucket, the iron-bound bucket,
The moss-covered bucket that hung in the well.

That moss-covered vessel I hailed as a treasure;

For often at noon, when returned from the field,
I found it a source of an exquisite pleasure,

The purest and sweetest that nature can yield.
How ardent I seized it, with hands that were glowing,

And quick to the white pebbled bottom it fell,
Then soon with the emblem of Truth overflowing,
And dripping with coolness, it rose from the well;

The old oaken bucket, the iron-bound bucket,
The moss-covered bucket arose from the well.

How sweet from the green mossy brim to receive it,

As poised on the curb it inclined to my lips!

Not a full blushing goblet could tempt me to leave it,

Though filled with the nectar the fabled god sips.

And now far removed from the loved situation,

The tear of regret will intrusively swell,

As fancy reverts to my father's plantation,

And sighs for the bucket that hung in the well,

The old oaken bucket, the iron-bound bucket,

The moss-covered bucket which hangs in the well.

WOOSTER, DAVID, was born in Stratford, Conn., March 2d, 1711, and was educated at Yale. He served as a captain at the taking of Louisburg, and in the next French war rose to the rank of colonel. At the opening of the Revolution he was appointed brigadier-general, and served with distinction in Canada. He was mortally wounded in repelling the foray of the British upon Fairfield, Conn., in 1777.

WORCESTER, the chief town of Worcestershire, England. It suffered much during the wars between the houses of York and Lancaster; but the most remarkable event here was the famous battle between the English army under Cromwell, and the Scotch in the cause of Charles II., Sept. 3d, 1651; when the royalists had 2,000 killed and 8,000 taken prisoners, most of whom were sold as slaves to the American colonies.

WORDSWORTH, WILLIAM, the greatest philosophical poet of England in the present century, was born at Cocker-mouth in Cumberland, April 7th, 1770, and educated at the university at Cambridge. His parents designed him for the church, but poetry and new prospects turned him into another path. The worship of the muses was almost his only business through life. Coleridge and he became acquainted in 1796, and soon ripened into warm friends, and in 1798 the two poets, accompanied by Miss Wordsworth, made a tour in Germany. In 1803 he married Miss Mary Hutchinson, his cousin, and settled down among his beloved lakes, first at Grasmere, and afterward at Rydal Mount. Various handsome bequests were bestowed upon him, and influential friends soon procured for him the easy and lucrative situation of stamp distributor for the counties of Cumberland and Westmoreland, a post that left the greater part of his time at his own disposal, and which he held till 1842, when he resigned it in favor of his son, receiving from government a pension of £300 *per annum*.

WOR

Wordsworth appeared as a poet in his twenty-third year, 1793, issuing two small volumes, "An Evening Walk" and "Descriptive Sketches in Verse." The Walk is among the mountains of Westmoreland; the Sketches refer to a pedestrian tour made in Switzerland. The latter was read by Coleridge (then a stranger) with delight, and he has said, "Seldom, if ever, was the emergence of an original poetic genius above the literary horizon more evidently announced." Wordsworth's next publication was a volume of "Lyrical Ballads," a few of which were from Coleridge's pen. The "Lyrical Ballads" were designed by Wordsworth to try how far a simpler kind of poetry than that in vogue would be relished. The experiment was a failure, and years elapsed before he again appeared in print. Having settled down by his native lakes, Southey's subsequent retirement to the same beautiful region, and Coleridge's visits to his brother poets, originated the name of the Lake School of Poetry,—“the school of whining and hypochondriacal poets that haunt the lakes,”—by which the opponents of their principles and the admirers of the *Edinburgh Review* distinguished these three great poets.

In 1807 two more volumes of the "Lyrical Ballads" were put forth, proving more popular than the first. In 1814 appeared "The Excursion," a philosophical poem in blank verse, being a portion of the "Recluse," the balance of which the poet left behind him unpublished. The critics were hard upon it. "This will never do," was the memorable opening of the article upon it in the *Edinburgh Review*. Yet the poem found its admirers among men who thought for themselves. A critic has characterized it as "the noblest production of the author, containing passages of sentiment, description, and pure eloquence, not excelled by any living poet; while its spirit of enlightened humanity and Christian benevolence—extending over all ranks of sentient and animated being—imparts to the poem a peculiarly sacred and elevated character." While the critics were yet discussing the merits of "The Excursion," Wordsworth published "Peter Bell," which had been written years before. This brought down upon his head a still heavier shower of ridicule from his deriders,

and even his fast admirers were somewhat startled at first, and could not praise it.

The subsequent works of the poet are numerous: "The White Doe of Rylstone," "Sonnets on the River Duddon," "The Waggoner;" his last publication of importance being "Yarrow Revisited, and other Poems," in 1835. On Southey's death, he was appointed poet-laureate, in 1843; an appropriate appointment, if such an office was to be retained at all; for the laurel dignified by the brows of Ben Jonson, Davenant, Dryden, Thomas Warton, and Southey, had been sullied and degraded by appearing on the unworthy heads of Tate, Whitehead, and Pye. Once only did Wordsworth have occasion to sing in his new office, and in what he wrote there was great obscurity and little poetry. The last years of his life, in his poetical retirement, were passed in even an added quietness to that he had so much loved. He died at Rydal Mount, the 23d of April, 1850, in the eighty-first year of his age. Those who are curious in the accidents of birth and death, observable in the biographies of celebrated men, have thought it noteworthy that the day of Wordsworth's death was the anniversary of Shakspeare's birth.

If Wordsworth was unfortunate—as he certainly was—in not finding any recognition of his merits till his hair was gray, he was luckier than other poets similarly situated have been, in living to a good old age, and in the full enjoyment of the amplest fame which his youthful dreams had ever pictured. His admirers have carried their idolatry too far; but there can be no doubt of the high position which he must always hold among British poets. His style is simple, unaffected, and vigorous; his blank verse manly and idiomatic; his sentiments both noble and pathetic; and his images poetic and appropriate. His sonnets are among the finest in the language; Milton's are scarcely finer. "In imaginative power," says his enthusiastic friend Coleridge, "he stands nearest of all modern writers to Shakspeare and Milton, and yet in a mind perfectly unborrowed and his own. To employ his own words, which are at once an instance and an illustration, he does indeed, to all thoughts and to all objects,—

*
 'Add the gleam,
 The light that never was on sea or land,
 The consecration and the poet's dream.'"

"The Prelude, or Growth of a Poet's Mind, an Autobiographical Poem," was published after his death, having lain in his desk for forty-five years.

WORMS, an ancient city in Hesse Darmstadt. Here was held the celebrated imperial diet before which Martin Luther was summoned, April 4th, 1521, and by which he was proscribed. Luther was met by two thousand persons on foot and on horseback, a league from Worms. Such was his conviction of the justice of his cause, that when Spalatin sent a messenger to warn him of his danger, he answered, "If there were as many devils in Worms as there are tiles upon the roofs of its houses, I would go on." Before the emperor, the Archduke Ferdinand, six electors, twenty-four dukes, seven margraves, thirty bishops and prelates, and many princes, counts, lords, and ambassadors, Luther appeared, April 17th, in the imperial diet, acknowledged all his writings and opinions, and left Worms, in fact, a conqueror. But Frederick the Wise advised him to seclude himself to save his life, which he did for about ten months, and his triumph was afterward complete.

WORTH, WILLIAM, was born at New York, N. Y., in 1794. In the war of 1812 he volunteered as a private. Bravery soon won him promotion from the ranks. At Chippewa and Lundy's Lane, and at Monterey, Cerro Gordo, Molino del Rey, &c., in Mexico, his gallantry shone. He died in Texas, 1849, holding the rank of major-general by brevet.

WOTTON, Sir HENRY, an English statesman, was born at Boughton Hall, in Kent, in 1568. He became secretary to the Earl of Essex, on whose fall he went abroad, and while at Florence was honored with the confidence of the grand-duke; who sent him on a secret mission to James VI. of Scotland, which gained him the favor of that monarch. He died in 1639.

WOTTON, NICHOLAS, a statesman, was uncle to the preceding, and born in Kent, about 1497. During the reign of Henry VIII. he was employed on different embassies; and in that of Edward he was made

secretary of state. In 1551 he went on a mission to the emperor of Germany; after which he became resident at the court of France. He died in London, in 1566; and was buried at Canterbury.

WREN, Sir CHRISTOPHER, was born in Wiltshire, in 1632. The great fire in London opened a wide field for his architectural labors, and the city abounds with masterly churches of his construction. He died in 1723, and lies buried in the crypt of St. Paul's, his most stupendous work, with the concise epitaph, *Si monumentum requiris, circumspice*. ("Do you seek his monument? look around"). He was a man of learning, and before devoting himself to architecture, held a professorship of astronomy at Oxford.

WURMSER, DAGOBERT SIGISMUND, Count, an Austrian general, was born in Alsace in 1724. In his youth he served in the French army, and next in that of the emperor, where he rose to the highest honors. In the revolutionary war he drove the republicans out of Alsace; but at last was obliged to retreat before superior numbers. In 1794, however, he took Mannheim; and in 1796 defeated the French in Italy. At last being obliged to throw himself into Mantua, he was forced to capitulate. He died in Hungary in 1797.

WURTZCHEN, BATTLE OF. One of the most bloody and fiercely contested battles of the campaign of 1813; fought between the allied Russian and Prussian armies, and the French army commanded by Napoleon in person, May 21st, 1813. The carnage was dreadful on both sides, but in the end the allies retreated from the field. The defeat of the allies here, and in the equally momentous battle of Bautzen, which immediately preceded, obliged them to recross the Oder.

WYATT, Sir THOMAS, an English statesman, was born at Allington Castle, in Kent, in 1503. His father, Sir Henry Wyatt, was imprisoned in the Tower in the reign of Richard III., where he is said to have been preserved by a cat that fed him daily, for which reason all the portraits of him are painted with that animal in his arms or by his side. On the accession of Henry VII. he was knighted; and in the next reign made master of the jewel office. He died in 1533.

WYA

Thomas became a great favorite with Henry VIII., and by one of his jests hastened on the Reformation. The king having complained of the delay of the court of Rome in granting his divorce, Sir Thomas exclaimed, "Lord! that a man can not repent him of his sin without the pope's leave!" This witticism hastened the king's resolution, and he soon afterward acted upon it as a maxim of sound reason. Wyatt, however, fell into some trouble afterward by his freedom of speech, and was twice tried for sedition, but acquitted. He died at Sherbourne, in Dorsetshire, in 1541. Sir Thomas was a poet as well, dealing in amatory elegies and odes.

His son, of the same name, was a zealous Protestant, and was beheaded by order of Queen Mary in 1554, for his share in a rebellion aroused by her marriage with Philip of Spain.

WYNDHAM, Sir WILLIAM, a statesman, was born at Orchard Wyndham, in Somersetshire, in 1687. In 1710 he was made secretary at war; and in 1713, chancellor of the exchequer. On the accession of George I. he was dismissed from office; and when the rebellion broke out in Scotland, he was sent to the Tower, but never brought to trial. He continued to act in opposition till his death, which happened at Welles, in 1740; when he was succeeded in his title and estate by his eldest son, Sir Charles Wyndham, who became Earl of Egremont, and died in 1763.

WYOMING. The delightful valley of Wyoming in Pennsylvania has been consecrated both by the blood of martyrs and by the deathless muse of Campbell. Its first settlers were chiefly from Connecticut, which claimed the country by virtue of her ancient charter, and there was a severe struggle be-

tween them and the Pennsylvanians for its possession. In June, 1778, when many of the yeomen of Wyoming were absent in the army, an incursion into the valley was made by a force of Tories and Indians, commanded by Col. John Butler, a notorious partisan. The marauding parties spread desolation throughout the valley; farm-houses were fired; husbandmen were murdered in the fields. Some 360 of the settlers, rudely armed, headed by Col. Zebulon Butler, attempted to drive out the invaders, July 3d. The contest was suddenly ended by a panic among the patriot militia; the savages dropped their rifles, rushed on with tomahawks and scalping-knives, and a terrible massacre ensued, from which only a few of the men of Wyoming escaped. The desolation of the valley was now completed: fields were laid waste, houses burnt, and their inhabitants murdered. Many women and children perished in fleeing through the wilderness. In retaliation for the atrocities at Wyoming, Gen. Sullivan invaded the country of the Senecas the next year.

WYTHE, GEORGE, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Elizabeth county, Va., 1726. He was wealthy, and until thirty years of age lived a life of great dissipation; but at that age he applied himself assiduously to the study of the law, and an avenue of distinction opened before him. He was a member of the colonial legislature of Virginia, and in 1775 was elected a member of congress. His labors in the cause of independence were strenuous and unceasing; and for them he suffered much loss of property during the war. He was a member of the convention that formed the federal constitution, and died June 8th, 1806, having been chancellor of Virginia more than twenty-five years.

WYT

X.

XANTIPPUS, a Lacedæmonian general who assisted the Carthaginians in the first Punic war. He defeated the Romans, 256 B.C., and took the celebrated Regulus prisoner. Such signal services deserved to be rewarded, but the Carthaginians looked with envious jealousy upon Xantippus as a stranger, and he retired to Corinth after he had saved them from destruction. Some authors suppose that the Carthaginians ordered him to be assassinated, and his body to be thrown into the sea as he was returning home; while others say that they had prepared a leaky ship to convey him to Corinth, which he artfully avoided.

XENOPHON, an Athenian, son of Gryllus, celebrated as a general, a historian, and a philosopher. He was invited by Proxenus, one of his intimate friends, to accompany Cyrus the younger in an expedition against his brother Artaxerxes, king of Persia; but he refused to comply without previously consulting his venerable master, and inquiring into the propriety of such a measure. Socrates strongly opposed it, and observed that it might raise the resentment of his countrymen, as Sparta had made an alliance with the Persian monarch; and before he proceeded further, advised him to consult the oracle at Delphi. Xenophon was ambitious of glory, and eager to engage in a distant expedition. He merely asked the oracle to what gods he should sacrifice to insure success, and hastened with precipitation to Sardis, where he was introduced to the young prince, and treated with great attention. In the army of Cyrus, Xenophon showed that he was a true disciple of Socrates, and that he had been educated in the warlike city of Athens. After the decisive battle in the plains of Cunaxa, 401 B.C., and the fall of young Cyrus, the prudence and vigor of his mind were called into action. The ten thousand Greeks who had followed the standard of an ambitious prince, were now at a distance of above six hundred leagues from their native home, in a country surrounded on every side by a victorious enemy, without money, without provisions, and without a

leader. Xenophon was selected to superintend the retreat, and though he was often opposed by malevolence and envy, yet his persuasive eloquence and his activity convinced the Greeks that no general could extricate them from every difficulty better than the disciple of Socrates. He rose superior to danger, and though under continual alarms from the sudden attacks of the Persians, he was enabled to cross rapid rivers, penetrate through vast deserts, gain the tops of mountains, till he could rest secure for a while, and refresh his tired companions. This celebrated retreat was, at last, happily effected; the Greeks returned home after a march of two hundred and fifteen days, and an absence of fifteen months. Xenophon was no sooner returned from Cunaxa, than he sought new honors, in following the fortune of Agesilaus in Asia. He enjoyed his confidence, he fought under his standard, and conquered with him in the Asiatic provinces, as well as at the battle of Coronæa. His fame, however, did not escape the aspersions of jealousy; he was publicly banished from Athens for accompanying Cyrus against his brother, and being now without a home, he retired to Scillus, a small town in the neighborhood of Olympia. He died at Corinth in the nineteenth year of his age, 359 years before the Christian era.

XERXES succeeded his father Darius on the throne of Persia, for though but the second son of the monarch, he was preferred to his elder brother Artabazanes. Xerxes continued the warlike preparations of his father, and added the revolted kingdom of Egypt to his extensive possessions. He afterward invaded Europe, and entered Greece with an army of millions, the most numerous which had ever been collected together in one expedition; but badly armed and disciplined, and encumbered with a useless attendance of servants, women, and eunuchs. It was stopped at Thermopylæ, by the valor of three hundred Spartans, and their allies, under Leonidas. Xerxes, astonished that such a handful of men should dare to oppose his progress, ordered some of his soldiers to

bring them alive into his presence; but for three successive days the most valiant of the Persian troops were repeatedly defeated in attempting to execute the monarch's injunctions, and the courage of the Spartans might perhaps have triumphed longer, if a Trachinian had not led a detachment to the top of the mountain, who suddenly fell upon the devoted Leonidas. The king, himself, nearly perished on this occasion, and it has been reported, that in the night the desperate Spartans sought, for a while, the royal tent, which they found deserted, and wandered through the Persian army, slaughtering thousands before them. The battle of Thermopylæ was the beginning of the disgrace of Xerxes; the more he advanced, it was to experience new disappointments; his fleet was defeated at Artemisium and Salamis; and though he burnt the deserted city of Athens, and trusted to the artful insinuations of Themistocles, yet he found his myriads unable to conquer a nation that was superior to him in the knowledge of war and maritime affairs. Mortified with the ill success of his expedition, and apprehensive of imminent danger in an enemy's country, Xerxes hastened to Persia, and in thirty days marched over all that territory which before he had passed with much pomp and parade in the space of six months. Mardonius, the best of his generals, was left behind with an army of 300,000 men, and the rest that had survived the ravages of war, of famine, and pestilence, followed their timid monarch into Thrace, where his steps were marked by the numerous birds of prey that hovered round him, and fed upon the dead carcasses of the Persians. When he reached the Hellespont, Xerxes found the bridge of boats which he had erected there, totally destroyed by the storms, and he crossed the straits in a small fishing vessel. Restored to his kingdom and safety, he forgot his dangers, his losses, and

his defeats, and gave himself up to riot and debauchery. His indolence and luxurious voluptuousness offended his subjects, and Artabanus, the captain of his guards, conspired against him, and murdered him in his bed, in the twenty-first year of his reign, about 464 years before the Christian era.

The bridge above alluded to, constructed for the passage of the army of Xerxes across the Hellespont, was formed by connecting together ships of different kinds, some long vessels of fifty oars, others three-banked galleys, to the number of 360 on the side toward the sea, and 318 on that of the archipelago; the former were placed transversely, but the latter, to diminish the strain of their cables, in the direction of the current,—all secured by anchors and cables of great strength. On extended cables between the lines of shipping were laid fast-bound rafters, over these a layer of unwrought wood, and over the latter was thrown earth; on each side was a fence, to prevent the horses and beasts of burthen from being terrified by the sea, in the passage from shore to shore. This wonderful work was completed, it is said, in one week, 480 B.C.

XIMENES, FRANCIS, a Spanish cardinal, was born in 1437, at Torrelaguna, in Old Castile. In 1507 the pope gave him a cardinal's hat, and soon after the king appointed him prime minister, which office he discharged with the greatest honor. He was very successful in the conversion of the Moors, three thousand of whom were baptized in one day at Grenada. On the death of Ferdinand, in 1516, the cardinal was appointed regent of the kingdom; and one of his first acts was to introduce a reformation in the government. He died Nov. 8th, 1517. He was a great patron of letters, and the Complutensian Bible, the first polyglot edition published, was printed at his cost.

XIM

Y.

YALE, ELIHU, the donor of Yale College, New Haven, Conn., died in 1724, and was buried at the church in Wrexham, Wales. His monument, a plain altar tomb, bears this inscription:—

Born in America, in Europe bred,
In Africa traveled, in Asia wed,
Where long he lived and thrived, in London dead,
Much good, some ill, he did; so hope all's even.
And that his soul through mercy's gone to heaven.
You that survive and read this tale, take care,
For this most certain exit to prepare.
Where blest in peace the actions of the just
Smell sweet, and blossom in the silent dust.

His father, Thomas Yale, from one of the most respectable families in Wales, came from England with the first colonists of New Haven, and there Elihu was born, April 5th, 1658. Elihu went to the East Indies at the age of thirty as an adventurer, became wealthy, obtained the presidency of Madras, and is said to have ruled with oppressive authority. He caused his groom to be hanged for riding out a favorite horse without leave. For this murder he was ordered to England, where he was tried for the crime, but by some means escaped punishment, except a heavy fine.

YORKE, PHILIP, Earl of Hardwick, chancellor of England, died in 1764, aged seventy-four.

YORKE, CHARLES, second son of the preceding, was an elegant and profound scholar. In 1770 he was appointed chancellor, and created Lord Mordan; but he died in three days, before the seals were affixed to his patent of peerage.

YORKTOWN, SIEGE OF. In the summer of 1781 Washington succeeded in cooping up Lord Cornwallis and his army of 7,000 men at Yorktown, Va. The French fleet under

Count de Grasse guarded the mouth of Chesapeake Bay, and prevented succor by sea. The combined American and French armies, commanded by Washington and Rochambeau, were 12,000 strong, exclusive of the Virginia militia that patriotic Gov. Nelson had brought into the field. Gen. Lincoln opened the first parallel on the 6th of October, and on the 9th the batteries commenced fire, Washington putting the match to the first gun. Cornwallis looked in vain for relief from Sir Henry Clinton, who was hampered by naval delays; he held out as long as was possible, and surrendered on the 19th.

Congress voted thanks to the victors, with appropriate trophies to Washington, Rochambeau, and De Grasse, and appointed a day for general thanksgiving and prayer. When Lord North, the British premier, heard of the capture of Cornwallis and his army, he wildly exclaimed, "O God! it is all over!" The event was a death blow to the war.

YOUNG, EDWARD, the author of "Night Thoughts," was born at his father's parsonage near Winchester in 1684, and died in 1765. He commenced life as a courtier and poet, and continued such till his death. When upward of fifty he took orders.

YVRES (now IVRY), BATTLE OF, March 2d, 1590, between Henry IV. of France, aided by his chief nobility, and the generals of the Catholic league, over whom the king obtained a complete victory. This success enabled Henry to blockade Paris, and reduce that capital to the last extremity by famine; but the Duke of Parma, by orders from Philip of Spain, marched to the relief of the league, and obliged the king to raise the blockade.

Z.

ZAMA, BATTLE OF. Between the two greatest commanders in the world at the time, Hannibal and Scipio Africanus, B.C. 202. This battle has been called the most important that was ever fought; it was won by Scipio, and was decisive of the fate of Carthage; it led to an ignominious peace, which was granted the year after, and closed the second Punic war. The Romans lost but 2,000 killed and wounded, while the Carthaginians lost, in killed and prisoners, more than 40,000; some historians make the loss greater.

ZAMOSZ, a strong fortress in the south-east of Poland. In 1656 it was unsuccessfully besieged by the Swedes; in 1715 it was surprised by the Saxons; and in the civil contests of 1771, the Poles were defeated in its vicinity, by the Prussians. In 1812 it was one of the few towns in which the French left a garrison, after their retreat from Russia.

ZAMOSKI, JOHN, great chancellor of Poland, and general of the army of that kingdom. He was one of the ambassadors to France to offer the crown to the Duke of Anjou, whom the Poles had chosen king. This prince being recalled to take possession of the kingdom of France as Henry III., Stephen Bathori, Prince of Transylvania, was chosen king of Poland, who had so great a consideration for Zamoski, that he gave his niece to him in marriage, made him chancellor of the kingdom, and first gave him the command of eight thousand men in the war with Muscovy, and afterward of all the army of Poland. Zamoski acquitted himself in all these employments with much courage and great success. He died in 1605.

ZANTE (ZAKYNTHOS), one of the Ionian Islands, in the Mediterranean Sea. Zante, the capital, has a population of 24,000. Its harbor is spacious, and its environs are pleasant and picturesque. In 1820 several hundred houses were overthrown by an earthquake. The island was in possession of the Venetians from the end of the fourteenth to the end of the eighteenth century. In 1797 it was taken by the French, and in 1799 by the Russians. In 1815 it became

one of the members of the Ionian republic. The wine of Zante is in great request, but the most important product of the island is the currant, which is the fruit of a dwarf species of the vine originally brought from Corinth.

ZELA, BATTLE OF. In which Julius Cæsar defeated Pharnaces, king of Pontus, son of Mithridates, 47 B.C. Cæsar, in announcing this victory, sent his famous dispatch to the senate of Rome, in these words, "*Veni, vidi, vici*" (I came, I saw, I conquered), so rapidly and easily was his triumph obtained. This battle concluded the war; Pharnaces escaped into Bosphorus, where he was slain by his lieutenant Asander; and Pontus was made a province of Rome, and Bosphorus given to Mithridates of Pergamus.

ZENO, of Cittium in Cyprus, lived from 362 B.C. to 264 B.C. He was the founder of the sect of the Stoics, which was so called from a public portico, from which the philosopher delivered his harangues. It was the most famous portico in Athens, and was called by way of eminence, *stoa*, the porch. In order to form his own school of philosophy, and to collect materials for a new system, Zeno had attended the schools of various masters, and among others he offered himself as a disciple of Polemo. This philosopher, aware of Zeno's object, said, "I am no stranger, Zeno, to your Phœnician arts. I perceive that your design is to creep slyly into my garden, and steal away my fruit.

As a man Zeno appears deserving of the highest respect. Although sharing the doctrines of the Cynics, he did not learn their grossness, their insolence, or their affectation. In person he was tall and slender; and although of a weakly constitution, he lived to a great age, being rigidly abstemious, feeding mainly upon figs, bread, and honey. His brow was furrowed with thought; and this gave a tinge of severity to his aspect, which accorded with the severity of his doctrines. So honored and respected was he by the Athenians that they intrusted to him the keys of the citadel; and when he died they erected to his memory a statue of brass.

His death is thus recorded. In his ninety-eighth year, as he was stepping out of his school, he fell and broke his finger. He was so affected at the consciousness of his infirmity, that striking the earth he exclaimed, "Why am I thus importuned? Earth, I obey thy summons." He went home and strangled himself."

ZENOBIA was a celebrated princess of Palmyra, who married Odenatus, whom Gallienus acknowledged as his partner on the Roman throne. After the death of her husband, which, according to some authors, she is said to have hastened, Zenobia reigned in the east as regent of her infant children, who were honored with the title of Cæsars. She assumed the name of Augusta, appeared in imperial robes, and ordered herself to be styled the queen of the east. The troubles which at that time agitated the western parts of the empire, prevented the effeminate Gallienus from checking the insolence and ambition of this princess, who boasted to be sprung from the Ptolemies of Egypt. Aurelian was no sooner invested with the imperial purple, than he marched into the east, determined to punish the pride of Zenobia. He well knew her valor, and he was not ignorant that in her wars against the Persians, she had distinguished herself no less than Odenatus. She was the mistress of the east; Egypt acknowledged her power, and all the provinces of Asia Minor were subject to her command. When Aurelian approached the plains of Syria, the Palmyrean queen appeared at the head of seven hundred thousand men. She bore the labors of the field like the meanest of her soldiers, and walked on foot fearless of danger. Two battles were fought; the courage of the queen might have gained the superiority in the last, but an imprudent evolution of the Palmyrean cavalry ruined her cause; and while they pursued with spirit the flying enemy, the Roman infantry suddenly fell upon the main body of Zenobia's army, and the defeat was inevitable. The queen fled to Palmyra, determined to support a siege. Aurelian followed her, and after he had almost exhausted his stores, he proposed honorable terms of capitulation, which were rejected with disdain by the warlike princess, in an arrogant letter which incensed Aurelian highly. Her

hopes of victory, however, soon vanished, and though she harassed the Romans night and day by continual sallies from her walls, and the working of her military engines, she despaired of success when she heard that the armies which were marching to her relief from Armenia, Persia, and the east, had partly been defeated and partly bribed from her allegiance. She fled from Palmyra in the night; but Aurelian, who was apprised of her escape, pursued her, and she was caught as she was crossing the river Euphrates. She was brought into the presence of Aurelian, and though the soldiers were clamorous for her death, she was reserved to adorn the triumph of the conqueror. She was treated with great humanity, and Aurelian gave her large possessions and a superb villa at Tivoli, where she was permitted to live the rest of her days in peace, with all the grandeur and majesty which became a queen of the east and a warlike princess. Her children were patronized by the emperor, and married to persons of the first distinction at Rome. She fell into the hands of Aurelian about the two hundred and seventy-third year of the Christian era.

Zenobia was eminently beautiful, with oriental eyes and complexion, teeth like pearls, and a voice of uncommon power and sweetness. Her courage, prudence, and fortitude were remarkable. The strangest feature in her character, if we consider the manners of her country and age, was her passion for study, and her taste for the Greek and Latin literature. Longinus, one of the most elegant writers of antiquity, was lured to her court, and made her secretary and minister. In imitation of Cleopatra, her pretended ancestress, she affected great splendor in living and attire. In dignity and discretion, as well as beauty, she far surpassed the Egyptian queen. There is one black spot in her history. When she fell into Aurelian's power, his ferocious soldiery clamored for her blood. She forgot her former vaunts and intrepidity; terror made her base; in her panic she threw herself on the mercy of the emperor, accused her ministers as the cause of her determined resistance, and said that Longinus had written in her name that eloquent and defiant letter which had so enraged Aurelian. Longinus, with the rest of

her immediate friends and counselors, were at once sacrificed to the fury of the soldiers.

ZEUXIS, one of the most celebrated painters of antiquity, 490-400 B.C.

ZIMISCES, JOHN, a noble Armenian, contributed to the elevation of Nicephorus II. to the throne of the eastern empire, but instead of being rewarded for his services, was sent into disgraceful exile. He afterward conspired with the empress; she in person opened the chamber-door of Nicephorus to the conspirators, who massacred him without opposition, A.D. 969. Zimisce was then proclaimed emperor of the east, and signalized himself in many engagements and victories, but was at length taken off by poison, A.D. 975.

ZIMMERMANN, JOHN GEORGE, Chevalier von, an eminent physician and miscellaneous writer, born at Brug, in the canton of Berne, in 1728. Having made choice of the medical profession, he was appointed public physician to his native town, employing his leisure hours in writing many pieces in prose and verse, the most popular of which is his work on Solitude. His professional and literary celebrity gained him the post of royal physician at Hanover and in Prussia. He died deranged in 1795.

ZINZENDORF, NICHOLAS LOUIS, Count von, was born at Dresden in 1700. He was the founder and head of the sect of Moravian Brethren, whose devoted missionaries, under his direction, soon spread, not only over Europe, but in Greenland and America, in Africa, and in China. Zinzendorf came to America in 1741, and preached at Germantown, Bethlehem, and Nazareth, in Pennsylvania. He returned to Europe in 1743, and died among his people, on the 9th of June, 1760.

ZISKA. The real name of this renowned leader in the early religious wars of Germany was JOHN TROCZNOW. He acquired the name of Ziska (which means 'one-eyed') from the loss of an eye in battle. He was born about 1380, of a noble Bohemian family, and was bred in the imperial court and camp. When John Huss was martyred at Constance, the Bohemians flew to arms, to avenge his death and resist the bigotry and tyranny of the Emperor Sigismund. Ziska was a follower of Huss, and the Bohemians made him their

general. The war was ferocious on both sides. The fierce Ziska was everywhere successful, even after made wholly blind by the loss of his other eye at the siege of Raab. The emperor concluded a humiliating treaty, and Ziska soon after died of the plague, Oct. 11th, 1425. There is a legend that, by his dying orders, his skin was made into a drum, to animate the Hussites with the remembrance of his valor.

ZOE. This extraordinary woman, daughter of the Emperor Constantine, married Romanus, who, in consequence, succeeded to the throne of the Eastern empire, A.D. 1028. Zoe, after prostituting herself to a Paphlagonian money-lender, caused Romanus to be poisoned, and wedded her paramour, who reigned as Michael IV. On his death, Zoe placed her adopted son in power, as Michael V.; the trade of his father (careening vessels) had procured him the surname of Calaphates. Within twelve months, she dethroned him, and his eyes were put out. Zoe and her sister, Theodora, were made sole empresses by the populace; but after two months, Zoe although she was sixty years of age, took for her third husband Constantine X. She died in 1050.

ZOLLVEREIN, the name given to the German commercial union, of which Prussia is the head. It was first formed in 1818, and was gradually joined by nearly all the German states, except Austria. Feb. 19th, 1853, an important treaty of commerce and navigation, between Austria and Prussia, to last from January, 1854, till December, 1865, was signed, to which the other states of the Zollverein gave in their adhesion, April 5th, 1853. The word *Zollverein* means in English 'customs union.'

ZOPYRUS, a Persian, son of Megabyzus, who, to show his attachment to Darius, the son of Hystaspes, while he besieged Babylon, cut off his ears and nose, and fled to the enemy, telling them that he had received such treatment from his royal master because he had advised him to raise the siege, as the city was impregnable. This was credited by the Babylonians, and Zopyrus was appointed commander of all their forces. When he had totally gained their confidence, he betrayed the city into the hands of Darius, for which he was liberally rewarded. The

regard of Darius for Zopyrus could never be more strongly expressed than in what he used often to say, "that he had rather have Zopyrus not mutilated than twenty Baby-lons."

ZSCHOKKE, HEINRICH, a celebrated author, was born at Magdeburg in 1781. He inherited in childhood a moderate patrimony, which enabled him during his youth and early manhood to gratify his desire for adventure and various knowledge. He finally settled down for life near Aargau in Switzerland, in 1802, and died in 1848. The best known of his numerous works are his novels, in which he displays much agreeable humor.

ZOUAVES. To give a complete understanding of the origin of this singular corps, we must go back a little. Algiers was settled in 1492 by Moors driven from Spain. They recognized only a nominal allegiance to the Turkish sultan. But in 1509, when hard pushed by the Spaniards, they sent in haste to Turkey for aid. Barbarossa, a noted pirate, sailed to their help, drove off the Christians, and fixed upon the Moors the yoke of Turkish sovereignty. In 1516 he declared himself Dey of Algiers, and his brother succeeding him, the Ottoman power was firmly established. Hated by both Moors and Arabs, and frequently attacked by Europeans, to sustain themselves the deys were obliged to form a body of mercenary soldiers drawn entirely from Turkey. Brave these mercenaries proved themselves in many a fierce fight. Hardy and ready they were, for they were hated and dreaded beyond measure by the Arabs, and theirs was a life of constant exertion. United they must be, for in union was their strength and safety. They were called the *Odjack*, and elected or deposed deys at pleasure; the dey, nominally their ruler, was in reality their tool. In one period of twenty years there were six deys, of whom four were decapitated, one abdicated through fear, and one died peacefully. When one dey was strangled or deposed, they chose in his stead the boldest and bravest of their number. Their number was supposed not to exceed 15,000, and they were recruited from the meanest classes in the ports of the Levant. In 1629 they declared the kingdom free from the dominion of Turkey; soon after they expelled the Koulouglis, or half-breed

Turks, and enslaved the Moors. Admitting some of the latter to service in the militia, they never allowed them to hope for promotion. Only Turks or renegade Christians could lead the soldiers, whom thus no feeling of local patriotism mollified in their course of savage cruelty, grinding the face of the poor natives till spirit and hope were lost, and resistance ceased to be a settled idea in their minds.

When the French fleet came up to Algiers in 1830, the bond between the soldiery and their master Hussein Pacha, was nearly broken; he had just slain the ringleaders of a plot against his life, and the surviving conspirators felt they were not safe with him. Beaten in every skirmish or battle, they conceived a high respect for the military genius of the French, and, ere the close of the summer campaign, offered their services in a body to General Clausel; this offer he promptly declined, and they carried their swords to the aid of less scrupulous powers. The news of this offer spread a lively terror among the Arab tribes. Perceiving the fear in which these Algerine prætorians were held by the tribes, Marshal Clausel conceived the plan of replacing them by a corps of light infantry, consisting of two battalions, to perform the services of household troops, and to receive some name as significant as that of the terrible *Odjack*. The new corps was therefore called by the name of *Zouaves*, from the Arabic word *Zouaoua*. The *Zouaoua* are a tribe, or rather a confederation of tribes, of the Kabyles, who inhabit the gorges of the Jurjura Mountains, between Algeria and the province of Constantine. They are a brave, fierce, laborious people, whose submission to the Turks was never more than nominal; they had the reputation of being the best soldiers in the regency. They were well known in the city of Algiers, whither they came frequently to exchange the products of their industry for the luxuries of comparative civilization.

The number of native soldiers received into the ranks of the *Zouaves* was limited, and all the officers, from the highest to the lowest grade, were required to be native-born Frenchmen. Service in the corps was altogether voluntary, none being appointed to the *Zouaves* who did not seek the place; but

there were found enough young and daring spirits who embraced with enthusiasm this life, so harassing, so full of privation, of rude labor, of constant peril. The first battalion was commanded by Major Maumet, the second by Captain Duvivier.

Scarcely six weeks after their formation the Zouaves took the field under Marshal Clausel, marching against Medeah, an important station in the heart of western Algeria. On the hill of Mouzaia they fought their first battle, and were completely successful. They remained two months as a garrison in Medeah, showing great valor and patience. Left alone in a frontier post, constantly in the vicinity of a savage foe, watching and fighting night and day, leaving the gun only to take up the spade, compelled to create everything they needed, reduced to the last extremities for food, cut off from all communications,—it was a rough trial for this little handful of new soldiers. The place was often attacked; they were always at their posts; till in the last days of April they were recalled, and the fortress yielded up to the feeble bey whom the French had decided to establish there. In June, troubles having again risen, General Berthezene conducted some regular troops to Medeah, together with the second battalion of Zouaves, under its gallant captain, Duvivier. On his return the troops were furiously attacked on the hill of Mouzaia, the spot where in February the Zouaves had received the baptism of fire. Worn with the long night-march, borne down by insupportable heat, stretched in a long straggling line through mountain passes, the commander of the van severely wounded at the first discharge, they themselves separated, without chiefs, and surrounded by enemies, the French troops recoiled; when Duvivier, seeing the peril that menaced the army, advanced with his battalion. Shouting their war-cry and the Marseillaise, they rushed upon the Kabyles, turned the pursuers into pursued, and covered the retreat of the army till it could rally. This affair made the Zouaves—before regarded, if not with contempt, at least with dislike—*free of the camp*.

Losses in the two battalions began to be seriously felt, for the growing hostility of the Arabs made it difficult to recruit from native

sources. In March, 1833, the two were united into one battalion, consisting of ten companies, eight of which were to be exclusively European, and in each of the other companies it was required there should be at least twelve Frenchmen. Captain Lamoriciere was appointed chief of the battalion. To the training the Zouaves received under this remarkable man much of their after success must be attributed. In his dealings with the Arabs he had shown himself the first who could treat with them by other means than the rifle or the bayonet. As commander of the Zouaves he showed talents of a high order. He infused into them the spirit, the activity, the boldness and impetuosity which he himself so remarkably possessed, with a certain independence of character that demanded from those who commanded them a resolute firmness on essential, and a dignified indulgence on unessential points. To the course of discipline used by him, and still maintained in this arm of the service, are due their tremendous working power, their tirelessness, their self-dependence, and all their qualities differing from those of other soldiers; so that by his means one of the most irregular species of warfare has produced a body of irresistible regular soldiers, and border combats have given rise to the most rigid discipline in the world.

The post of Dely Ibrahim was assigned to the Zouaves. They were obliged to work laboriously, making for themselves whatever was needed; whether as masons, ditchers, blacksmiths, carpenters, or farmers,—whatever was to be done, they were, or learned to be, sufficient for it. What time was not devoted to labor was given to the practice of arms and the acquisition of instruction in all departments of military science; so that many a soldier was there fitted for the position he afterward acquired of officer, colonel, or general. To fence with the mounted bayonet, to wrestle, to leap, to climb, to run for miles, to swim, to make and to destroy temporary bridges, to throw up walls of earth, to carry great weights,—these served as the relaxations of the unwearied Zouaves. To vary the monotony of such a life, there was enough adventure to be found for the seeking,—an incursion into the Sahel, or into the plains of Mitidja, or a wild foray through the northern

gorges of the Atlas. They learned to march rapidly and long, to sustain the extremes of hunger, thirst, and weather, and to manœuvre with intelligent precision. Their costume and equipment were brought near perfection; they wore the Turkish dress, slightly modified,—a dress suited to the changes of that climate, and without which their movements would have been cramped and constrained. The cost of a Turkish uniform suitable for an officer would be heavy; besides, the dress of a Turk of rank is somewhat ridiculous; so the officers retained the hussar uniform, which is rich and easy to wear. Certain officers used on the march, however, to wear the fez, or, as the Arabs called it, the *chechia*. Lamoriciere was known in Algeria as *Bou Chechia*, or *Papa with the Cap*. The corps was the best practical school for soldiers and officers, and many of the best French generals began their military career in the wild guerilla combats or the patient camp-life of that band of heroes.

There was work enough for the Zouaves in Algiers; they gained fresh laurels, and they were raised to a regiment. In the second expedition into Constantine, in 1837, they formed part of the division headed by the Duke of Nemours. Lamoriciere was still their leader. Fighting by the side of the best soldiers, they proved themselves bravest where all were brave. In the assault upon Constantine, they were placed at the head of the first column of attack; Lamoriciere was the first officer on the breach, and carried all before him. The soldiers he had trained supported him nobly; but when they had won the day, they found that many companies were decimated, some nearly annihilated, and numbers of their officers had fallen. "Those who are not mortally wounded rejoice at this great success," said an officer to the duke.

One anecdote will give some idea of the troops among whom the Zouaves shone bravest of the brave. The rear-guard at Mansourah was under the command of Changarnier; it was reduced to three hundred men; he halted this little troop and said, "Come, my men, look these fellows in the face; they are six thousand, you are three hundred; surely the match is even." This speech was sufficient. The Frenchmen awaited the onset till the enemy was within pistol-shot, then

after a murderous volley, they charged on the Arabs, who broke and fled in dismay. During the remainder of the day they would not approach this band nearer than long rifle range.

In 1839 alarming symptoms of mutiny appeared among the native Zouaves. Wild Santons of the desert—emissaries, doubtless, of Abd-el-Kader—held secret meetings near the camp; many soldiers attended them, and were seduced by artful harangues and prophecies. In December, 1839, at the raising of the standard of Islam, the natives flocked in vast numbers to rid the land of the French, and most of the native Zouaves deserted to join the fortunes of the prince whom they revered as a prophet. Old soldiers, trained in the French service to a thorough acquaintance with European tactics, and gray with battling long for Lamoriciere, suddenly left him, and by their knowledge of the art of war gave great advantage to the Arab force. The Zouaves not infrequently found that a sharp resistance or a masterly retreat on the part of the enemy was executed under the direction of an old comrade. It was a critical moment for the Zouaves; but volunteers flowed in, young men full of ardor and excitement, and in many instances old soldiers who had already served their time. After a winter of petty skirmishing, and re-establishing in Algeria the semblance of security, the Duke of Orleans led the army against Abd-el-Kader in the Arabs' own territory. Whether in charges against the mountaineers, who, with the aid of the Arab regulars, defended each pass; or sustaining the shock of the provincial cavalry; or even standing unmoved before an attack of Abd-el-Kader's terrible mounted body guard,—the Zouaves maintained their character of rapid, intrepid, successful soldiers. What names we find in this regiment! Lamoriciere, Regnault, Renault, Cavaignac, Leflo, St. Arnaud—future generals, marshals, dictators.

A singular instance of the hardness of the Zouaves occurred during a forced march in this campaign to support a retreat of the seventeenth light infantry. Their cartridges were fired away, the regulars of Abd-el-Kader were upon them, and nothing seemed to remain but a heroic death, when, "Comrades," cried one, "see, here are stones!" Not a

word more; each caught the hint; and with volleys of stones they drove off the charging enemy, and broke their way to where the remains of the seventeenth rallied, after a retreat more properly to be called a continual attack.

With the arrival of Marshal Bugeaud the war was changed; hitherto it had been a mere war of occupation,—a holding of the ground already French against the attacking Arabs; Bugeaud's design was, to follow the Arabs into the desert, to climb the steep mountains, to plunge into their chasms, to storm every hill fort, and to drive, step by step, the swift Abd-el-Kader from the land; but how? for swift troops are light-armed, carry no baggage, and but little provision; and to follow without food the Arabs who concealed food in *silos*, *caehes* in the ground, seemed hopeless. This was work for Lamoriciere and his Zouaves. They carried only four days' provisions, and no baggage of any sort. When they drew near any of these *silos*, which were always, of course, near the deserted villages, he spread out his troops in a long crescent, and they advanced slowly, working up the ground with their bayonets till some one struck on the stone or pebbles covering the precious deposit. Trained to tireless activity, they could thus follow the Arabs with little delay and fatal effect.

The native Algerines were gradually becoming fewer among the Zouaves, and in 1842 disappeared finally from their ranks. The best and bravest soldiers in the African army eagerly sought their places, attracted by the uniform, the manner of life, the constant danger and no less constant excitement, the liberty allowed, the glory ever open to all. In 1848 the corps received a large accession from Paris; the *gamins* of the revolution were sent to them in great numbers, and out of these unpromising, rebellious materials, some of the finest Zouaves have been made. In February, 1852, Louis Napoleon, then president of the republic, decreed that three regiments of Zouaves should be formed, one on each of the existing battalions as a nucleus. Officers of the infantry were eligible to the new regiments, holding the same grade; the men were to be drawn from any infantry corps in the army, on their own application, if the minister of war saw proper. None were

accepted but men physically and morally in excellent condition; the officers had, for the most part, already served with credit; the subalterns and privates had been many years in the service; and even many corporals and not a few ensigns and lieutenants voluntarily relinquished their positions to serve in the rank and file of the Zouaves.

It was in the winter of 1853-4 that Louis Napoleon said, "If the war break out, we must show our Zouaves to the Russians. They were a body trained in the school of a terrible experience for twenty-four years; they had learned, like the lion-hunter Gerard, to take death by the mane, and look into his fiery eyes without blenching. They went to the Crimea. Russell, the brilliant correspondent of the *London Times*, thus describes the first of them he saw:—"The Zouave wears a sort of red fez cap, with a roll of cloth at the base to protect the head; a jacket of blue cloth, with red facings, decorated with some simple ornaments, and open in front so as to display the throat; and a waistcoat, or under coat, of red comes down to the hips. Round his waist a broad silk sash is folded several times, so as to keep up the ample pantaloons and support the back. The pantaloons, of scarlet cloth, fit close over the hips, and then expand to the most Dutchman-like dimensions, till they are gathered just below the knee in loose bagging folds, so that they look almost like a kilt. From the knee to the ankle the leg is protected by a kind of greaves, made of stout, yellow, embroidered leather, laced (with black stripes) down the back, and descending over the shoe. The whole costume is graceful, easy, and picturesque. The men (natives of France, and not Arabs, as many suppose) are young smart fellows, about five feet six inches in height, burnt to a deep copper tint by the rays of an African sun, and wearing the most luxuriant beards, moustaches, and whiskers; it is, however, hard to believe these fierce-looking warriors are Europeans."

All Europe, at first wondering at these strange troops, with their wild dress, their half-savage manners, and strange method of warfare, found speedy cause to admire their courage and success. At the battle of the Alma, Marshal St. Arnaud was unable to repress his admiration, calling them "the brav-

est soldiers in the world." They rushed like tigers to rescue the British at Inkerman. Russell thus describes their capture of the Mamelon: "The French went up the steep to the Mamelon in most beautiful order, and every straining eye was upon their movements, which the declining daylight did not throw out into bold relief. Still their figures, like light shadows, flitting across the dun barriers of earthwork, were seen to mount up unfaillingly—were seen running, climbing, scrambling like skirmishers up the slopes on to the body of the work, amid a plunging fire from the guns which, owing to their loose formation, did them as yet little damage. As an officer, who saw Bosquet wave them on, said at the moment, 'they went in like a clever pack of hounds.' In a moment some of these dim wraiths shone out against the sky. The Zouaves were upon the parapet firing down into the place from above; the next moment a flag was up as a rallying point and defiance, and was seen to sway hither and thither, now up, now down, as the tide of battle raged round it; and now like a swarm they were in the heart of the Mamelon, and a fierce hand-to-hand encounter, here with the musket, there with the bayonet, was evident. It was seven minutes and a half from the commencement of the enterprise. Then there came a rush through the angle where they had entered, and then a momentary confusion outside. Hardly had the need of support become manifest, and a gun or two again flashed from the embrasure against them, than there was another run in, another sharp bayonet fight inside, and this time the Russians went out, spiking their guns. Twice the Russians made head against the current, for they had a large mass of troops in reserve, covered by the guns of the round tower. Twice they were forced back by the onswEEPing flood of French, who fought as if they had eyes upon them to sketch the swift event in detail. For ten minutes or so the quick flash and roll of small arms had declared that the uncertain fight waved and waved inside the enclosure. Then the back door, if one may use a humble metaphor, was burst open. The noise of the conflict went away down the descent on the side towards the tower, and the area grew larger. It was apparent by the space over which the battle spread, that the Rus-

sians had been reinforced. When the higher ground again became the seat of action; when there came the second rush of the French back upon their supports; when rocket after rocket went up ominously from the French general's position, and seemed to emphasize by their repetition some very plain command,—we began to get nervous. It was growing darker and darker, so that with our glasses we could with difficulty distinguish the actual state of affairs. There was even a dispute for some time as to whether our allies were going in or out of the works. At last, through the twilight, we discovered that the French were pouring in. Our ears could gather that the swell and babble of the fight was once more rolling down the inner face of the hill, and that the Russians were conclusively beaten. The musket flashes were no more to be seen within the work. There was no more lightning of the heavy guns from the embrasures. A shapeless hump upon a hill, the Mamelon was an extinct volcano."

In 1855 a fourth regiment of Zouaves was created, consisting of forty picked men from each company, and enrolled in the imperial guard. They are distinguished by wearing a white turban; that of the other regiments is green.

At the end of the Russian war the Zouaves returned to Africa, where they found employment in war till the final submission of the last tribes, July 15th, 1857, dissolved the army of Kabylia, and made them per force peaceful till hostilities with Austria in 1859 brought them to win fresh laurels on new fields—at Montebello, and Magenta, and Solferino.

Some reports represent the Zouaves as cruel. War is always cruel, but that Zouaves are more cruel than other soldiers may be doubted. On one occasion in Africa the Zouaves had in their charge a large body of prisoners, wounded, and helpless women, old men, and children, whom they were conducting to restore to their homes. The weather was intensely hot, even for Africa; the nearest well was eleven leagues distant; and the sufferings of the poor people were dreadful indeed. Mothers flung down their infants on the burning sand, and pressed madly on to save themselves from the most horrible of

deaths; old men and boys sunk exhausted, declaring they could go no farther. Then it was, an eye-witness says, that the Zouaves behaved like very sisters of charity rather than rough-bearded soldiers; they divided their last morsel with these unfortunates, gave them drink from their own scanty stores, and, putting their canteens to the mouths of the dying, revived them with the precious draught. They raised the screaming infants; overturned and held ewes, that they might suckle the poor creatures abandoned to despair by their mothers; and, in many instances, carried them the whole distance in their arms. At night they ate nothing, giving their food to the helpless prisoners, whose lives they thus saved at the risk of their own.

In accordance with Arab customs, the Zouaves, who live in common, compose circles, to which they give the name of *tribes*. In the tribe each one has his allotted task; one attends to making the fires and procuring wood; another draws water and does the cooking; another makes the coffee and arranges the camp, &c. The colonel is the man most venerated by them; they look upon him as the father of the family, and familiarly speak of him as *papa*. They are now the military notabilities of the world; once it was the grenadiers of England, then the old guard of Napoleon, then the imperial guard of Russia; now it is the Zouaves. They upset all the old rules for behavior in battle. They attack upon a sharp run; one man after another mounts upon the shoulders of his fellows, forming human pyramids, and scaling windows and portholes; they bound up hill like tigers, swim streams without wetting their arms, and climb cliffs like the chamois. They despise cartridges and believe in cold steel, wielding their bayonet swords with the skill of fencers. The method of recruitment adds to their efficiency: the soldiers are all drawn, not from conscripts, but from applicants for the service. They are proud of their unique costume; proud of that name, Zouave; proud of the splendid actions that enrich the history of the corps; happy in the liberty they have, both in garrison and on expeditions. In the ranks are officers, who tired of a lazy life, have taken up the musket and the *checkia*,—under officers, who having already served, brave,

even rash, seek to win their epaulettes anew in this hard service, and gain either a glorious position or a glorious death,—old officers of the *garde mobile*,—broad-shouldered marines, who have served their time on ship-board, accustomed to cannon and the thunderings of the tempest,—young men of family, desirous to replace with the red ribbon of the legion of honor, bought and colored with their blood, the dishonor of a life gaped wearily away on the pavements of Paris.

The officers are generally chosen from the regiments of the line,—men remarkable for strength, courage, and prudence; full of energy, pushing the love of their colors to its last limit, always ready to confront death and to run up to meet danger, they seek glory rather than promotion. *Esprit de corps* is carried by the Zouaves to its highest pitch; the common soldiers would not consent to change their turbans for the epaulettes of an ensign in any other branch of the army. There exists between the officers and the men a military fraternity, which, far from destroying discipline, tends rather to draw more closely its bonds. The officer sees in his men rather companions in danger and in glory than inferiors; he willingly attends to their complaints, and strives to spare them all unnecessary privations. When they are exposed to difficulties, he does not hesitate to employ all the means in his power to aid them. In return, the soldier professes for his officer an affection, a devotion, a sort of filial respect. Discipline, he knows, must be severe, and he does not grumble at its penalties. He does not abandon his chief in battle; he watches over him, will die for his safety, will not let him fall into the hands of the enemy if wounded. At the bivouac he makes the officer's fire, though his own should die for want of fuel; cares for his horse; arranges his furniture; if any delicacy in the way of food can be procured, he brings it to the chief.

Our sketch is in part condensed from an article in the *Atlantic Monthly*.

ZUTPHEN, an inland town of the Netherlands, province of Guelderland. In the wars of Philip II., Zutphen was besieged in 1572 by the Spaniards, who refusing the citizens a capitulation, entered the town by storm, and committed frightful ravages. It was

retaken in 1591, and during this siege Sir Philip Sidney was killed.

ZWINGLE, *ULRICH*, whose name in the annals of Protestantism ranks second only to that of Luther, was born on New Year's day, 1484, in a remote Swiss village, high up in the mountains. From his earliest years he loved and admired his native heights; in after days his friend Oswald Myconius said of him that "from living so near to heaven he had caught something of a divine influence." He was fond of study, was educated at Basle, Berne, and Vienna, and entered the priesthood. In 1528 he was elected preacher to the cathedral church at Zurich. His theological studies had led him to a sense of the corruptions of the church; he preached the pure gospel, and cried for reform. He declaimed against the indulgences, and effected the same separation for Switzerland from the papal dominion, which Luther did for Saxony. He procured two assemblies to be called; by the first he was authorized to proceed, and by the second the ceremonies of the Romish church were abolished, 1519. Zuinglius, who began as a preacher, died in arms as a soldier. The religious dissensions brought on civil war in Switzerland, and he was slain on the field of Cappel, Oct. 12th, 1531.

Zwingle's life was not that of a priest, a churchman, a theologian, but that of a Swiss, a patriot, a man. He did not begin life with a cut-and-dried religious system which he was resolved to impose upon the world; he did not insist that all truth was contained in certain religious dogmas more or less difficult of comprehension. He was born among the mountains, and early learnt from Nature's teaching the love of God and of his country. As he grew up, he perceived in the mercenary levies by which, for no cause but money, life was sacrificed and society cor-

rupted, a grievous sin against God and a heavy blow and scandal to Switzerland. The circumstances of his education, no less than the cast of his own mind, led him to seek for a remedy in a healthier state of morals, and this he believed, could only be brought about by religion. He found religion, as it existed, corrupt, and altogether inadequate for this purpose, and thus he was brought into collision with the established doctrines, not with the furious uncalculating enthusiasm of a speculative theorist, but with all the calm temperate energy of a practical reformer. This was the object of his life, which he pursued steadily, though perhaps not always wisely. It may be that at the end of his life he played too deep a stake—that not even the greatness of the evil and the danger, justified the dreadful remedy of war which he sought to apply. If this be so, at least he paid the penalty; his error, if such it was, may be buried on the field of Cappel; his virtue, his patriotism, and his courage, softened as these qualities were by his gentle temper and winning manners, his proficiency in humanizing arts, his familiarity with what is noblest in letters,—these remain purified and illumined by the fire of posthumous persecution. His character had not the brilliant light nor the deep shade of Luther's; he had not that rugged honesty, that tempestuous energy, that deeply stirring humor, which secure for the German reformer the first place among European heroes; but he had an even, well-balanced temperament, which if less attractive is certainly not less rare. There is no passage in his life, except indeed the last, equal in thrilling interest to Luther's journey to and appearance at Worms; but his whole career up to 1523 was one most remarkable for its deliberate progressive success.

ZWI

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

OF

AMERICAN HISTORY.

- 923. Discovery of Greenland by the Icelanders.
- 1435. Columbus born at Genoa, in Italy.
- 1492. Aug. 3d, Columbus sails from Palos in Spain.
Oct. 12th, he discovers Guanahani, one of the Bahamas.
Oct. 27, Cuba discovered.
Dec. 6th, Hayti or Hispaniola discovered.
- 1493. Jan. 16th, Columbus returns to Spain.
Sept. 25th, he sails from Cadiz on his second voyage.
Dec. 8th, he founds Isabella in Hispaniola, the first European town in the New World
- 1494. Columbus discovers Jamaica.
- 1496. Columbus returns to Spain.
Tobacco discovered in Hayti.
- 1497. Newfoundland and Labrador discovered by the Cabots.
- 1498. May 30th, Columbus sails from Spain on his third voyage.
July 31st, Trinidad discovered.
Aug. 1st, Columbus discovers the South American continent.
- 1499. South America visited by Americus Vesputius.
- 1500. The Amazon at its mouth discovered by Pinçon.
Columbus sent back in chains to Spain by Bovadilla.
April 23d, Brazil discovered by Cabral.
- 1502. May 11th, Columbus sails from Spain on his last voyage.
Aug. 14th, he discovers the Bay of Honduras.
- 1504. Columbus returns to Spain.
- 1506. May 20th, he dies at Valladolid, in his fifty-ninth year.
- 1508. St. Lawrence River first navigated by Aubert.
- 1510. First colony planted on the main land, at the Isthmus of Darien, by Balboa.
- 1512. April 2d, Florida discovered by Juan Ponce de Leon.
Baracoa, the first town in Cuba, built by Velasquez.
- 1513. Sept. 26th, Pacific Ocean discovered by Vasco Nunez de Balboa.
- 1516. Río de la Plata discovered by Juan Díaz de Solís.
- 1517. Patent granted by Charles V. for an annual import of 4,000 negro slaves to Hispaniola, Cuba, Jamaica, and Puerto Rico.
Yucatan explored by Francis Hernandez Cordova.

1518. Grijalva discovers the southern part of Mexico.
1519. March 13th, Cortez lands at Tabasco in Mexico.
 April 22d, he arrives at San Juan de Ulloa.
 Vera Cruz settled by Cortez.
 Nov. 8th, he enters Mexico.
1520. Montezuma dies.
 Magellan discovers Patagonia.
 De Ayllon discovers Carolina.
1521. Death of Guatemozin, and conquest of Mexico by Cortez.
1522. Bermudas discovered by Juan Bermudez.
1524. Verrazani explores the coast of North America.
1525. First invasion of Peru by Pizarro and Almagro.
1526. Sebastian Cabot explores the La Plata.
1531. Second invasion of Peru by Pizarro.
1533. Lima founded by Pizarro.
1535. Chili invaded by Almagro.
 Cartier explores the St. Lawrence.
1537. California discovered by Cortez.
1539. Ferdinand de Soto heads an expedition to conquer Florida.
1540. Orellana explores the Amazon from Peru to the Atlantic.
1541. De Soto discovers the Mississippi.
1545. Silver mines of Potosi discovered.
1548. Platina discovered in the south of Mexico.
1549. Roberval sails for Canada with a colony.
1562. Coligny attempts to found a colony of French Protestants in Florida.
1563. Slaves first imported into the West Indies by the English.
1565. St. Augustine founded by the Spaniards.
1576. Elizabeth's and Frobisher's Straits discovered by Martin Frobisher.
1584. Sir Walter Raleigh dispatches two vessels to Virginia.
1585. He attempts to found a colony at Roanoke.
1586. Discovery of Davis's Straits.
 Tobacco introduced into England by Mr. Lane.
1587. Aug. 13th, first Indian baptized in Virginia.
1602. May 15th, Cape Cod discovered and named by Bartholomew Gosnold.
 May 21st, he discovers Martha's Vineyard.
1603. Coast of Maine visited by Martin Pring.
1605. Port Royal, Acadie [Nova Scotia], founded by the French under De Monts.
1606. James I. grants North Virginia to the Plymouth Company, and South Virginia to the London Company.
1607. The Plymouth Company send George Popham to found the "Sagadahoc Colony," at the mouth of the Kennebec, in North Virginia.
 The London Company send Christopher Newport to found the "Jamestown Colony," in South Virginia.
 May 13th, Jamestown is founded.
1608. July 3d, Quebec founded by Champlain.
 Pocahontas saves the life of Captain John Smith of Virginia.
1609. Hudson River discovered by Henry Hudson.
1610. Delaware Bay named in honor of Lord de la War, who visited the bay at that time and died on his vessel at its mouth.

- 1611. Lake Champlain discovered by Champlain.
- 1613. Pocahontas weds John Rolfe.
- 1614. New York settled by the Dutch on Manhattan Island (now New York) and at Fort Orange (Albany).
- 1616. Tobacco first cultivated in Virginia.
Baffin's Bay discovered by Baffin.
- 1617. Pocahontas dies in England.
- 1619. June 19th, first colonial assembly in Virginia.
- 1620. Slaves first introduced into Virginia by the Dutch.
Nov. 10th, the Mayflower anchors in Cape Cod harbor; first white child born in New England.
Dec. 11th, landing of the Puritans at Plymouth.
- 1621. May 12th, first marriage at Plymouth.
- 1622. Massacre of 347 men, women, and children of the Virginia colony, by the Indians.
- 1623. Maine and New Hampshire settled by the English.
New Jersey settled by the Swedes and Dutch.
- 1627. Delaware settled by Swedes and Finns.
- 1628. Salem, Mass., founded by John Endicott.
- 1629. Charlestown founded by the Massachusetts Bay colony.
- 1630. Boston, Cambridge, Roxbury, and Dorchester founded.
John Winthrop first governor of Massachusetts Bay colony.
Oct. 19th, first general court holden at Boston.
- 1633. First house erected in Connecticut, at Windsor.
- 1634. Maryland founded by Lord Baltimore.
Roger Williams banished from Massachusetts.
- 1636. Hartford settled.
Providence, R. I., founded by Roger Williams.
- 1637. First synod convened at Newtown (now Cambridge), Mass.
Destruction of the Pequots in Connecticut.
Mrs. Anne Hutchinson banished from Massachusetts.
- 1638. New Haven founded by Eaton and Davenport.
Harvard College founded.
June 1st, earthquake in New England.
- 1639. First printing-press set up at Cambridge, Mass., by Stephen Day.
- 1640. Montreal founded.
- 1642. Oct. 9th, first commencement at Harvard College.
- 1643. May 19th, union of the New England colonies.
- 1645. Clayborne's rebellion in Maryland.
- 1646. First act passed by the general court of Massachusetts, for the spread of the gospel among the Indians.
- 1648. First execution for witchcraft.
New London settled.
- 1650. Harvard College chartered.
Constitution of Maryland settled.
- 1651. Navigation act passed by England, restricting the commerce of the colonies.
- 1652. First mint established in New England.
- 1654. Yale College first projected by Mr. Davenport.
- 1655. Stuyvesant captures the Swedish settlement in Delaware.
Conquest of Jamaica by the English.

- 1656. First arrival of Quakers in Massachusetts, and persecution.
- 1659. Four Quakers executed on Boston Common.
- 1660. Restoration of monarchy in England under Charles II. ; the regicides Whalley and Goffe seek refuge in New England.
- 1663. Carolina granted to Lord Clarendon by Charles II.
- 1664. Aug 27th, surrender of New Amsterdam to the English.
- 1665. June 12th, New York city incorporated.
Elizabethtown, N. J., settled.
- 1672. Charleston, S. C., founded.
First copyright granted by Massachusetts.
- 1673. New York retaken by the Dutch ; restored in 1674.
Mississippi River explored by Marquette and Joliet.
- 1675. June 24th, commencement of King Philip's war ; attack on Swanzev.
- 1676. Aug. 12th, death of King Philip.
New Jersey divided into East and West Jersey.
Bacon's rebellion in Virginia.
- 1681. Grant of Pennsylvania to William Penn.
- 1682. Oct. 24th, Penn arrives in America.
De la Salle takes possession of the country on both sides of the Mississippi River, and calls it Louisiana.
- 1683. First legislative assembly in New York.
Roger Williams dies, in his eighty-fourth year.
- 1686. First Episcopal parish formed in Boston.
Sir Edmund Andros appointed governor of New England by James II.
Massachusetts deprived of her charter.
- 1687. First printing-press established near Philadelphia by William Bradford.
- 1688. New York and New Jersey united to New England under Sir Edmund Andros.
- 1689. William III. accedes to the English throne.
Sir Edmund Andros seized and imprisoned in Boston, and sent home to England.
War between England and France.
- 1690. Feb. 8th, Schenectady burned by the French and Indians.
First paper money issued in Massachusetts.
Successful expedition of Sir William Phips against Port Royal, Nova Scotia.
- 1691. Trial and execution of Leisler and Milborne at New York, on a charge of treason.
- 1692. Massachusetts Bay colony and Plymouth colony united under a new charter.
The witchcraft delusion rife at Salem.
William and Mary College, Virginia, chartered.
- 1693. Episcopal church established at New York.
First printing-press established in New York, by William Bradford.
- 1695. Rice introduced into Carolina from Africa.
- 1696. Indian attack on Haverhill.
- 1697. Peace of Ryswick ; close of King William's war.
- 1698. First French colony arrive at the mouth of the Mississippi.
Earl of Bellamont governor of New York.
- 1699. Kidd the pirate apprehended at Boston.
- 1701. Yale College founded at Saybrook.
Commencement of Queen Anne's war.
- 1702. Episcopal church established in New Jersey and Rhode Island.

1703. Culture of silk introduced into Carolina.
Duty of £4 laid on imported negroes in Massachusetts.
1704. Tonnage duty laid by Rhode Island on foreign vessels.
Act "to prevent the growth of popery," passed by Maryland.
First newspaper (*Boston News Letter*) published at Boston, by Bartholomew Green.
French and Indians attack Deerfield, Mass.
1706. Bills of credit issued by Carolina.
1709. First printing-press in Connecticut, set up at New London, by Thomas Short.
1710. First colonial post-office at New York.
German settlements in North Carolina.
Nova Scotia permanently annexed to the British crown.
1711. South Sea Company incorporated.
1712. Free schools founded in Charlestown, Mass.
1713. The Tuscaroras join the Five Nations.
Peace of Utrecht; close of Queen Anne's war.
1714. First schooner built at Cape Ann.
1717. New Orleans founded by the French.
Yale College removed from Saybrook to New Haven.
1718. Impost duties laid by Massachusetts on English manufactures and English ships.
1719. First Presbyterian church founded in New York.
1720. Tea first used in New England.
1721. Inoculation for small-pox introduced into New England.
1722. Paper money first issued in Pennsylvania.
1724. Fort Dummer built in Vermont.
1725. First newspaper in New York (*New York Gazette*) published by William Bradford.
1726. First printing-presses established in Virginia and Maryland.
1727. Earthquake in New England.
1729. North and South Carolina separated.
1730. First printing-press and newspaper established at Charleston, S. C.
1731. Fort built at Crown Point.
1732. Tobacco made a legal tender in Maryland at 1d. per pound, and corn at 20d. per bushel.
Feb. 22d, George Washington born.
First printing-press and newspaper established at Newport, R. I.
1733. Georgia settled by Oglethorpe.
Freemasons' lodge first held in Boston.
1737. Earthquake in New Jersey.
1738. College founded at Princeton, N. J.
1741. Jan. 1st, *General Magazine and Historical Chronicle*, first published by Benjamin Franklin.
1742. Faneuil Hall erected at Boston by Peter Faneuil.
1744. King George's war begins.
1745. Louisburg, on Cape Breton Island, taken by the English.
1748. Treaty of Aix la Chapelle; King George's war closed.
1750. First theatrical performance in Boston.
1753. George Washington sent on an embassy to the French commandant on the Ohio.
1754. Columbia College in New York founded.
Beginning of the old French war.

1754. April 18th, Fort Du Quesne built.
 May 28th, Washington defeats a party of French under Jumonville at the Great Meadows.
 July 4th, Benjamin Franklin proposes a plan of union for the colonies.
 Tennessee first settled.
1755. June 4th, Col. Monckton destroys the French settlements on the Bay of Fundy.
 July 9th, Braddock's defeat.
 Sept. 8th, battle of Lake George.
 Expeditions against Niagara and Crown Point.
 First newspaper (*Connecticut Gazette*) published at New Haven.
1756. May 17th, war declared with France by Great Britain.
 Loudon and Abercrombie command the British forces in America; Montcalm the French.
 First printing-press and newspaper established at Portsmouth, N. H., by Daniel Fowle.
1757. Fort William Henry taken by the French.
1758. July 26th, Louisburg taken by the English.
 Aug. 27th, Fort Frontenac taken by the English.
 Nov. 25th, Fort Du Quesne (now Pittsburg) taken by the English.
1759. Niagara, Ticonderoga, and Crown Point taken by the English, in July.
 Sept. 13th, battle on the Plains of Abraham; Wolfe and Montcalm slain.
 Sept. 18th, Quebec surrenders to the English.
1761. March 12th, earthquake in New England.
1763. Feb. 10th, treaty of Paris; France surrenders to Great Britain all her possessions in North America east of the Mississippi.
 First newspaper printed in Georgia.
1764. March, right to tax American colonies voted by house of commons.
 April 5th, first act for levying revenue passed by parliament.
 April 21st, Louisiana ordered to be given up to Spain.
1765. The stamp act passed by parliament; it receives the royal assent March 22d.
 May 29th, Virginia resolutions against the right of taxation.
 June 6th, Massachusetts proposes a congress of deputies from the colonies.
 Oct. 7th, a congress of twenty-seven delegates convenes at New York, and publishes a declaration of rights and resolutions against the stamp act.
1766. February, Dr. Franklin examined before the house of commons, relative to the repeal of the stamp act.
 March 18th, the stamp act repealed.
1767. June 20th, taxes laid on paper, glass, painters' colors, and teas.
 Non-importation agreements adopted by the colonial assemblies.
1768. February, circular issued by the Massachusetts assembly to the other colonies, to unite in obtaining a redress of grievances.
1769. Dartmouth College incorporated.
 American Philosophical Society at Philadelphia.
1770. March 5th, the Boston massacre; citizens killed by British troops in State street.
 April 12th, Lord North's partial repeal act passed.
1773. Dec. 16th, destruction of 342 chests of tea in Boston harbor.
1774. March 31st, Boston port bill passed by parliament; declaring that no person should be allowed to land or discharge, or to ship, any wares or merchandise at the port of Boston.

1774. Gen. Gage fortifies Boston Neck.
 The members of the Massachusetts assembly resolve themselves into a provincial congress.
 Sept. 4th, continental congress meets at Philadelphia.
 Dr. Franklin dismissed from the post-office.
 Committees of "safety" and "supplies" appointed by Massachusetts; twelve thousand men to be equipped for service.
1775. Several ships of the line and ten thousand troops ordered to America.
 April 19th, battle of Lexington.
 May 10th, Ticonderoga and Crown Point taken by the provincials under Ethan Allen.
 Congress votes to raise an army of twenty thousand men.
 June 15th, George Washington appointed commander-in-chief of the American army.
 June 17th, battle of Bunker's Hill.
 July 12th, Washington takes command of the army at Cambridge.
 Sir William Howe succeeds Gen. Gage as commander of the royal forces in America.
 The royal governors take refuge on board the British shipping.
 Dec. 13th, resolution of Congress to fit out a navy of thirteen ships.
 Dec. 31st, assault on Quebec; Gen. Montgomery falls, and Gen. Arnold is wounded.
1776. Jan. 1st, Lord Dunmore burns Norfolk, Va.
 March 4th, Washington fortifies Dorchester Heights.
 March 17th, the British evacuate Boston.
 April, Washington removes his army to New York.
 June 28th, repulse of the British at Charleston.
 July 4th, declaration of independence.
 Dr. Franklin sent to Paris, to obtain the favor of the French government.
 Aug. 27th, battle of Long Island; the British victorious.
 Washington abandons New York city; the British take possession, Sept. 15th.
 Oct. 28th, battle of White Plains.
 Nov. 16th and 18th, the British take Fort Washington and Fort Mifflin.
 November and December, Washington retreats through New Jersey.
 Dec. 26th, battle of Trenton; Washington captures one thousand Hessians.
1777. Jan. 3d, battle of Princeton; the British are defeated.
 Washington encamps at Morristown.
 April 26th, Tryon destroys Danbury, Conn.
 Lafayette arrives from France with troops and supplies; congress gives him a major-general's commission, July 31st.
 Aug. 16th, battle of Bennington.
 Sept. 11th, battle of Brandywine.
 Sept. 19th, battle of Stillwater.
 Sept. 26th, the British occupy Philadelphia.
 Oct. 4th, battle of Germantown.
 Oct. 7th, battle of Saratoga.
 Oct. 17th, surrender of the British army under Burgoyne.
 Nov. 15th, articles of confederation adopted by congress, and finally ratified by the states in March, 1781, Maryland being the last to accept them.
 Nov. 16th and 18th, the British capture Forts Mifflin and Mercer on the Delaware.
 Dec. 8th, Washington's army encamps at Valley Forge.
 Conspiracy to supplant Washington.

1778. Feb. 6th, treaty of alliance with France ; she acknowledges the independence of the United States.
 March 11th, Lord North's conciliatory bills passed by parliament.
 June 18th, the British evacuate Philadelphia.
 June 28th, battle of Monmouth.
 July 11th, arrival of a French fleet under Count d'Estaing.
 July 3d and 4th, massacre of Wyoming.
 Aug. 30th, Gen. Sullivan retreats from Rhode Island.
 Dec. 29th, Savannah taken by the British.
1779. March 3d, battle of Briar Creek.
 May 14th, Norfolk taken by the British.
 June 16th, war between England and Spain.
 June 20th, battle of Stono Ferry.
 July 5th and 7th, Fairfield and Norwalk, Conn., burned by the British.
 July 16th, storming of Stony Point by the Americans under Wayne.
 July and August, Sullivan's expedition against the Indians on the Susquehannah.
 Sept. 23d, Paul Jones captures two British frigates off the coast of Scotland.
 Oct. 9th, repulse of the Americans at Savannah.
1780. April 14th, battle at Monk's Corner, S. C.
 May 6th, battle on the Santee River.
 May 12th, surrender of Gen. Lincoln and American army at Charleston.
 July 12th, arrival at Rhode Island of French fleet and army, under Admiral de Ternay and Count de Rochambeau.
 Aug. 16th, battle of Sander's Creek, near Camden ; Gates defeated.
 Sept. 23d, treason of Gen. Arnold, and arrest of Major Andre.
 Oct. 2d, Major Andre hanged.
 Oct. 7th, battle of King's Mountain.
 Nov. 12th, Battle of Broad River.
 Nov. 20th, battle at Blackstock.
 Dec. 20th, war between England and Holland.
1781. Jan. 1st, revolt of the Pennsylvania troops at Morristown.
 Bank of North America established.
 Expedition of the British under Arnold to Virginia.
 Gen. Greene appointed to command the Southern army.
 Jan. 17th, battle of the Cowpens.
 January and February, remarkable retreat of Gen. Greene across the Catawba, Yadkin, and Dan Rivers.
 March 15th, battle of Guilford Court-house.
 April 25th, battle of Hobkirk's Hill near Camden.
 Aug. 14th, American and French allied army march from the Hudson near New York to Virginia ; Cornwallis is hemmed in at Yorktown.
 Sept. 6th, burning of New London by Arnold.
 Sept. 8th, battle of Eutaw Springs, and close of the campaign in South Carolina.
 Sept. 30th, siege of Yorktown by the Americans and French.
 Oct. 19th, surrender of Cornwallis and 7,000 troops at Yorktown.
1782. Feb. 27th, resolutions of the house of commons in favor of peace.
 March 20th, resignation of Lord North, and accession of a whig administration under the Marquis of Rockingham.

1782. April 17th, Holland acknowledges our independence.
 June 24th, last battle of the Revolutionary war—a skirmish near Savannah; some slight skirmishes in South Carolina in August, in one of which Col. John Laurens of South Carolina was slain.
 Nov. 30th, preliminaries of peace between the United States and Great Britain signed at Paris.
1783. Jan. 20th, preliminary treaties between France, Spain, and Great Britain, signed at Versailles.
 Independence of the United States acknowledged by Sweden, Feb. 5th; by Denmark, Feb. 25th; by Spain, March 24th; and by Russia, in July.
 April 11th, peace proclaimed by congress; April 19th, announced to the army by Washington.
 Sept. 3d, definitive treaties of peace between England and the United States, France, Spain, and Holland.
 Oct. 18th, proclamation for disbanding the army; Nov. 2d, Washington's farewell orders.
 Nov. 25th, New York evacuated by the British.
 Dec. 23d, Washington resigns his commission.
1784. February, first voyage from China to New York.
1785. Treaty with Prussia.
 June 2d, John Adams, the first ambassador from the United States to Great Britain, has his first interview with George III.
1786. Shay's insurrection in Massachusetts.
1787. May to September, convention to form a federal constitution in session at Philadelphia.
1788. Federal constitution adopted by eleven states.
1789. George Washington elected president; inaugurated April 30th.
1790. District of Columbia ceded by Virginia and Maryland.
 May 29th, federal constitution adopted by Rhode Island.
1791. March 4th, Vermont admitted into the Union.
 Bank of the United States established.
1792. June 1st, Kentucky admitted into the Union.
1793. Washington re-elected president.
 Death of John Hancock.
1794. Insurrection in Pennsylvania.
1796. June 1st, Tennessee admitted into the Union.
 Dec. 7th, Washington's last speech to congress.
1797. March 4th, John Adams inaugurated president.
1798. Washington reappointed commander-in-chief; war with France threatened.
1799. Dec. 14th, death of Washington.
1800. Seat of government removed to the city of Washington.
 May 13th, disbanding of the provisional army.
1801. March 4th, Thomas Jefferson inaugurated president.
1802. July 20th, Louisiana ceded to France by Spain.
1803. Feb. 19th, Ohio admitted into the Union.
 April 30th, Louisiana purchased by the United States.
 August, Commodore Preble bombards Tripoli.
1804. Alexander Hamilton killed by Aaron Burr in a duel.

1805. June 3d, treaty of peace with Tripoli.
1806. Expedition of Lewis and Clarke to the Columbia River.
1807. Trial of Aaron Burr for treason.
 June 22d, attack on the frigate Chesapeake.
 July 2d, interdict to armed British vessels.
 Nov. 11th, British orders in council, prohibiting all neutral nations from trading with France or her allies, excepting upon a payment of tribute to England.
 Dec. 17th, Bonaparte's Milan decree, confiscating all vessels submitting to search by an English ship, or paying the above tribute.
 Dec. 22d, embargo laid by the United States government.
 Steamboat invented by Robert Fulton.
1808. Jan. 1st, the slave trade abolished.
 April 17th, Bayonne decree.
1809. March 1st, the embargo repealed.
 March 4th, James Madison inaugurated president.
1810. March 23d, Rambouillet decree.
1811. May 16th, engagement between the President and Little Belt.
 Nov. 7th, battle of Tippecanoe.
1812. April 3d, embargo laid for ninety days.
 April 8th, Louisiana admitted into the Union.
 June 18th, war declared.
 June 23d, British orders in council repealed.
 Aug. 15th, surrender of Gen. Hull at Detroit.
 Aug. 19th, capture of the frigate Guerriere, Capt. Dacres, by the frigate Constitution, Capt. Hull.
 Oct. 13th, defeat of the Americans at Queensstown.
 Oct. 18th, capture of the British brig Frolic by the United States sloop Wasp.
 Oct. 25th, capture of the British frigate Macedonian by the frigate United States, Capt. Decatur.
 Dec. 29th, victory over the British frigate Java by the Constitution, Capt. Bainbridge.
1813. Feb. 25th, the Hornet, Capt. Lawrence, captures the British sloop Peacock.
 April 27th, capture of York, Upper Canada.
 May 27th, battle of Fort George.
 June 1st, capture of the frigate Chesapeake, Capt. Lawrence, by the British frigate Shannon.
 Aug. 14th, American sloop Argus taken by the British sloop Pelican.
 Sept. 10th, Commodore Perry's victory on Lake Erie.
 Oct. 5th, battle of the Thames; Tecumseh is slain.
 Dec. 13th, Buffalo burnt.
1814. March 28th, action between the frigates Essex and Phœbe; the former captured.
 July 5th, battle of Chippewa.
 July 25th, battle of Bridgewater, or Lundy's Lane.
 Aug. 9th, 11th, Stonington bombarded.
 Aug. 25th, the British occupy the city of Washington, and burn the capitol.
 Sept. 11th, Macdonough's victory on Lake Champlain.
 Sept. 12th, battle near Baltimore, and bombardment of Fort McHenry.
 Dec. 24th, treaty of Ghent signed.

1815. Jan. 8th, battle of New Orleans.
 Feb. 17th, treaty of Ghent ratified by the president.
 March, war declared with Algiers.
1816. December, Indiana admitted into the Union.
1817. March 4th, James Monroe inaugurated President.
 Dec. 10th, Mississippi admitted into the Union.
1818. Dec. 3d, Illinois admitted into the Union.
1819. Dec. 14th, Alabama admitted into the Union.
 First steamship sailed for Europe.
1820. March 15th, Maine admitted into the Union.
 Cession of Florida to the United States ratified by Spain.
1821. Gas first used for lighting streets in the United States, at Baltimore.
 July 1st, Jackson takes possession of Florida.
 Aug. 10th, Missouri admitted into the Union.
 First settlement of Liberia.
1824. March 13th, convention with Great Britain for the suppression of the slave trade.
 April 5th, convention with Russia in relation to the north-west boundary.
 Aug. 13th, arrival of Gen. Lafayette, on a visit to the United States.
1825. March 4th, John Quincy Adams inaugurated president.
 Sept. 7th, departure of Lafayette.
1826. July 4th, John Adams and Thomas Jefferson die.
1829. Feb. 20th, resolutions passed by the Virginia house of delegates, denying the right of congress to pass the tariff bill.
 March 4th, Andrew Jackson inaugurated president.
 May 2d, hail falls in Tuscaloosa, Ala., to the depth of twelve inches.
 May 17th, death of John Jay, at Bedford, New York.
 Sept. 15th, slavery abolished in Mexico.
 Nov. 9th, separation of Yucatan from Mexico, and union with the republic of Central America.
 Dec. 4th, revolution commences in Mexico.
1830. Jan. 20th, Gen. Bolivar resigns his military and civil commissions.
 Jan. 27th, city of Guatemala nearly destroyed by earthquakes.
 April 4th, Yucatan declares its independence.
1831. Jan. 12th, remarkable eclipse of the sun.
 July 4th, death of James Monroe.
 Oct. 1st, free-trade convention at Philadelphia.
 Oct. 26th, tariff convention at New York.
1832. Feb. 6th, attack on Qualla Battoo in Sumatra by the United States frigate Potomac.
 June 8th, cholera breaks out at Quebec, its first appearance in America.
 Aug. 27th, capture of Black Hawk.
 Sept. 26th, University of New York organized.
 November, union and state-rights convention of South Carolina.
 Dec. 28th, John Caldwell Calhoun resigns the office of vice-president.
 Electro-magnetic telegraph invented by Professor Morse.
1833. March 1st, new tariff bill signed by the president.
 March 4th, Andrew Jackson inaugurated president for a second term.
 March 11th, state-rights convention of South Carolina.
 May 16th, Santa Anna inaugurated president of Mexico.

1833. Oct. 1st, public deposits removed from the Bank of the United States, by order of Gen. Jackson.
 Nov. 13th, remarkable meteoric showers in the United States.
1834. March 28th, vote of censure by the senate against Gen. Jackson, for removing the deposits. (Expunged soon after.)
1835. April 18th, French indemnity bill passed the chamber of deputies.
 Dec. 16th, great fire in New York.
 Seminole war in Florida begun.
1836. April 21st, battle of San Jacinto in Texas.
 June 14th, Arkansas admitted into the Union.
 Dec. 15th, burning of the general post-office and patent-office at Washington.
1837. Jan. 26th, Michigan admitted into the Union.
 March 4th, Martin Van Buren inaugurated president.
1840. Jan. 19th, Antarctic continent discovered by the United States exploring expedition.
 June 30th, sub-treasury bill becomes a law.
1841. March 4th, William Henry Harrison inaugurated president.
 April 4th, death of Gen. Harrison; John Tyler succeeds to the executive.
 Aug. 9th, sub-treasury bill repealed.
 Aug. 18th, bankrupt act becomes a law.
1842. March 3d, bankrupt act repealed.
 Contest for the extension of suffrage in Rhode Island.
 June 17th, Bunker Hill monument celebration.
 Aug. 9th, treaty of Washington negotiated by Daniel Webster and Lord Ashburton, defining our north-eastern boundary, and for suppressing the slave trade and giving up fugitive criminals.
 Oct. 2d, death of Dr. Channing.
1845. March 1st, Texas annexed to the United States.
 March 3d, Florida admitted into the Union.
 March 4th, James Knox Polk inaugurated president.
 June 8th, death of Andrew Jackson.
 Dec. 24th, Texas admitted into the Union.
 Treaty with China.
1846. May 8th, battle of Palo Alto, on the Rio Grande.
 May 9th, battle of Resaca de la Palma, on the Rio Grande.
 May 13th, proclamation of war existing with Mexico.
 June 18th, the senate advise the president to confirm the treaty with Great Britain settling the boundary of Oregon on the forty-ninth parallel.
 July 28th, new tariff bill passed.
 Aug. 3d, President Polk vetoes the river and harbor bill.
 Aug. 6th, revolution in Mexico in favor of Santa Anna.
 Aug. 8th, President Polk vetoes the French spoliation bill.
 Aug. 10th, congress adjourns.
 Aug. 18th, Gen. Kearney takes possession of Santa Fe.
 Aug. 19th, Commodore Stockton blockades the Mexican ports on the Pacific.
 Sept. 20th to 24th, storming of Monterey, and surrender of Gen. Ampudia.
 Sept. 26th, California expedition with Col. Stevenson's regiment of 780 officers and men sails from New York.

1846. Oct. 25th, Tabasco in Mexico bombarded by Commodore Perry.
 Nov. 14th, Commodore Conner takes Tampico.
 Dec. 6th, Gen. Kearney defeats the Mexicans at San Pasqual.
 Dec. 25th, Col. Doniphan defeats the Mexicans at Brazito, near El Paso.
 Dec. 28th, Iowa admitted into the Union.
1847. Jan. 8th, the Mexican congress resolve to raise \$15,000,000 on the property of the clergy, for the war with the United States.
 Jan. 8th and 9th, battles of San Gabriel and Mesa in California; Gen. Kearney defeats the Mexicans.
 Jan. 14th, revolt of the Mexicans in New Mexico against the United States authorities.
 Jan. 24th, battle of Canada, in New Mexico; the Americans under Col. Price are successful.
 Feb. 22d and 23d, battle of Buena Vista.
 Feb. 28th, battle of Sacramento; Col. Doniphan and 924 Americans defeat 4,000 Mexicans.
 March 1st, Gen. Kearney declares California a part of the United States.
 March 29th, city and castle of Vera Cruz taken by the army and fleet under Gen. Scott and Commodore Perry.
 April 2d, Alvarado taken by Lieut. Hunter.
 April 18th, battle of Cerro Gordo.
 April 18th, Tuspan taken by Commodore Perry.
 Aug. 20th, battles of Contreras and Churubusco.
 Sept. 8th, Gen. Worth storms Molina del Rey.
 Sept. 13th, storming of the citadel of Chapultepec.
 Sept. 14th, the American army enters the city of Mexico.
 Sept. 13th to Oct. 12th, siege of Puebla, held by the Americans against the Mexicans; the latter are repulsed by the former under Col. Childs.
 Oct. 9th, the city of Huamantla taken by the Americans, under Gen. Lane.
 Oct. 20th, port of Guayamas bombarded and captured by the Americans.
 Dec. 31st, the several Mexican states occupied by the American army placed under military contributions.
1848. Feb. 18th, Gen. Scott relinquishes the command in Mexico to Gen. Butler.
 Feb. 23d, John Quincy Adams expires in the capitol at Washington.
 May 29th, Wisconsin admitted into the Union.
 May 30th, treaty of peace between the United States and Mexico, which had been signed at Guadalupe Hidalgo, Feb. 2d, 1848, afterward modified at Washington, and confirmed by the Mexican congress,—ratified at Queretaro by the American commissioners, Sevier and Clifford, and the Mexican minister of foreign relations, Don Luis de la Rosa. It is proclaimed in the United States, July 4th, 1848.
 July 4th, corner-stone of a monument to Gen. Washington laid at Washington; oration by Robert C. Winthrop, speaker of the house of representatives.
 Aug. 13th, Oregon territorial bill, with a prohibition of slavery, passed by congress.
 Dec. 8th, first deposit of California gold in the mint.
1849. March 5th, inauguration of Zachary Taylor as president.
 May 15th, the cholera breaks out in New York.
 June 15th, death of James Knox Polk, at Nashville, Tenn.
 Aug. 11th, President Taylor issues his proclamation against the armed expedition fitting out for Cuba.

1849. Aug. 31st, convention of delegates, called by Gen. Riley of the United States army, to frame a state constitution for California, meet at Monterey.
 Oct. 10th, initial point of the boundary line with Mexico settled, and a monument with inscriptions erected. Lat. $32^{\circ} 31' 59.58''$ Long. $119^{\circ} 35' 0.15''$ west from Greenwich.
 Nov. 19th, the survey of the boundary line between Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland, comprising the greater part of Mason and Dixon's line, is completed.
1850. Feb. 12th, the original manuscript of Washington's Farewell Address is sold at auction, by the heirs of Mr. Claypole, printer, and purchased by James Lenox, of New York, for \$2,300.
 Feb. 22d, President Taylor attends the laying of the corner-stone of the Virginia monument to Washington at Richmond.
 March 31st, death of John Caldwell Calhoun at Washington.
 April 27th, the Collins line of steamers goes into operation; the Atlantic sails from New York for Liverpool.
 May 23d, two vessels, the *Advance* and the *Rescue*, fitted out by Henry Grinnell, of New York, to search for Sir John Franklin in the Arctic seas, sail from New York.
 July 9th, death of President Taylor at Washington.
 July 10th, Millard Fillmore takes the oath of office as president.
 Sept. 9th, California admitted into the Union, and the territories of Utah and New Mexico organized.
 Sept. 18th, fugitive slave bill passed.
 Sept. 20th, act passed for the suppression of the slave trade in the District of Columbia.
 Sept. 17th, death of James Fenimore Cooper.
1851. Dec. 24th, principal room of the congressional library destroyed by fire, with loss of about 35,000 volumes.
1852. June 29th, Henry Clay dies at Washington.
 Oct. 24th, Daniel Webster dies at Marshfield.
1853. March 4th, Franklin Pierce inaugurated president.
 July 2d, Koszta affair at Smyrna; Capt. Ingraham demands Koszta's release.
 July 14th, crystal palace at New York opened.
1854. Feb. 28th, the American mail steamer *Black Warrior* seized at Havana.
 March 23d, commercial treaty concluded between Japan and the United States by Commodore Perry.
 July 13th, American sloop of war *Cyane*, Capt. Hollins, bombards San Juan de Nicaragua, or Greytown.
 Aug. 2d, reciprocity treaty with Great Britain ratified, respecting the Newfoundland fisheries, international trade, &c.
1855. Troubles in Kansas.
 July, dispute with the British government concerning the attempt to recruit for the Crimean army in the United States.
 Sept. 7th, the first Hebrew temple in the Mississippi valley is consecrated in St. Louis.
 Oct. 17th, barque *Maury* seized at New York on suspicion of being intended for the Russian service in the war; she is discharged Oct. 19th.
 Oct. 24th, snow in Vermont, northern New York, Louisville, Ky., and Nashville, Tenn.

1855. Dec. 23d, British discovery ship *Resolute*, abandoned in the Arctic seas by her officers and crew, is brought into New London by a whaler.
1856. Jan. 23d, the Collins steamer *Pacific*, Capt. Asa Eldridge, leaves Liverpool for New York, and is never heard from afterward.
- April 11th, the great bridge across the Mississippi at Rock Island completed, and locomotives pass from the Illinois to the Iowa side.
- April 15th, affray at Panama between the passengers of the American Transit Company and the natives, in which thirty passengers are killed and twenty wounded.
- May 18th, the vigilance committee of San Francisco take the murderers Casey and Cora from the jail, try them, and on the 22d hang them.
- May 22d, Charles Sumner, senator from Massachusetts, violently assaulted in the senate chamber at Washington by Preston S. Brooks, representative from South Carolina.
- May 28th, Mr. Crampton, the British envoy at Washington, dismissed by our government.
- July, a submarine diver from Buffalo raises the safe of the American Express Company, which was lost with the steamer *Atlantic* in 1852; its contents are in a good state of preservation.
- Aug. 10th, Last Island, a summer resort on the Louisiana coast, is entirely submerged during a terrific storm of three days; 173 persons are lost.
- Aug. 21st, the famous Charter Oak at Hartford blown down.
- Aug. 28th, the Dudley Observatory at Albany inaugurated.
- Nov. 9th, death of John Middleton Clayton, at Dover, Del.
- Dec. 30th, the Arctic discovery ship *Resolute*, purchased from its finders and refitted by the United States, is surrendered to the British government at Portsmouth, England, by Capt. Hartstein on behalf of the United States.
1857. Feb. 16th, Elisha Kent Kane dies at Havana.
- March 4th, James Buchanan inaugurated president.
- March 6th, Chief Justice Taney delivers the opinion of the supreme court in the famous *Dred Scott* case.
- Aug. 5th, the shore end of the Atlantic telegraph cable is received from the United States steam-frigate *Niagara*, with much ceremony, at Valencia Bay, by the lord-lieutenant of Ireland, and is made fast.
- Aug. 7th, the *Agamemnon* and *Niagara*, with their attendant vessels, leave Valencia Bay, the *Niagara* paying out the cable.
- Aug. 11th, the cable breaks, 335 miles having been paid out.
- Sept. 15th, Brigham Young forbids any armed force entering Salt Lake City on any pretense, orders the Mormon troops to hold themselves in readiness, and declares martial law.
- Sept. 26th, the Philadelphia banks suspend specie payments.
- Oct. 14th, the New York banks suspend specie payments.
- Oct. 15th, the Boston banks suspend specie payments.
- Dec. 12th, the New York banks resume specie payments, and on the 14th the Boston banks.
- Dec. 14th, the Utah army reaches Fort Bridger, and encamps for the winter.
1858. April 10th, Thomas Hart Benton dies at Washington, aged seventy-six.
- May 11th, Minnesota admitted into the Union.

1858. June 14th, Gov. Cumming of Utah proclaims pardon for all treason and sedition heretofore committed in the territory.
- Aug. 5th, news of the successful laying of the Atlantic telegraph cable is received throughout the country with great demonstrations of joy. The cable was spliced in mid ocean July 29th; the Agamemnon reached Valencia, Aug. 4th, and the Niagara Trinity Bay, Aug. 5th.
- Aug. 16th, first message sent across the Atlantic telegraph cable, from Queen Victoria to President Buchanan.
- Aug. 28th, Rev. Eleazer Williams, who claimed to be the lost dauphin of France, son of Louis XVI., died at Hogsburg, N. Y.
1859. Oregon admitted into the Union.
- Feb. 10, Treaty with Paraguay.
- May 11, Vicksburg Convention resolves in favor of opening slavetrade.
- July 9, Gen. Harney occupies San Juan Island, W. T.; danger of collision with Great Britain.
- Oct. 6, John Brown's seizure of Harper's Ferry; he is taken, and hung Dec. 2.
1860. April 23, Democratic convention meets at Charleston; final nominations, S. A. Douglas, and by a seceding portion, J. C. Breckinridge.
- May 9, Bell and Everett nominated by a "Constitutional Union Convention," at Baltimore.
- May 12, Japanese embassy reaches Hampton Roads; visits Baltimore, Washington, &c.; sails from New York, May 30.
- May 18, Lincoln nominated by Republican convention at Chicago.
- Aug. 5, Walker the "fillibuster" lands in Honduras for the last time; is taken, and shot Sept. 12.
- Sept. 20, The Prince of Wales enters the United States at Detroit; goes to Chicago, Cincinnati, Washington, Richmond, New York; sails from Portland, Oct. 20.
- Nov. 6, A. Lincoln elected president.
- Dec. 20, South Carolina secedes, followed within six months by the ten other states south of Maryland and Kentucky.
1861. Feb. 4, Seceders' convention at Montgomery, Ala.; they call themselves "Confederate States of America," and adopt a constitution.
- Feb. 14, Jeff. Davis made president of the confederates; they raise troops and arm for war.
- April 14, Fort Sumter surrenders after two days' bombardment by the confederates, who seize all U. S. vessels, forts, mints and other property in their states, except Forts Monroe, Taylor, Jefferson and Pickens.
- April 15, President Lincoln calls out 75,000 volunteers to defend Washington against the confederate forces in Virginia.
- April 19, a murderous attack on the Massachusetts troops going through Baltimore to Washington.
- May 24, murder of Col. Ellsworth, during the occupation of Alexandria by U. S. troops.
- June 10, an attack from Fortress Monroe on the confederate battery at Big Bethel, repulsed.
- July 21, the battle of Bull Run lost by the U. S. forces under McDowell.
- Aug. 10, battle of Dug Springs, Mo., won by U. S. troops, but their leader, Gen. Lyon, killed.
- Aug. 29, rebel forts at Hatteras Inlet, and 700 troops, taken by U. S. fleet.

1861. Aug. 30th, Fort Morgan abandoned by the rebels.
 Aug. 31st, Gen. Fremont issues proclamation freeing slaves in Missouri.
 Sept. 3d, Massacre on Hannibal and St. Joseph R. R. ; Platte Bridge burned.
 Sept. 5th, rebels occupy Columbus, Ky. ; union troops next day occupy Paducah.
 Sept. 10th, Rosecrans defeats the rebels under Floyd, at Carnifex Ferry, Va.
 Sept. 12th, 13th, rebels twice defeated in attacks on Cheat Mountain, W. Va. Col. John A. Washington proprietor of Mt. Vernon, killed.
 Sept. 20th, Col. Mulligan surrenders Lexington, Mo., to the rebel Price, after 59 hours without water. Loss, 2,500 prisoners, and a large amount of gold.
 Oct. 3d, Battle of Green Briar, Va. ; rebels defeated, considerable loss.
 Oct. 5th, rebels attack union troops at Chicomacomico, N. C., but destructively shelled by gunboat Monticello and driven off.
 Oct. 9th, rebel attack on Wilson's Zouaves at Santa Rosa Island ; severely repulsed.
 Oct. 11th, rebel steamer Nashville escapes out of Charleston.
 Oct. 12th, rebel ram and fireships attack union fleet at Southwest Pass ; repulsed.
 Oct. 12th, steamer Theodora escapes out of Charleston with Slidell and Mason.
 Oct. 16th, Lexington, Mo., recaptured by union troops.
 Oct. 21st, battle of Ball's Bluff, Va. ; Col. Baker killed, and unionists defeated.
 Oct. 26th, Zagonyi with 162 cavalry, at Springfield, Mo., rout 2,000 rebels.
 Oct. 29th, the Port Royal naval expedition sails from Fortress Monroe, under Dupont.
 Nov. 1st, Lieut. Gen. Winfield Scott placed on retired list with full pay. Gen. McClellan made general-in-chief in his stead.
 Nov. 2d, Fremont removed and Hunter succeeds him in Missouri.
 Nov. 7th, battle of Belmont, Mo. ; Gen. Grant attacks rebels, damaging them much.
 Nov. 7th, union fleet bombards and carries rebel works at Port Royal.
 Nov. 8th, Capt. Wilkes in the San Jacinto takes Slidell and Mason out of the Trent.
 Nov. 9th, Gen. Halleck placed over Department of West, and Gen. Buell in Kentucky.
 Nov. 19th, Missouri legislature passed an ordinance of secession.
 Nov. 22d, 23d, bombardment between Fort Pickens and rebel batteries ; little result.
 Nov. 24th, Mason and Slidell placed in Fort Warren.
 Dec. 3d, Gen. Phelps lands on Ship Island with advance of Gen. Butler's expedition.
 Dec. 4th, John C. Breckinridge expelled from U. S. Senate by unanimous vote.
 Dec. 12th, great fire at Charleston, S. C. One-third of the city burned.
 Dec. 17th, stone fleet sunk to block up mouth of Savannah River.
 Dec. 18th, Gen. Pope defeats rebels with great loss at Shawnee Mound, Mo.
 Dec. 20th, battle of Drainesville ; Gen. McCall severely defeats the rebels.
 Dec. 21st, Charleston harbor shut by sinking a stone fleet at its mouth.
 Dec. 30th, Slidell and Mason surrendered, on the justifiable demand of England.
 Dec. 31st, U. S. forces to-day, 660,971 soldiers, 22,000 sailors, and 246 ships, with 1,892 guns.
1862. Jan. 1st, Fort Pickens breaches Fort Barrancas and burns the navy yard.
 Jan. 8th, battle of Blue Gap, Va. ; rebels defeated after sharp contest.
 Jan. 10th, battle of Middle Creek, Ky, Gen. Garfield severely defeating H. Marshall.
 Jan. 10th, Waldo P. Johnson and Trusten Polk of Mo., expelled from U. S. Senate.
 Jan. 11th, Burnside's expedition leaves Fortress Monroe for North Carolina.
 Jan. 13th, Simon Cameron, Secretary of War, resigned. Edwin M. Stanton appointed his successor.
 Jan. 19th, battle at Mill Springs ; rebels severely defeated and Gen. Zollicoffer killed.

1862. Jan. 30th, Ericsson's Monitor launched at Green Point, L. I.
 Feb. 6th, Fort Henry, on Tennessee River, taken by Commodore Foote's gunboats.
 Feb. 7, 8th, battle of Roanoke I., Burnside taking 2,500 prisoners and the island.
 Feb. 16th, Gen. Grant takes Fort Donelson with over 13,000 prisoners, after four days of tremendous fighting.
 Feb. 18th, the first regular rebel Congress assembled at Richmond.
 Feb. 21st, Gordon the slaver hung at New York; the first execution under U. S. slave trade law.
 Feb. 21st, severe but indecisive battle between Canby and rebels near Fort Graig.
 Feb. 22d, Jeff. Davis inaugurated rebel president for six years.
 Feb. 24th, Gen. Nelson's troops occupy Nashville, the rebels retreating.
 Feb. 25th, the U. S. government seizes all the telegraph lines.
 March 3d, rebel forces evacuate Columbus, Ky., and union troops occupy it.
 March 6th-8th, battle of Pea Ridge, Ark., desperate fight and severe rebel defeat.
 March 8th, rebel ram Virginia (the Merrimac,) comes out of Norfolk, sinks the Cumberland and captures and burns the Congress, U. S. ships of war.
 March 9th, the Monitor engages and drives off the Merrimac, saving the Minnesota.
 March 10th, rebels evacuate position at Manassas Junction, and union forces occupy it.
 March 13th, Gen. Pope drives rebels from New Madrid, taking vast stores, &c.
 March 14th, battle of Newbern; Burnside defeats rebels and occupies the place.
 March 16th, Gen. Garfield surprises and utterly routs the rebels at Pound Gap.
 March 23d, battle of Winchester, Va.; rebels badly defeated, losing over 1,000 besides prisoners.
 April 4th, Army of Potomac advances towards Yorktown; beginning of Peninsular campaign.
 April 6-7th, battle of Shiloh or Pittsburg Landing; rebels gaining first day, but severely defeated on the second, losing 20,000 or more.
 April 7th, Island No. Ten, surrenders to Pope, after 23 days' siege, the position being flanked by cutting a canal. Rebel loss, 13 steamers, 6,000 men, 70 guns, &c.
 April 11th, Fort Pulaski surrendered by rebels after 30 hours' bombardment.
 April 11th, Gen. Mitchel makes a forced march and takes Huntsville, Ala.
 April 16th, bill abolishing slavery in the District of Columbia becomes a law.
 April 18th, bombardment of Forts Jackson and St. Philip, below New Orleans, begun.
 April 19th, battle of Camden or South Mills, N. C., Gen. Reno routs the rebels.
 April 24th, Farragut's fleet runs past Forts Jackson and St. Philip, amid a tremendous cannonade.
 April 25th, Farragut's fleet arrives before New Orleans.
 April 25th, Fort Macon, N. C., taken by union forces, after 11 hours firing.
 April 28th, New Orleans formally surrendered, and Gen. Butler enters. Forts Jackson and St. Philip surrendered the same evening.
 April 29th, Gen. Mitchell defeats the rebels and captures Bridgeport, Ala.
 May 4th, McClellan's forces enter Yorktown, the rebels having fled in the night.
 May 5th, battle at Williamsburg; rebels defeated, and they evacuate at night.
 May 7th, battle of West Point, Va.; rebels driven over the Chickahominy.
 May 9th, Banks having advanced nearly to Staunton, Va., returns down the Valley.
 May 10th, union troops enter Norfolk, the rebels evacuating it.
 May 10th, severe naval fight on the Mississippi near Fort Wright; rebels defeated.
 May 11th, rebels blow up their ram Virginia or Merrimac, at Craney Island.

1862. May 13th, Robert Smalls, a negro, runs steamer Planter out of Charleston.
 May 17th, union gunboats repulsed by Fort Darling on James River.
 May 20th, McClellan's advance within eight miles of Richmond.
 May 22d, McClellan advances in force, crossing the Chickahominy in two places.
 May 22d, Col. Kenly badly defeated at Front Royal by the rebel Ewell; Banks also attacked at same time at Strasburg in the Valley.
 May 23d, McClellan in position 5 miles from Richmond.
 May 25th, Banks defeated at Winchester and retreats to Potomac River.
 May 30th, Halleck's troops occupy Corinth, Miss., the rebels evacuating it.
 May 31st, battle of Fair Oaks, McClellan's advance defeated severely by rebels.
 May 31st, union troops enter Little Rock, Ark., the rebel government running off.
 June 1st, second day's fight at Fair Oaks, resulting in decided union advantages.
 June 1st, Fremont advancing up the Valley, occupies Strasburg.
 June 6th, great naval battle in the river before Memphis; rebel fleet nearly annihilated; Memphis surrendered on the same day to Commodore Davis.
 June 8th, battle of Cross Keys, Va.; rebels retire after a severe fight.
 June 9th, battle of Port Republic, Va.; Gen. Shields driven back with loss.
 June 14th, union troops repulsed with much loss on James Island, near Charleston.
 June 17th, Halleck's forces advance to Holly Springs, Miss.
 June 17th, union gunboats carry rebel works at St. Charles, Ark., but "Mound City" disabled.
 June 20th, bill prohibiting Slavery in the Territories becomes a law.
 June 24th, McClellan begins to "change his base" to James River.
 June 25th, Gen. Pope placed over forces in the Valley, and Gen. Fremont relieved.
 June 26th, battle of Mechanicsville, both sides losing heavily, and union troops retreating.
 June 27th, battle of Gaines' Mill, union troops crossing the Chickahominy at night.
 June 29th, battles of Peach Orchard and Savages' Station; both sides losing heavily.
 June 30th, battles of White Oak Swamp and Charles City Cross Roads, union troops nearing the James, and the gunboats aiding them materially.
 July 1st, battle of Malvern Hill, last of the Seven Days' Battles; rebels repulsed with great loss, and the position on the James maintained. Total union losses in seven days, 15,224.
 July 1st, President Lincoln calls for 600,000 volunteers.
 July 7th, battle of Bayou de Cache, Ark., Gen. Curtis severely defeats Albert Pike.
 July 11th, Gen. Halleck General-in-Chief of all the armies of the U. S.
 July 13th, Murfreesboro', Tenn., taken by rebels, with garrison and Gen. Crittenden.
 July 14th, Gen. Pope takes command of the Army of Virginia and issues address.
 July 15th, battle of Fayetteville, Ark., Maj. Miller thoroughly beating Gens. Rains, Coffee and others.
 July 22d, Vicksburg canal completed and found useless; siege postponed.
 July 27th, Gen. Pope takes the field in northern Virginia.
 Aug. 2d, Gen. Pope's advance crosses the Rapidan and occupies Orange Court House.
 Aug. 3d, rebel Gen. Jeff Thompson defeated with great loss near Memphis.
 Aug. 3d, Gen. Halleck orders McClellan to bring his army out of the Peninsula.
 Aug. 4th, Draft for 300 000 men ordered unless volunteering prevent.
 Aug. 5th, Gen. Breckinridge attacks Baton Rouge, La., and repulsed with heavy loss.
 Aug. 6th, Commander Porter destroys rebel ram Arkansas near Vicksburg.

1862. Aug. 8th, battle in New Mexico, Gen. Canby routing rebels under Sibley, who is killed by his own men.
 Aug. 9th, battle of Cedar Mountain, Va., Banks defeated with heavy loss.
 Aug. 22d, McClellan's advance reaches Alexandria, his removal being safely made.
 Aug. 28th, Sigel and McDowell defeat rebels at Centreville, Va.
 Aug. 29th and 30th, Gen. Pope defeated at Bull Run after very heavy fighting, and falls back.
 Aug. 30th, Gen. Nelson defeated by rebels under Kirby Smith, at Richmond, Ky.
 Sept. 1st, battle of Chantilly, Va.; rebels defeated, but Gens. Kearney and Stevens killed.
 Sept. 3d, Gen. Pope transferred to department of the northwest.
 Sept. 4th, Lee's army begins to cross the Potomac at Poolesville, Md.
 Sept. 14th, battle of South Mountain; rebels pushed back after very heavy fighting. Post at Harper's Ferry surrendered by Col. Miles, to rebels.
 Sept. 16th and 17th, battle of Antietam; rebels defeated, losing 25,000.
 Sept. 17th, Cruiser Alabama takes her first prize, near Azores.
 Sept. 19th, rebels retreat over the Potomac.
 Sept. 20th, Rosecrans wins battle of Iuka over Gen. Price, who loses 1,438 men.
 Sept. 22d, Emancipation Proclamation announced for Jan. 1st, 1863.
 Sept. 24th, proclamation of suspension of writ of habeas corpus in military cases.
 Oct. 3d-5th, severe battles at Corinth, Miss., and very damaging defeat of the rebels.
 Oct. 8-9th, two days battle at Perryville, Ky., Rousseau thoroughly defeats rebels.
 Oct. 10-12th, Stuart's rebel cavalry enter Penn., seize and rob Chambersburg.
 Oct. 22d, Gen. Blunt routs the rebels at Maysville, Arkansas.
 Oct. 26th, Gen. McClellan after repeated orders advances into Virginia.
 Nov. 5th, Gen. McClellan relieved, and Gen. Burnside put in his place.
 Nov. 28, Gen. Blunt defeats the rebel Marmaduke, with heavy loss, at Cane Hill, Ark.
 Dec. 7th, Gens. Blunt and Herron defeat Hindman, at Prairie Grove, Ark.
 Dec. 11th, Burnside's troops cross the river at Fredericksburg.
 Dec. 13th, battle of Fredericksburg; entire failure to carry the rebel positions.
 Dec. 16th, Banks supersedes Butler in the department of the Gulf.
 Dec. 23d, Jeff. Davis issues a proclamation outlawing Gen. Butler.
 Dec. 26th, 29th, Attack of Vicksburg by Gen. Sherman, but it fails.
 Dec. 31st, and next four days; battle of Stone River or Murfreesboro', Rosecrans defeating Bragg after a terrific and exhausting series of combats.
 Dec. 31st, the Monitor founders at sea, off Cape Hatteras.
1863. Jan. 1st, the definite Emancipation Proclamation issued.
 Jan. 11th, Arkansas Post surrenders to Gen. McClelland.
 Jan. 24th, Gen. Hooker succeeds Gen. Burnside over the Army of the Potomac.
 Jan. 27th, monitors in vain bombard Fort McAllister, on Ogeechee River.
 Feb. 25th, act to provide a national currency becomes a law.
 Feb. 28th, rebel steamer Nashville destroyed by the Montauk in Ogeechee River.
 March 8th, twenty-three rebel steamers captured up Yazoo River.
 March 14th, severe bombardment of Port Hudson, and attempt by fleet to pass rebel batteries.
 April 1st, Farragut runs batteries at Grand Gulf, and ravages Red River country.
 April 7th, attack by ironclads on Fort Sumter; five out of seven vessels disabled, fort unhurt.

1863. April 16th, Admiral Porter's fleet of gunboats runs the batteries at Vicksburg.
April 27th, advanced movements of Gen. Hooker's Chancellorsville campaign begin.
May 1st, battle of Thompson's Hills or Port Gibson; beginning of Grant's move to rear of Vicksburg.
May 1-5th, battle of Chancellorsville; indecisive, but great losses on both sides.
May 2d, Col. Grierson's force reaches Baton Rouge safe, after his fifteen days ride through Mississippi.
May 3d, Col. Streight and his command of 1,600 men captured in Ala.
May 5th, Vallandigham arrested for treason at Dayton, O.
May 5th, Hooker's army retires over the Rappahannock; Lee does not follow.
May 10th, death of Stonewall Jackson, from wound at Chancellorsville.
May 14th, battle of Jackson, Miss., Logan and Crocker defeating the rebels and taking the place.
May 15th, battle of Edwards' Station; Grant defeats the rebels.
May 16th, battle of Baker's Creek or Champion Hill; Grant completely routs Pemberton, who loses 4,000 men and 29 guns.
May 17th, battle of Black River Bridge; Grant takes 2,000 men and 17 guns, and Pemberton retreats to Vicksburg.
May 18th, Gen. Grant's troops take position round Vicksburg and the siege begins.
May 25th, Admiral Porter has destroyed ten millions' worth of property up the Yazoo.
June 13th, rebels under Lee are moving northward; Hooker starts to meet them.
June 17th, rebel advance at Chambersburg and in Maryland.
June 17th, rebel ram Atlanta captured by the Weehawken in fifteen minutes.
June 28th, Gen. Meade supersedes Gen. Hooker in command of Army of Potomac.
Lee's forces are within four miles of Harrisburg.
July 1-3d, battle of Gettysburg; Lee defeated and retreats at once southward.
July 4th, unconditional surrender of Vicksburg and 31,000 men to Gen. Grant.
July 8th, Port Hudson with 7,000 men surrenders to Gen. Banks. The Mississippi is thus opened.
July 8-15th, the guerrilla Morgan invades Indiana and Ohio.
July 10th, Gen. Gillmore begins his attack on Forts Wagner and Gregg, Charleston.
July 13th, Lee recrosses the Potomac into Virginia.
July 13-18th, draft riots in New York City, several negroes tortured and hung by mob, and much burning and robbing; 1,300 rioters killed, and riots put down.
July 18th, unsuccessful assault on Fort Wagner.
July 26th, Morgan and 400 guerrillas captured near New Lisbon, Ohio.
Aug. 16th, Rosecrans begins his march upon Chattanooga.
Aug. 21st, Quantrell's guerrillas rob Lawrence, Kansas, murdering several citizens.
Aug. 23d, shells thrown nearly six miles into Charleston; Beauregard protests.
Aug. 30th, Rosecrans crosses the Tennessee River near Chattanooga.
Sept. 1st, Gen. Burnside's advance occupies Knoxville, Tenn.
Sept. 6th, rebels evacuate Forts Wagner and Gregg, and Gillmore occupies them.
Sept. 9th, Rosecrans' advance occupies Chattanooga.
Sept. 12th, the Sabine Pass expedition returns to New Orleans a failure.
Sept. 19th, 20th, battle of Chickamauga; Rosecrans severely defeated by Bragg, losing 15,661.
Oct. 16th, Gen. Grant placed over the three departments of the Ohio, Cumberland and Tennessee.

1863. Oct. 17th, President Lincoln calls for 300,000 more men.
 Oct. 20th, Gen. Thomas succeeds Rosecrans in his command.
 Oct. 28th, Gen. Hooker's forces take Lookout Mountain.
 Nov. 2-4th, Gen Banks' forces occupy Brazos Island, and Brownsville, Texas.
 Nov. 7th, Gen. Meade crosses the Rappahannock southward; Lee retiring.
 Nov. 17th, Burnside, falling back before Longstreet, enters the works at Knoxville; the siege begins.
 Nov. 23-5th, battle of Chattanooga; splendid victory over Bragg, who loses sixty guns and retreats rapidly.
 Nov. 28th, Morgan and six of his officers dig out of Ohio State Prison.
 Nov. 29th, rebels repulsed with great slaughter in attack on Knoxville.
 Dec. 1st, Mead recrosses the Rapidan. Grant's army concentrates at Chattanooga.
 Dec. 4th, Longstreet raises the siege of Knoxville and retreats toward Virginia.
 Dec. 6th, monitor Weehauken sinks at her anchors at Charleston, 31 men lost.
 Dec. 8th, President Lincoln issues his amnesty proclamation.
 Dec. 16th, Gen. Averill's raid destroys vast rebel supplies at Salem in S. W. Virginia.
1864. Jan. 1st, Emancipation anniversary celebrated by many colored people.
 Jan. 25th, Cornelius Vanderbilt thanked by Congress for his gift to the U. S. of the Vanderbilt, worth \$800,000.
 Jan. 29th, Gen. Palmer occupies Tunnel Hill, Ga., the rebels having left in the night.
 Jan. 31st, Gen. Hood having succeeded Bragg, falls back from Ringgold and Dalton.
 Feb. 1st, draft ordered of 500,000 men.
 Feb. 3-5th, Gen. Sherman marches from Vicksburg eastward to Jackson.
 Feb. 7th, Gillmore's advance lands at Jacksonville, Fla., under Gen. Seymour.
 Feb. 14th, Sherman occupies Meridian, Miss., and destroys immense rebel stores.
 Feb. 17th, gunboat Housatonic sunk at Charleston by rebel torpedo boat Davis, which sunk too.
 Feb. 20th, Gen. Seymour with Gilmore's troops very severely defeated at Olustee, Fla.
 Feb. 21-23d, Gen. Smith has three days running fight with Forrest and others in Miss., and at last defeats them.
 Feb. 23d, Gen. Palmer drives the rebels at Tunnel Hill, Ga.
 Feb. 28th, Kilpatrick and Custar start on raid round Richmond; Kilpatrick goes within 2 miles of the city. On this raid Col. Dahlgren is shot.
 March 2d, Gen. Grant made lieutenant-general.
 March 6th, Sherman is marching eastward again from Vicksburg.
 March 10th, Bank's Red River expedition sets out from Vicksburg.
 March 14th, Gen. Smith and Admiral Porter take Fort De Russy, La.
 March 15th, President Lincoln calls for 200,000 more men, to be drafted April 15.
 March 16th, Arkansas votes to become a free state.
 March 16th, Gen's Banks and Smith reach Alexandria, La., the rebels retiring.
 March 17th, Gen. Grant assumes supreme command of all the armies of the U. S.
 March 28th, battle of Cane River, La.; Gen. Smith's forces defeat the rebel Gen. Taylor.
 April 4th, Gen. Steele defeats the rebel Marmaduke on Little Missouri River, Ark.
 April 4th, New York Metropolitan Sanitary Commission Fair opened.
 April 8th, Gen. Banks' army severely defeated at Sabine Cross Roads, by Kirby Smith.
 April 9th, rebels attacking Banks' retreating army at Pleasant Hill are repulsed.
 April 12th, The massacre of surrendered negro soldiers by Forrest at Fort Pillow.

1864. April 17th, rebel Gen. Hoke with 10,000 men begins the siege of Plymouth, N. C.
 April 19th, rebel ram Albemarle attacks and drives union ships at Plymouth.
 April 19th, Red River falls, and leaves Porter's fleet helpless above Grand Ecore.
 April 20th, Plymouth, N. C., surrenders to Hoke, after stout resistance.
 April 23d, N. Y. Sanitary fair closes; receipts over a million dollars.
 April 24th, rebels following up Banks, severely defeated at Cane River.
 April 28th, Washington, N. C., evacuated by union troops; the ram Albemarle controls the sounds.
 May 2d, Lt. Col. Bailey begins to dam Red River to let the fleet out.
 May 3d, Gen. Grant breaks camp and the Army of the Potomac moves to the Rapidan.
 May 4th, Grant's army crosses the Rapidan.
 May 5-6th, the tremendous battle of the Wilderness; resulting in Lee's retiring.
 May 5th, Gen. Butler occupies Bermuda Hundred.
 May 5th, sea fight in Albemarle Sound with the ram Albemarle, which is driven off.
 May 7th, Sherman advances from Chattanooga, on his Atlantic campaign.
 May 9th, Gen. M'Pherson forces his way through Snake Creek Gap.
 May 9th, Crook defeats the rebel Jenkins and McCausland at Cloyd's Mountain, Va.
 May 10-18th, Grant fighting and assaulting Lee's Spotsylvania lines with immense fury; but stubbornly met. Grant at last flanking by the left, Lee retires.
 May 11th, Sheridan wins a cavalry fight at Yellow Tavern, killing Gen. Stuart.
 May 13-16th, Butler's attack on Fort Darling, finally broken up by a sortie.
 May 13th, Admiral Porter's fleet has passed down Red River by Col. Bailey's dam.
 May 15th, battle of Resaca, Ga., Hooker carrying an important rebel position.
 May 15th, battle of New Market, W. Va.; Sigel defeated by Breckenridge, and others.
 May 15th, Banks' troops defeat the rebels at Aroyelles Prairie, La.
 May 18th, Sherman to-day occupies Kingston, pursuing Johnston.
 May 19th, J. Howard's forged proclamation for 400,000 troops appears.
 May 21st, Grant advances from Spotsylvania.
 May 23-24th, Grant crosses the North Anna, Lee still retiring.
 May 28th, battle of Dallas; Johnston thrice assaults Sherman in vain, losing heavily.
 June 1st, First day's battle of Cold Harbor, Grant holding his lines against furious rebel assaults. The fighting on this ground continues for a week.
 June 2d, Sherman's cavalry occupy Allatoona Pass, the door to the level country.
 June 5th, battle of Mt. Crawford, Va., Gen. Hunter severely defeating the rebel Jones.
 June 7th, Mr. Lincoln renominated at Baltimore.
 June 10th, Gilmore and Kautz attack Petersburg. Kautz enters the town, but Gilmore not being up to time, can not hold it and has to retreat.
 June 10th, Gen. Sturgis very badly defeated by the rebels at Tishomingo Creek, Miss.
 June 11th, Sheridan defeats the rebels in hot cavalry fight at Trevillian Station.
 June 12-15th, Grant moves his army to the south side of James River.
 June 12th, Gen. Burbridge defeats Morgan at Cynthiana, recapturing many prisoners made the 11th.
 June 13th, Fugitive Slave Law repealed.
 June 15-18th, a series of determined and powerful assaults on Petersburg, but none successful; that city is from this time forward constantly bombarded and besieged.
 June 15th, battle of Pine Mountain; Sherman drives rebels back to their works.
 June 15th, fifty union officers, prisoners, placed under fire at Charleston by the rebels.

1864. June 17th, battle of Quaker Church, which convinces Hunter that he can not reach Lynchburg, and next day he retreats.
- June 19th, The Alabama sunk off Cherbourg by the Kearsarge, Capt. Winslow.
- June 22d, emancipation amendment submitted to the states by Congress.
- June 24th, Maryland constitutional convention adopts emancipation clause.
- June 27th, Sherman vigorously but vainly attacks the rebels at Kenesaw.
- June 28th, Wilson and Kautz attacked and their troops dispersed at Double Ridge on Nottoway River.
- July 3d, Sherman occupies Kenesaw and Marietta, having flanked the rebels out.
- July 5-13th, rebels under Early enter Maryland, come within five miles of Washington and retreat with great plunder.
- July 10th, Rousseau with 2,700 men moves into Alabama on a raid.
- July 12th, Clay, Holcombe and Sanders write to Mr. Greeley to get them passes to Washington to treat for peace.
- July 13-15th, Gen. Smith defeats Forrest and others in five battles in Mississippi.
- July 15th, incendiaries burn six steamers, worth \$300,000 at St. Louis.
- July 16th, gold about this time at its highest in New York, viz., 28½ per cent.
- July 17th, Hood succeeds Johnston in command in Atlanta.
- July 17th, Jaquess and Gilmore in Richmond, try in vain to treat for peace.
- July 18th, Rousseau is destroying an immense value in railroads and provisions in Alabama; and cuts road between Atlanta and Mobile.
- July 18th, Greeley's negotiation with the rebels at Niagara comes to nothing.
- July 20th, first attack of Hood on Sherman; it fails, and rebel loss 6,000.
- July 22d, Hood attacks Sherman furiously but vainly, and loses 14,000. Rousseau joins Sherman.
- July 22d, first publication of statements about the "Order of American Knights."
- July 30th, great mine under rebel works at Petersburg exploded, but by mismanagement, the attack results in union repulse with loss of 4,000.
- July 30th, McCausland burns two thirds of Chambersburg, Pa.
- July 30th, Gen. McCook's raiding force dispersed by rebels in Ga.; and next day Stoneman's captured.
- Aug. 5th, Admiral Farragut's splendid victory, in forcing his way into Mobile Harbor, defeating rebel fleet and capturing ram Tennessee and Admiral Buchanan.
- Aug. 7th, Averill totally defeats McCausland and other rebels at Moorfield, W. Va.
- Aug. 7th, Sheridan takes command of the Valley and concentrates at Harper's Ferry.
- Aug. 8th, Fort Gaines at Mobile surrenders to Farragut and Granger.
- Aug. 10th, canal at Dutch Gap, below Richmond, begun.
- Aug. 18th, battle at Reams' Station; Warren holds his position on the railroad; fierce rebel attacks made also in vain in the next two days.
- Aug. 23d, Fort Morgan at Mobile surrenders to Granger and Farragut.
- Aug. 25th, severe battle at Reams' Station, the rebels finally obtaining our works.
- Aug. 26-30th, Sherman moves suddenly round and cuts the railroad south of Atlanta.
- Aug. 31st, Gen. McClellan nominated at Chicago.
- Sept. 1st, Gen. Davis routs Hardee's corps with great loss, insuring Hood's retreat.
- Sept. 2d, Hood evacuates Atlanta, destroying enormous stores, &c. Sherman enters it.
- Sept. 4th, the guerrilla Morgan shot by Gillem's men at Greenville, E. Tenn.
- Sept. 16th, rebels boldly drive 2,500 cattle safe off from behind Gen. Kautz's lines.
- Sept. 19th, battle of Opequan, a brilliant victory by Sheridan over Early.

1864. Sept. 19th, Lake Erie steamers *Island Queen* and *Parsons* seized by rebels.
 Sept. 22d, battle of Fisher's Hill; very thorough defeat by Sheridan of Early.
 Sept. 27th, obstinate defence of fort at Pilot Knob, Mo., deranging Price's invasion.
 Sept. 29th, battle at Chapin's Farm north of James River; rebel works taken.
 Sept. 29th, Hood moves on the march which ends in his Nashville defeat.
 Oct. 9th, battle of Round Top Mountain; Torbert chasing Rosser 26 miles.
 Oct. 19th, battle of Cedar Creek; Sheridan utterly routing and dispersing Early's army.
 Oct. 19th, rebel refugees from Canada rob banks and citizens at St. Alban's, Vt.
 Oct. 25th, Pleasanton routs Price at Marais des Cygnes, Ark.
 Oct. 27th, reconnoissance in force along all Grant's lines, but without much result.
 Oct. 28th, Lieut. Cushing with torpedo boat sinks ram *Albemarle*.
 Nov. 8th, Lincoln and Johnson elected. Gen. McClellan resigns his commission.
 Nov. 14th, Sherman's great march from Atlanta to the sea begins to-day.
 Nov. 25th, a gang of rebel incendiaries fire several hotels in New York, and Barnum's Museum, fortunately without success.
 Nov. 30th, battle of Franklin, Tenn., an important victory, decisively checking Hood.
 Dec. 1st, Hood takes position before Thomas' works at Nashville, for a siege.
 Dec. 6th, Mr. Chase appointed Chief Justice of the U. S., in place of Roger B. Taney.
 Dec. 10th, Sherman is before Savannah, and on the 12th communicates with the fleet.
 Dec. 13th, Hazen's division of Sherman's army storms Fort McAllister in half an hour.
 Dec. 18th, the Canadian Judge Coursol releases the St. Alban's raiders.
 Dec. 15-16th, battle of Nashville; Gen. Thomas fatally defeats Hood's army.
 Dec. 17th, passports required on the Canadian frontier, a great damage to Canada.
 Dec. 18-20th, Gen. Stoneman, raiding in S. W. Va., has a severe 3 days' fight with Breckinridge, defeating him and breaking up the forts and salt works at Saltville.
 Dec. 19th, President Lincoln orders 300,000 more volunteers, or a draft.
 Dec. 21st, Sherman enters Savannah, Hardee having retreated northward.
 Dec. 22d, Hood is safe beyond Duck River, having lost 20,000 men in Tennessee.
 Dec. 24-25th, Butler and Porter attack Fort Fisher, N. C., but in vain.
 Dec. 31st, Farragut presented with \$50,000 by his admirers in New York.
1865. Jan. 8th, Blair and Singleton visit Richmond to treat about peace, but in vain.
 Jan. 12-15th, second expedition against Ft. Fisher, bombards it and storms it on 15th.
 Jan. 14th, Sherman moves out of Savannah on his march northward to join Grant.
 Jan. 16th, Sherman sets apart lands for freedmen, from Charleston southward.
 Jan. 31st, constitutional amendment abolishing slavery submitted to states by Congress.
 Feb. 3d, President Lincoln's abortive conference with the rebels Stephens, Hunter and Campbell.
 Feb. 16-17th, Sherman shells and enters Columbia, S. C., Beauregard evacuating.
 Feb. 18th, union troops occupy Charleston, rebels evacuating; 450 good cannon taken.
 Feb. 22d, Wilmington occupied by Gen. Terry's troops, coming from Fort Fisher.
 Feb. 24th, Beall, the Lake Erie pirate, sentenced on the 14th, hanged to-day.
 March 2d, Sheridan moving to join Grant, defeats Early at Waynesboro', Va., and captures almost his whole force.
 March 9th, the emancipation amendment thus far adopted by 16 states and rejected by 2, Del. and N. J.
 March 16th, battle of Averysboro'; N. C., Hardee withstands Sherman's attacks, but retires at night.
 March 19th, battle of Bentonville, N. C., Johnston attacks Sherman in vain.

1865. March 25th, rebels take Ft. Steadman before Petersburg, but are quickly expelled, losing 2,500.

March 25th, Kennedy, the N. Y. hotel burner, hanged at Fort Lafayette.

March 29th, the Army of the Potomac moves out for the final assault upon Lee.

April 1st, Sheridan and Warren severely defeat rebels at Dinwiddie C. H., 6,000 taken.

April 2d, Grant attacks heavily along his whole line; Lee decisively defeated, Petersburg and Richmond evacuated at night, and Davis flees.

April 9th, Lee surrenders remains of his army; being 26,115 men.

April 11th, blockade changed by proclamation into a legal closure of ports.

April 12th, Canby's troops enter Mobile, the siege having lasted since March 11.

April 14th, Gen. Anderson hoists on Fort Sumter the same flag he lowered there.

April 14th, Booth assassinates President Lincoln, and his confederate Payne tries to kill Mr. Seward; Mr. Lincoln dies at 7.22 next morning.

April 18th, Sherman and Johnston negotiate a peace, which is promptly repudiated at Washington.

April 25th, Booth discovered in a barn in Va., and refusing to surrender, is shot and dies in four hours.

April 27th, Johnston surrenders his forces on new and proper terms.

April 28th, steamer Sultana burned near Memphis; 1,500 souls lost out of 2,106.

May 9th, assassins of Mr. Lincoln put on trial at Washington.

May 10th, President Johnson's proclamation forbidding neutrals to harbor rebel ships.

May 10th, Jeff Davis captured in female disguise at Irwinsville, Ga.

May 23d, President Johnson reviews 80,000 troops in Washington.

May 26th, Kirby Smith surrenders to Canby the last rebel forces in the field.

May 29th, President Johnson proclaims an amnesty with 14 kinds of exceptions.

June 10th, great fire at Nashville, burning 8 or 10 millions worth of U. S. stores, &c.

June 15th, Galveston quietly occupied by Admiral Thatcher; last rebel port yielded.

June 17th, Gov's Johnson of Ga., and Hamilton of Texas, appointed by the President. Sharkey of Miss., and Holden of N. C., already appointed.

June 23d, up to this date the pirate Shenandoah has destroyed 10 whalers.

June 23d, blockade finally ended, and next day trade restrictions removed.

July 7th, the assassins Harold, Payne, Atzeroth and Mrs. Surratt, hung at Washington; Arnold, Mudd, Spangler and McLaughlin imprisoned for life.

July 13th, Barnum's Museum, New York, destroyed by fire.

July 13th, Gov. Marvin of Fla., appointed; Perry of S. C. appointed on the 1st.

Aug. 14th, great Ketchum forgery of some \$2,000,000 comes out in New York.

Aug. 15th, Wirz, keeper of rebel Andersonville prison, put on trial.

Aug. 23d, Mississippi convention adjourns, having nullified secession ordinance and accepted emancipation.

Sept. 1st, removal of restrictions from Southern ports.

Sept. 12th, Alabama declared the ordinance of secession "null and void," abolished slavery, and repudiated the rebel debt.

Sept. 14th, chiefs of rebel Indians sign treaty of loyalty with U. S.

Sept. 15th, South Carolina repealed the ordinance of secession.

Sept. 19th, South Carolina declared slavery abolished.

Sept. 23d, Alabama convention recognized abolition and passed emancipation clause.

Sept. 29th, Gov. Sharkey of Mississippi recognized, by proclamation, the rights of the negro.

1865. Sept. 30th, Maj. Gen. Terry suspended the *Commercial Bulletin* at Richmond.
 Oct. 2d, Government of Cuba surrendered the pirate Stonewall to the U. S.
 Oct. 7th, North Carolina declared the secession ordinance "null and void;" prohibited slavery in the state forever, on the 9th, and repudiated the rebel debt on the 19th.
 Oct. 11th, Alexander H Stephens and other prominent rebels released from Fort Warren.
 Oct. 12th, Proclamation of the President ending Martial Law in Kentucky.
 Oct. 10th, Champ Ferguson the guerilla, hung in Nashville, and Magruder the guerilla, hung in Louisville.
 Oct. 25th, Florida annulled the ordinance of secession.
 Oct. 28th, President Johnson declared that the Southern States must repudiate their war debts.
 Nov. 4th, Georgia declared slavery abolished, and on the 8th declared her war debt "null and void."
 Nov. 6th, Florida declared slavery abolished.
 Nov. 10th, Henry Wirz was executed at the Old Capitol Prison.
 Nov. 13th, South Carolina passed the constitutional amendment abolishing slavery.
 Nov. 13th, Gen. Augur forbade the whipping of negroes in his department.
 Dec. 1st, Writ of *habeas corpus* restored in the Northern States by the President.
 Dec. 2d, Alabama ratified the anti-slavery amendment.
 Dec. 18th, The Sec. of State, Mr. Seward, officially declared slavery abolished throughout the United States, 27 states having ratified the constitutional amendment.
 Dec. 21st, President Lincoln's remains transferred to their final resting place in Oak Ridge Cemetery, Springfield, Ill.
 Dec. 28th, Florida ratified the anti-slavery amendment.
 Dec. 30th, Hon. Wm. Henry Winter Davis, of Maryland, died.
1866. Jan. 12th, Order by Gen. Grant for the protection of loyal persons in the South.
 Jan. 22d, Free School bill defeated in the Tenn. Senate.
 Jan. 22d, a freedman ordered to be sold into slavery by the Sampson County Court, North Carolina.
 Jan. 23d, The constitutional amendment passed the New Jersey Senate.
 Jan. 23d, Negro testimony bill passed the Tenn. House of Representatives.
 Jan. 29th, Death of Rev. Eliphalet Nott, D. D., Pres. of Union College, N. Y.
 Feb. 8th, Freedmen's Bureau Bill passed in the House.
 Feb. 20th, President Johnson vetoed it.
 Mar. 10th, North Carolina passed an act securing for negroes all the privileges of white persons in the courts.
 April 2d, Proclamation of the President declaring the insurrection ended in the late rebellious states.
 April 6th, Civil Rights bill passed the Senate over the President's veto, by a vote of 33 to 15; and the House, on the 9th, by a vote of 122 to 41, and became a law.
 June 8th, the 14th constitutional amendment passed the Senate by a vote of 33 to 11; and the House, on the 13th, by a vote of 120 against 32.
 July 4th, extensive conflagration in Portland, Me.; one third of the city burnt, and property amounting to \$10,000,000.
 July 16th, President Johnson vetoed the Freedmen's Bureau bill and the House passed it over his veto.

1866. July 23d, Tennessee having ratified the constitutional amendment a resolution admitting her Representatives and Senators, passed both Houses of Congress.
July 27th, laying of the Atlantic Cable successfully completed.
July 30th, Massacre in New Orleans of leading Unionists and Colored men.
Aug. 14th, Philadelphia Convention to form a new party.
Aug. 20th, Writ of *habeas corpus* restored by proclamation of the President.
Sept. 4th, Southern Loyalist Convention at Philadelphia.
Sept. 16th, bloody affray at Platt City, Mo., between Unionists and several hundred rebels.
Dec. 2d, John H. Surratt, implicated in the assassination of President Lincoln, was arrested in Alexandria, Egypt.

ECCLESIASTICAL CHRONOLOGY.

A.D.

1. Jesus Christ born in Judea, now called the Holy Land, in the 4004th year of the world.
26. John the Baptist commences his ministry.
29. Christ is baptized by John in the river Jordan.
33. Crucifixion of Jesus Christ, under Pontius Pilate; six weeks after which event, he ascends to heaven.
35. The miraculous conversion, and beginning of the apostleship, of St. Paul.
39. St. Matthew writes his gospel.
44. St. Mark pens his gospel.
52. The Apostles assemble in council at Jerusalem.
62. St. Paul bound and sent to Rome.
64. The first persecution of the Christians. Nero, having set fire to Rome, threw the odium of the act upon them. Multitudes were massacred. Some were wrapped in the skins of wild beasts, and torn and devoured by dogs; others were crucified, and many were burned alive.
66. The last Jewish war against the Romans commences.
67. Peter and St. Paul suffer martyrdom at Rome by crucifixion, the former with his head downward.
70. Jerusalem, as foretold by Christ, totally destroyed by the Romans, and the ploughshare driven over its ruins. During this terrible siege, upward of 3,000,000 of the Jews perished.
95. The second persecution against the Christians.
99. St. John dies, in the 102d year of his age. Prior to this event, he had been cast into a caldron of boiling oil, taken out unharmed, and banished to the isle of Patmos, where he wrote the Revelation.
102. Pliny, the younger, writes his epistle to the Emperor Trajan at Rome, informing him of the mode of worship practiced by the early Christians. Among other charges, he says, "*Solent statu die convenire, et carmina dicere quasi Deo;*" i. e., "They were accustomed to assemble on a stated day, and sing hymns to God."
107. Third persecution against the Christians.
118. Fourth persecution against the Christians.
130. The Emperor Adrian attempts to rebuild Jerusalem and restore the temple, but his workmen are foiled by earthquakes and fiery eruptions.
202. Fifth persecution against the Christians.
235. Sixth persecution against the Christians.
250. Seventh persecution against the Christians.
257. Eighth persecution against the Christians.
272. Ninth persecution against the Christians.
303. Tenth persecution against the Christians; after which a series of persecutions broke out with the bitterest violence and cruelty. Drove of victims were bound together with ropes, and cast into the sea.
311. The Emperor Constantine becomes a convert to Christianity, and abolishes heathenism from his empire.

- 315. Rise of Arianism.
- 325. The first grand council of Nice, in which the Eastern and Western churches were represented.
- 343. The Christians are persecuted in Persia.
- 496. Clovis, King of France, is baptized, and embraces the Christian religion.
- 516. The computation of time from the birth of Christ, introduced by Dionysius, a monk.
- 597. Augustine, the monk, goes to England and teaches the Christian religion.
- 606. The Bishop of Rome is ordained the universal head of the church.
- 622. Mahomet begins to promulgate his religion by the sword.
- 637. Jerusalem captured by the Saracens.
- 698. The Picts in Great Britain are converted to Christianity.
- 748. Middle or dark ages, in which science slumbers, or is confined chiefly to the cloisters.
- 756. The popes are constituted civil lords in Italy, and arrogantly claim dominion over the whole world.
- 800. The German empire instituted by Charlemagne, or Charles the Great, the Germans heretofore having been divided into different tribes or separate kingdoms.
- 878. The university at Oxford founded by Alfred the Great, King of England.
- 915. The university of Cambridge established.
- 1065. Jerusalem captured from the Saracens by the Ottomans or Turks.
- 1065. William, Duke of Normandy, conquers England, and takes possession of the throne.
- 1096. The first crusade to Palestine, or the Holy Land, undertaken by several Christian sovereigns, with the avowed object of recovering Jerusalem and the holy sepulchre out of the hands of the Turks and Saracens.
- 1110. Revival of literature in the university of Cambridge.
- 1147. Second crusade to Palestine.
- 1177. Saladin defeated before Jerusalem. The crusade attended with immense loss of blood and treasure.
- 1178. The Albigenes and Waldenses, two Christian sects, take their rise in the south of Europe.
- 1189. Third crusade against the Holy Land, conducted with great fierceness and bravery, under the kings of England and France.
- 1192. Richard Cœur de Lion defeats Saladin at Ascalon. The victory, however, is not decisive. The crusades are finally abandoned as not being worth the immense sacrifice of blood and treasure they had already cost.
- 1215. Magna Charta signed by King John of England.
- 1233. The Dominican friars get the management of the inquisition into their hands.
- 1369. John Wickliffe commences preaching in England.
- 1414. The council of Constance assemble.
- 1415. John Huss and Jerome of Prague are condemned and burnt for their religious opinions.
- 1509. John Calvin born.
- 1517. Martin Luther writes against indulgences in Germany, which paves the way for the reformation.
- 1519. Zuinglius begins the reformation in Switzerland.
- 1529. The diet of Spire in Germany meet; the protesting against which gave rise to the name of Protestants.

1533. Henry VIII., of England, renounces his allegiance to the pope, and styles himself the supreme head of the church of England.
 1540. Foundation of the order of Jesuits.
 1545. The Council of Trent convenes.
 1555. Michael Servetus burnt at the instigation of John Calvin at Geneva, for disbelieving the doctrine of the Trinity.
 1560. John Knox introduces the Reformation into Scotland, and the monasteries are torn down and burnt.
 1572. Massacre of St. Bartholomew in France, when 70,000 Huguenots were slain throughout the kingdom, by secret orders from Charles IX., at the instigation of his mother, Catherine de Medici.
 1598. Henry IV. of France publishes the edict of Nantes, permitting Protestants the free exercise of their religion.
 1618. The synod of Dort in Holland held.
 1685. Revocation of the edict of Nantes by Louis XIV.
 1686. The duke of Savoy persecutes the Waldenses.
 1689. Toleration act for dissenters passed by the English parliament.
 1712. Great Arian controversy between Clarke and Waterland.
 1722. Count Zinzendorf becomes head of the Moravians, or United Brethren.
 1729. Christianity declared "part of the law of the land," in England.
 1731. First rise of Methodism, by preaching of Wesley and Whitefield.
 1773. Jesuits suppressed by bull of Clement XIV.
 1778. Voltaire dies, aged 82.
 1781. Raikes opens the first Sunday School, at Gloucester, England.
 1782. Inquisition abolished in Tuscany and Naples.
 1784. Bishop Seabury, first Episcopal bishop in U. S., consecrated.
 1790. Bishop Carroll, first Catholic bishop in U. S. consecrated.
 1791. John Wesley dies, aged 88.
 1803. British and Foreign Bible Society founded.
 1807. Andover Theological Seminary, the first in the United States, founded.
 1810. American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions organized.
 1820. Rise of the Unitarian controversy in the United States.
 1829. Catholic Emancipation Bill passed in England.
 1830. Origin of Mormonism, by publication of Book of Mormon by Joseph Smith.
 1841. Dr. Alexander made Protestant bishop of Jerusalem.
 1841. Schism in the Scotch church.
 1841. Puseyite controversy rises on condemnation of Puseyite tracts by Oxford University.
 1844. Ronge's Catholic religious reform in Germany.
 1845. Pius IX. becomes pope; undertakes many reforms.
 1847. Revolted Catholic cantons of Switzerland subdued, and Jesuits expelled.
 1850. A Catholic hierarchy established in England; Dr. Wiseman archbishop of Westminster.
 1852. The Madiari family persecuted at Florence; liberated by English influence.
 1856. Christians legally equalized with Mohammedans in Turkey.
 1860. Great Epoch in History of Russia; the beginning of the movement for the emancipation of the serfs, and for translating the Scriptures into Modern Russ, the vernacular of 50,000,000 people.
- Manuel Matamoros and others persecuted in Spain for Bible reading.

1861. April 8th; "Patent" granted by Emperor of Austria by which the rights and liberties of Protestants were acknowledged and guaranteed.
1862. Victor Emanuel suppressed monasteries in Italy; devoting them to educational uses. Aug. 24th; Bi-centenary celebration of the exodus of 2000 faithful ministers from the Church of England, because they would not submit to the "Act of Uniformity." Sept. 2d; Triennial celebration of the adoption of the Belgic Confession in Holland.
1863. First meeting of the General Synod of the Lutheran and Reformed Churches, in Vienna.
Jesuits expelled from New Granada, or United States of Columbia, and the great movement for civil and religious liberty brought to a successful completion by Gen. Mosquera.
1864. Imperial decree suppressing the smaller convents in Poland.
Aug. 26th; Monument to the memory of John Calvin at Geneva, was inaugurated on the bi-centenary anniversary of the death of the Reformer.
Dec. 21st; Pope Pius' encyclical letter denouncing religious liberty.
1865. National Council of the Congregational Churches of the United States, held in Boston 10 days, June 14-24.
1866. Religious toleration guaranteed in Chili.
Religious toleration declared by both governments in Mexico, Juarez's and Maximilian's.
Oct; First Centenary Anniversary of the introduction of Methodism into the U. S.

THE WAR BETWEEN FRANCE AND SARDINIA, AND AUSTRIA.

The Emperor Louis Napoleon publicly expresses to the Austrian envoy at his court his regret that the two governments are not on better terms—which leads to mutual armaments—January 1st, 1859.

Events growing daily more threatening, it is announced that England has sent Lord Cowley on a peace mission to Vienna, February 22d.

The announcement is made that a Peace Congress will be held, March 19th.

All hopes of peace are quenched by the news that Austria has insisted upon the disarmament of Sardinia alone, as a condition precedent to any peace negotiations, April 8th.

Austrian and Sardinian forces having assembled in the neighborhood of the Ticino, Count Gyulai forwards a peremptory summons to the King of Sardinia to disarm within three days, on penalty of war, April 22d.

Victor Emmanuel having returned an indignant refusal, is invested with dictatorial powers, April 23d.

Lord Malmesbury issues a final proposition for negotiation—which is accepted by Austria, and rejected by France, April 25th.

French troops begin to land at Genoa, April 25th.

Tuscany throws off its government and declares for Victor Emmanuel, April 25th.

The Austrian army, in three divisions, crosses the Ticino, April 29th.

A detachment of Austrians, in attempting to cross the Po at Frassinetto, is repulsed by the Sardinians, May 3d.

Louis Napoleon issues decrees relating to his departure for the army.

Louis Napoleon leaves Paris May 10th, reaches Genoa on the 12th, and joins the army on the 14th.

The battle of Montebello is fought between the outposts of the two armies, the French, under Gen. Forey, compelling the Austrians to withdraw, May 20th.

Garibaldi, at the head of 6,000 Italian volunteers, crosses the Ticino, May 23d.

Garibaldi fights his way into the city of Como, May 27th.

The battle of Palestro is fought by about 12,000 Sardinians, under their king, and 20,000 Austrians, under Gen. Zobel, the latter withdrawing, June 1st.

The battle of Magenta is fought, in which 100,000 allies, under Gen. McMahon, rout 120,000 Austrians, under Gen. Gyulai, June 4th.

The Emperor Napoleon and King Victor Emmanuel enter Milan, June 8th.

The battle of Malegnano is fought, the Austrians, under Benedick, being driven from their position by the allies under D'Hilliers, June 9th.

The battle of Solferino is fought, under the command of the two Emperors, by nearly 400,000 troops, the Austrians being compelled to retire, June 24th.

The Sardinians begin to invest the fortress of Peschiera, June 28th.

The allies cross the Mincio, June 30th.

The French Emperor takes up his head-quarters at Vallegio, on the east bank of the Mincio, July 3d.

The armistice between the belligerents, to last until August 15th, is signed July 8th.

Peace between the two Emperors agreed upon at Villafranca, July 11th.

THE WAR OF PRUSSIA AND ITALY WITH AUSTRIA.

By the treaty of Vienna, the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, which had belonged to Denmark for a long time, were fully confirmed to her. But in 1863 the king of Denmark granted independent rights to Holstein and annexed Schleswig to his own kingdom. Austria and Prussia both protested against this, and the German Diet demanded the annulment of the decree of annexation, and that both duchies be united with the German Confederation. The refusal of Denmark led to a war with Prussia, backed by Austria, which resulted in wresting the duchies from Denmark. But Austria and Prussia were soon at variance as to what should be done with the provinces. Prussia, ever anxious to extend her boundaries, proposed to absorb Holstein. Austria, jealous of her neighbor, protested against it. In the German Diet, Austria demanded the mobilization of the Federal army, and though opposed by Prussia, carried the measure June 14th, 1866 by a vote of 9 to 6. The Prussian representative thereupon declared the Diet dissolved and that Prussia would regard any state voting for mobilization, as having committed an act of hostility against herself. From this blunder of Austria came the war of 1866. The very next day, June 15th, Prussia invaded Saxony and Hanover occupying their capitals. Italy allied herself with Prussia, hoping to regain Venetia from Austria, and thus strike a blow for "Italian unity." Both simultaneously declared war, June 18th, the anniversary of Fehrbellin, Kolin and Waterloo, great Prussian battles. A severe battle at Custozza, near Verona, was fought by Italians against Austria, June 24th, the Austrians being victorious. Occupying Holstein, overrunning Saxony and Hanover, the Prussian army moved into Bohemia, in two columns. The Prussian and Austrian armies first met each other June 26th, at Liebenau, the former being the victors. A larger battle was fought at Podol, and two more at Nachod and Skalitz on the 27th, the Prussians winning the day. The next day at Trauteneau the Prussians, after a severe engagement, remained masters of the field. The other column defeated the Austrians at Munchengratz. On the 29th a great and sanguinary conflict occurred at Gitschin with a Prussian victory. The Austrians in full retreat made a stand at Sadowa July 3d, and were badly routed. This was the decisive battle of the war, and a great Prussian victory—195,000 Austrians and 225,000 Prussians being engaged, making this one of the greatest battles of history.

The Austrian Emperor, admonished by such continued defeat, seeing that he could not cope with Prussia and Italy both, ceded Venetia to France and besought Napoleon's mediation to procure an armistice with Italy. Victor Emanuel declined this, saying he could do nothing without the consent of his ally, Prussia, and immediately renewed military operations. Proposals for an armistice were offered by Austria to Prussia July 12th, but they were rejected. Flushed with victory, Prussia pushed her advantages and moved on toward Vienna, the Austrian capital and would have captured it, and was also on the eve of winning a battle that would have cut off Hungary, when an armistice was agreed upon July 18th. A treaty of peace was signed between Austria and Prussia, Aug. 30th, 70 days after the decision of the German Diet. As the results of the war, first, Prussia acquired Hanover, Schleswig, Holstein, Hesse Cassel, Nassau, Frankfort, a portion of Hesse Darmstadt and Bavaria. Second, the Germanic Confederation, 50 years old, was dissolved.

The cession of Venetia to Italy was concluded Oct. 19th. The joy of the Venetians in deliverance from the despotism of Austria was evinced by the vote for annexation with Italy, viz: 641,758 for, and 68 against. The entrance of Emanuel, King of Italy into Venice Nov. 7th, to take possession, was celebrated by one of the grandest and most jubilant demonstrations, and thus "Italian unity" was restored.

King Emanuel, on Dec. 15th, announced to his Parliament the crowning of the national edifice in Italy.



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